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Policies, perspectives and practices
ECCS 2015
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The organization of the curriculum through projects approach in Early Childhood Education: Challenges to teacher training

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Teacher training and the interface with the achievement of the curriculum in Early Childhood Education

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Functional knowledge of University of Murcia (Spain) Pedagogy students

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Although, traditionally, European countries follow centralized or decentralized policies regarding education, according to their political systems, the European space has been taking form, since the nineties, by borrowing and lending policies (Steiner-Khamsi & Waldow, 2012) that became internationally important and allowed the comparison of PISA results and that had an impact on international agencies. These movements and chains of influence brought to the curriculum arena the hard balance between centralized and decentralized curriculum decisions (Kuiper et al., 2008; Leite & Fernandes, 2012), especially those related with decision makers and the role performed by teachers and schools concerning such issue. New ways to develop curriculum practice were also brought into light and supported the research that pointed out the urgency to promote teachers’ agency (Priestley et al., 2012) and, simultaneously, emphasized new relationships between curriculum and assessment (Hayward, 2015).

The European Conference on Curriculum Studies was the perfect arena to reflect on such trends. It is because of that that this e-book has been organized. The book entitled Curriculum Studies – Policies, Perspectives and Practices explores policies, perspectives and practices and their articulation and gathers research articles from various countries, all of them focused on curriculum studies. Authors from Cyprus, Estonia, Spain, Switzerland, Brazil, Israel, Iran, China and Portugal have contributed to this e-book by deepening the curriculum studies debate. These different articles show that the researchers mentioned above all have the desire to contribute to a more adequate curriculum that meets the current demands.

The 62 articles are organized in the following themes related to curriculum:

- Policies
- Accountability
- Challenges in Higher Education
- Practices and discourses
- Theoretical and methodological curriculum perspectives
- Social and personal curriculum impact
- Technologies
- Teacher education

To sum up, one can conclude by reading the e-book that Curriculum Studies are alive and ready to face challenges emerging in Europe, as well as other Continents, with the unaccomplished promise to enhance Europe into the most advanced society when it comes to knowledge production and its use, as proclaimed in Bologna Process, and able to respond to the democracy crisis (Weßels, 2015).
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Policies
Curriculum Reform and Research in China: A social-historical perspective

Hua, Zhang; Hangzhou Normal University, Hangzhou, China

Introduction

Curriculum is the unity of facts and ideas. If the aspect of curriculum ideas is overlooked or artificially prohibited, all school subjects and other learning materials, as the main curriculum facts, will inevitably deteriorate into “dead facts” or “dead truth”, which is the burden and hinder for the development of students’ intelligence and morality. If the aspect of curriculum facts is denied, curriculum values and thoughts will lose their bodies and become empty words. So, to keep facts and ideas connected and united is necessary for the embodiment of curriculum values.

Because curriculum has the property of ideas, curriculum knowledge is both theoretical and historical. It is deeply involved in and influenced by social thoughts and historical situations. Meanwhile, curriculum field is the dynamic and organic part of social thoughts and historical situations. The former in turn positively influences and promotes the latter. Understanding curriculum based on social thoughts and historical situations has curricular and social meanings. Tracing curriculum to its historical situation, to understand it and find its historical form. Connecting curriculum theory and practice to social thoughts, to find the intrinsic relationship between them. That is a social-historical perspective on understanding curriculum.

From a social-historical perspective, Chinese curriculum field can be divided into four historical stages: enlightenment, Science-Metaphysics Debate, and 1922 Curriculum Reform; Radicalism, Ultra-Leftism, and the disappearance of curriculum field; pragmatism, humanism, and the recovery of curriculum field; Chinese liberalism, new enlightenment, New Curriculum Reform, and Chinese curriculum studies. Because I studied Chinese curriculum history in other places (H. Zhang 2014; H. Zhang and Gao 2014), in this paper, I will focus on the relationship between social thoughts, historical situations and curriculum field.

Enlightenment, Science-Metaphysics Debate, and 1922 Curriculum Reform

Curriculum field is rooted in historical situations. In 1911, Republic of China was founded. In 1949, People’s Republic of China was founded. Chinese modern curriculum field was generated during 1911-1948 and gained its first prosperity.

Chinese Enlightenment was formally initiated in May Fourth Movement in 1919, which had science and democracy as its soul. Science-Metaphysics Debate in 1923 was an organic part of May Fourth Movement and laid the thought base for it. This great debate resulted in multiple outcomes. On one hand, the school of “science” won, and the school of “metaphysics” temporarily failed. On the other hand, the school of “science” was deeply split between liberalism and radicalism. So, after Science-Metaphysics Debate, the pattern of modern social thoughts was formed: conservatism, represented by New Confucianism; liberalism, represented by Chinese pragmatism; radicalism, represented by Chinese Marxism. These three thoughts stood like a tripod, and competed with each other. They deeply influenced the change of social politics and culture, including curriculum reform and research.
As for the social realities, there were two main social tasks or themes in the first part of 20th century in China. One was enlightenment, which tried to enlighten people to cast aside feudalist consciousness and autocratic monarchy, strive for individual freedom and social democracy. Enlightenment is a not-yet-finished social cause in China, although Chinese people have been working for it for about 100 years since May Fourth Movement. The other was national salvation from extinction. From First Opium War in 1840 to the end of World War II in 1945, many western countries invaded and colonized China, and put China at the edge of subjugation. So national salvation was the most urgent task for Chinese people in early 20th century. The relation and competition between enlightenment and salvation deeply influenced, even determined China’s fate. The famous Chinese philosopher Li Zehou generalized this as “the duet of enlightenment and salvation” (Li, Z. 2008, 1-46). For curriculum field, it also confronted the choice: for enlightenment, or salvation?

In sum, the trio of conservatism, liberalism, and radicalism as social thoughts, and the duo of enlightenment and salvation as social reform themes, formed a complex social symphony in China in the first part of 20th century. This is the social and thought backgrounds of curriculum reform and research in China.

*Enlightenment.* As for the nature of May Fourth Movement, most people recognized it as “Chinese Enlightenment” (Li, Z. 2008; Schwarcz, V. 1986); a few people treated as “Chinese Renaissance” (Hu, S. 1934). Because its main slogans were “science” and “democracy”, and its main task was to borrow western learning to reconstruct Chinese learning, I understand May Fourth Movement as Chinese Enlightenment. But it was very different from Western Enlightenment. Firstly, May Fourth Movement embodied the intrinsic need to reconstruct Chinese culture through borrowing western culture, especially western science and democracy. It was a full-scale movement. Its participants were not limited to liberalists and radicals, but included conservatives (Confucians) (Yu, Y. 2004). Secondly, it was a mixture of enlightenment and national salvation from extinction. “May Fourth Movement includes two movements with different nature: one is New Cultural Movement; the other is students' patriotic movement against imperialism” (Li, Z. 2008, 1). As New Cultural Movement, it was a long-term (about 10 years, from 1917 to 1927) “paradigmatic shift” in Chinese culture, including vernacular language movement, literature revolution movement, anti-tradition movement, anti-feudalism movement, and so on. Generally speaking, it was a scientific movement and democratization movement in China, and had the nature of enlightenment. As students’ patriotic movement, it happened on May 4th, 1919, and lasted for several months thereafter. It was a demonstration of university students, attacking on Japanese imperialism and corrupt control of the Northern Warlords government, jointed by the strike of merchants and workers, which resulted from Japanese claims to German rights in Shandong Province in Versailles Treaty after World War I. In short, it was a movement of national salvation and revolution.

At the beginning of May Fourth Movement, enlightenment and salvation positively interacted and mutually promoted. “In a short term, enlightenment gained great momentum by means of salvation movement, and spread like wildfire. And enlightenment conversely provided thoughts, leaders, and troops.” (Li, Z. 2008, 10). Accompanying the more and more invasions of foreign countries and intensively severe domestic conflicts and wars among classes, regions, and powers, the force of salvation increasingly gathered. Meanwhile, the victory and success of Marxism-Leninism in former Soviet Union tremendously encouraged the young Marxists, revolutionaries, and other radicals in China. At last, salvation overwhelmed enlightenment. Enlightenment declined and came to the end. “Science” and “democracy”, as the May Fourth Spirits and Enlightenment reason, were gradually forgotten by people. Li Zehou said, “The situation that enlightenment and salvation ran parallel and helped each other did not last for a long time during the period of May Fourth Movement. The era situation of peril
and severe real struggle forced that political salvation theme overwhelmed thought enlightenment theme again. " (Li, Z. 2008, 29).

The competition between enlightenment and salvation determined the developmental direction and historical choice of Chinese society in the past two centuries. For nearly all the key events of great social-historical changes, salvation overwhelmed enlightenment. So, Chinese society was bogged in increasing radicalization in 20th century (Yu, Y. 1993). Before Reform Movement of 1898, when the famous Confucian and administrator Wang Zhao advised Kang Youwei that he should develop education and enlighten people first, and then carry on social reform after the personnel was ready. But Kang Youwei, the main leader of Reform Movement said to Wang Zhao, “The social situation is too urgent, and we have no time to develop education and prepare people. " (Li, Z. 2008, 29) The Reform Movement of 1898 lasted for only 103 days and failed. Before the Revolution of 1911, the famous thinker and evolutionist Yan Fu advised Sun Yat-Sen to develop education first, carry on revolution following up. Sun Yat-Sen, the first president of Republic of China, said to Yan Fu, "My life is not long enough to wait for the muddy river getting clear!" (Li, Z. 2008, 29) That means he couldn’t wait to launch social revolution. So, from 1898 to 1978, Chinese society had been getting more and more radicalized, and the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976) was at the peak of this radicalization. Salvation and revolution always came first and got more and more powerful. Enlightenment became weaker and weaker, and came to the end at last.

No education, no enlightenment. Enlightenment is always an evolving cause, not a violent revolution or radical movement. Progressive education is key to social enlightenment, and its organic part. If a society is full of revolutions, wars, and social conflicts, it will never realize the ideal of enlightenment. 1922 Curriculum Reform in China was an organic part of enlightenment cause of May Fourth Movement, and had perennial values in Chinese curriculum history.

Science-Metaphysics Debate. Although there were many social thought debates in the first part of 20th century in China, the most famous and important one was Science-Metaphysics Debate. It focused on the relation of outlook on life to science and metaphysics: which is the determinant for the formation and development of outlook on life: science or metaphysics? It happened in 1923, and lasted for more than one year. In February, 1923, the famous Confucian and professor at Beijing University Zhang Junmai gave a lecture “Outlook on Life” at Qinghua University invited by Professor Wu Wenzao, and published it in Qinghua Weekly (No. 272). Zhang Junmai advocated that science couldn’t solve the problems of outlook on life. His main reasons are: science is objective, but outlook on life is subjective; science is dominated by logical methods, but outlook on life is originated from intuition; science is analytical, but outlook on life is synthetical; science is ruled by the law of cause and effect, but outlook on life is dominated by free will; science seeks the commonality of objects, but outlook on life seeks the singularity of personalities (Zhang, J. 1923). In April, 1923, the geologist Ding Wenjiang published his paper “Metaphysics and Science” in Effort Weekly (No. 48-49), fiercely criticize Zhang Junmai as “ghost of metaphysics”, strongly advocated that Chinese society should adopt scientific methods to reconstruct people’s outlook on life. He said that he completely support Hu Shih’s opinion: “Today’s biggest responsibility and need are to use scientific methods to solve life problems.” (Ding, W. 1923). A huge thought debate emerged. Nearly all the outstanding scholars participated in it. Dozens of papers were published and read widely. During the process of the debate, two “camps” were formed: one is school of science, advocating that science can solve all the problems of personal life and society; the other is school of metaphysics, advocating that Chinese traditional Confucianism and western
humanist metaphysics are the basis of outlook on life. The outcome of the debate is that school of science won and school of metaphysics failed.

What is the nature of Science-Metaphysics Debate? Firstly, it is an organic part of May Fourth Movement and laid the theoretical foundation for it. “Towards science” is one of the main ideals and value orientations of May Fourth Movement. That means it must take up the challenge of traditional Confucianism and western humanism, i.e. “metaphysics”. The victory of school of science symbolizes the theoretical establishment of May Fourth Movement.

Secondly, it is not only a philosophical debate, but also a social-ideological one. It was not a usual academic debate, although it explored lots of philosophical questions, e.g. scientific philosophy, cosmology, epistemology, the relationship between body and mind, and so on. Its essence is to find a way to establish social ideology to transform Chinese society. “The true meaning of Science-Metaphysics Debate is not really the exploration of scientific epistemology, evaluation, or methodology, but mainly the debate on which idea or belief of ideology should be established. The school of science advocated science as ideology, but the school of metaphysics advocated non-scientific metaphysics as ideology. So, it is a debate on belief in determinism of scientism, or metaphysics of free will.” (Li, Z. 2008, 56, emphases original).

Thirdly, it symbolizes the formal establishment of cultural and ideological framework in modern Chinese society, which is the interaction and competition among conservatism, liberalism, and radicalism. Science-Metaphysics Debate can be divided into two stages. In the first stage, liberalism and radicalism cooperated to compete with conservatism and succeeded. In the second or later stage, liberalism and radicalism split, symbolized by the debate between Hu Shih and Chen Duxiu. Hu Shih, as the main liberalist, said, “Although we extremely welcome ‘economic view of history’ as an important instrument of historical science, meanwhile we have to acknowledge that thoughts, knowledge, and the like are also ‘objective causes’, can also ‘change society, interpret history, and dominate outlook on life’. In light of this, so far I have to say, ‘materialist (economic) view of history can at most explain most of social questions’. “ (Hu, S. 1923/2013, 156-157). Chen Duxiu, as the main radical (Chinese Marxist), said, “We believe that only objective material causes can change society, interpret history, and dominate outlook on life. That is ‘materialist conception of history’.” (Chen, D. 1923/2013, 155). “Hu Shih respected science very much, why he equally treats mind and matter!! Hu Shih surely advocates that there exists mind cause in addition to matter cause. He thinks that knowledge, thoughts, speech, education, can also change society, interpret history, and dominate outlook on life. He explicitly and obviously holds dualism of mind and matter. Zhang Junmai must warmly thank Hu Shih for his philosophy!!! “ (Chen, D. 1923/2013b, 160-161). From then on, liberalism and radicalism parted company and went into different ways. The situation of tripartite confrontation of conservatism, liberalism, and radicalism was formally built up. Conservatism, i.e. New Confucianism, was represented by Zhang Junmai, Liang Shuming, and Liang Qichao. Liberalism, i.e. reformism, was represented by Hu Shih and Ding Wenjiang. Radicalism, i.e. Chinese Marxism, was represented by Chen Duxiu and Li Dazhao.

Facing to the urgent social themes or tasks of enlightenment and salvation, conservatism, liberalism, and radicalism adopted different cultural attitudes and social strategies. Conservatism tended to keep and develop Confucianism, meanwhile adopt the useful elements from western culture. That is the principle of “Chinese culture as fundamental structure, and western culture as practical use”. Conservatism tried to realize enlightenment based on Chinese culture, especially Confucianism. Liberalism tended to borrow western culture, especially science and democracy, meanwhile adopt the positive elements of Chinese culture. That is the principle of “western culture as
fundamental structure, and Chinese culture as practical use”. Liberalism advocated reformism, and tried to realize enlightenment based on western culture. Radicalism believed Marxism-Leninism, denied Confucianism and liberalism, and advocated radical social transformation through class struggles and social revolutions.

One year later following the initiation of 1922 Curriculum Reform, Science-Metaphysics Debate happened. Some persons participated in both movements. Among them, Hu Shih was the main leader for both movements. We can say that Science-Metaphysics Debate is the theoretical foundation for 1922 Curriculum Reform no matter if the participants realized it. So, understanding the nature of Science-Metaphysics Debate laid foundation for understanding 1922 Curriculum Reform and the following curriculum research.

1922 Curriculum Reform. After three years’ of preparation and developmental process, on January 1, 1922, Ministry of Education of Republic of China issued School System Reform Decree, which symbolized the initiation of 1922 new school system and new curriculum reform. Firstly, China adopted a school system of 6 years’ elementary schools, 3 years’ middle schools, and 3 years’ high schools, also called “6-3-3 school system”, which has been lasted for today after an interruption and destruction in “Cultural Revolution” in 1966-1976. This school system was borrowed from the United States and symbolized the establishment of modern education system in China. Secondly, China built up the first modern curriculum system, including the first package of curriculum standards The Outline of New Curriculum Standards for New School System, related textbooks, new teaching methods and other implementation system. This opened up Chinese curriculum field and left perennially valuable legacy for curriculum reform and research in China (H. Zhang 2014). The basic philosophy for the new school system and curriculum system is the “seven standards”: 1) Adapting to the need of social evolution or progress; 2) Promoting the spirit of democratic education; 3) Seeking the development of individuality or personality; 4) Fostering the economic ability of citizens; 5) Emphasizing life education; 6) Making education universal; 7) Creating enough flexibility to meet the needs of local places (National Association of Education, 1925, p.127).

What’s the essence and significance of 1922 Curriculum Reform? Firstly, it chose educational enlightenment as its main theme and aim. So, it is an organic part of May Fourth Movement. Social evolution and individual development, democratic education and life education, universal education and curriculum flexibility, and so on, all these ideas embody the essence of educational enlightenment. They are the concretization of democracy and science in curriculum field. If in social-political field, the outcome of May Fourth Movement is that salvation and revolution overwhelmed enlightenment, in educational field, the seed of enlightenment was kept well and grew up through the great cause of curriculum reform. 1922 Curriculum Reform sowed the seed of educational democracy in China.

Secondly, it was based on liberalism, meanwhile absorbed the positive elements of radicalism and conservatism. The main leaders of this curriculum reform are liberals, e.g. Hu Shih, Tao Xingzhi, Huang Yanpei, Zhu Jingnong, to name a few. The main progressivists John Dewey, Paul Monroe, and William Head Kilpatrick directly participated in this curriculum reform and contributed their thoughts and wisdom to it. Because of its nature of democracy, science, and personal freedom, 1922 Curriculum Reform symbolized the initiation of educational democratization in China. With progressive education movement in North America, new education movement in Europe, 1922 Curriculum Reform and the whole new education movement in Republic of China formed a magnificent scenery of world educational democratization in early 20th century.
On the other hand, the interaction among liberalism, radicalism, and conservatism is very well in 1922 Curriculum Reform. For example, “fostering the economic ability of citizens” (standard 4) obviously embodies the influence of radicalism (Chinese Marxism), because it emphasizes the function of economic base. “Emphasizing life education” (standard 5) embodied Confucian educational wisdom, and also borrowed the essential thoughts of progressive education in America.

Thirdly, it promoted the democratization of education and society, and cultural development. Democratic education is the midwife of democratic society. 1922 Curriculum Reform had personal freedom and democratic society as its ultimate aims. Through this curriculum reform, people’s creativity was released and developed. Based on this, cultural development was at the peak in the first part of 20th century. During the social democratization and cultural development, large numbers of distinguished scholars and professionals emerged. They conversely promoted social and cultural development.

Chinese curriculum studies was given birth in 1922 Curriculum Reform. During 1922-1948, hundreds of curriculum papers and dozens of curriculum books were published. Curriculum studies gained its initial prosperity. What is the characteristics of curriculum research during 1922-1948? Firstly, curriculum research focused on solving problems in curriculum reform. It was problem-based. Secondly, positively introducing foreign curriculum theories and reconstructing them according to the need of curriculum reform. For example, the books of American curriculum scholars F. G. Bonser, Franklin Bobbitt, and William Charters were translated into Chinese. Based on these curriculum theories and the practical need of curriculum reform in China, many curriculum books composed, published, and read widely. Thirdly, wholeheartedly studying progressive thoughts of education, integrating them into curriculum reform, and forming Chinese ideal of educational democracy. The representative books of John Dewey, Paul Monroe, and William Head Kilpatrick were translated into Chinese. They were invited to China to give long-term lectures and seminars. Their thoughts were the important resources for Chinese educators to form their own curriculum philosophy and carry on curriculum reform and new education movement. At that time, both liberalists and radicals (e.g. Chen Duxiu) wholeheartedly sang the praises of new education. Fourthly, historical consciousness was emphasized in curriculum field. Because of the wide and deep influence of Confucianism, Chinese curriculum field paid great attentions on historical study from the very beginning. Many curriculum history books were published during that stage (H. Zhang 2014, 37-46).

In China, curriculum studies is a liberal and democratic cause. When society gets liberal and democratic, it is prosperous. When society gets closed and autocratic, it declines, even dies.

Radicalism, Ultra-Leftism, and the Disappearance of Curriculum Field

From Radicalism to Ultra-Leftism. The founding of People’s Republic of China means the double victories of national salvation and radicalism. On one hand, after dozens of years’ wars (the Northern Expedition, Anti-Japanese War, War of Liberation, and so on), China got independent, united, and equal at last. It got independent from one-hundred-year invasions of foreign countries. It got domestic unity and ended dozens-of-year warlordism. It overthrew the domination of landlord class and bureaucrat-capitalist class, and the great mass of working class got equal rights and social status. Along with these great achievements, the salvation theme and revolution culture got more and more popular, and the task of enlightenment was put at margin, even completely overlooked.
On the other hand, Marxism-Leninism and Mao Zedong Thought gained their absolute dominance in Chinese society. Mao Zedong Thought is the unity of Marxism-Leninism and China’s revolutionary practice. As a philosophy, its essence is dialectical materialism, which is the connection between Marxist materialism and dialectics, and Chinese practice (revolutionary wars of peasants) and traditional militarist dialectics (Li, Z. 2008, 180-181). It is mainly formed by “theory of contradiction” and “theory of practice”. The former treats the world as a “contradiction-based world”, which is determined by “principal contradictions” and “principal aspects of contradictions”. This theory lays firm foundations for class struggles, social revolutions, and social movements. The latter establishes the priority of practice and actions. Any knowledge and theory are in, by, and for actions and practice. This theory lays firm foundations for reconstructing the world. As an ideology, Mao Zedong Thought is the unity of Marxist revolutionary theory or class-struggle theory and Chinese traditional moralism. Socialism, proletariat, collectivism, and public ownership are revolutionary and moral. In contrast, capitalism, bourgeois, individualism, and private ownership are counterrevolutionary and immoral. Political correctness and moral nobility become a forceful means of social control. “Struggle philosophy of ‘taking class struggle as the key link’, moralism of ‘fighting privacy and criticizing revisionism’, and populism of ‘learning from poor and lower-middle peasants’, form the basic characteristics of Mao Zedong’s later thought.” (Li, Z. 2008, 205-206). In order to establish the absolute dominant position of Mao Zedong Thought, all kinds of liberalism and conservativism were criticized and prohibited. For example, both Hu Shih and John Dewey were fiercely criticized. “The last Confucian” Liang Shuming was also criticized. So, radicalism inescapably went into ultra-leftism.

The persist interaction between salvation theme or revolutionary culture and Chinese Marxism made Chinese society getting more and more radicalized. The question is: how did this radicalization get its way?

In Marx’s theory of social development, there is a mechanic sequence: from primitive society to slavery society, to feudal society, to socialist and communist society. This social design overlooks individual development and the value of civil society. Because it emphasizes the development of the totality of human beings, it overlooks individual development. For Karl Marx, only in the future “communist society”, “the free development of each is the condition for the development of all”. (Marx, K. and Engels, F. 1948). Because it emphasizes monistic social system, it overlooks the value of multiple civil society and public spheres. So, Bakunin criticized Marx’s social theory and pointed out that it must result in “the new privileged political-scientific class” (Pipes, R. 1990, 135. Quoted in Yu Y. 2004, 49). Milovan Djilas directly called this “new class”. “New class is the ruler who has unlimited and absolute powers. Because they are not somewhat restrained by civil societies like old ruling class, their powers are unlimited and absolute.” (Yu, Y. 2004, 49). In 1918, Lenin defined “proletarian dictatorship” as “rule unrestricted by any law”. Thereafter, Joseph Stalin fully exerted the ruling power of the “new class” and formed highly centralized social system of monism. That is Stalinism. New China had Stalinism as its model.

In early 1940s, Mao Zedong raised the theory of “new democracy”, which is a comprehensive social system and ideal of the integrity of capitalism and socialism, and advocates national, scientific, and mass culture. After the founding of People’s Republic of China, Mao Zedong gave up this theory, systematically and fully borrowed Stalinism, meanwhile, constantly criticized “rightism”. The main constituents of later Mao Zedong Thought are: the idea of “politics in command”; the theory of the struggle between bourgeois and proletariat, capitalism and socialism; and the theory of continuous revolution under the proletarian dictatorship. This laid the theoretical foundation for “Cultural Revolution” (1966-1976). This theory and the related practice formed ultra-leftism. The enlightenment theme was thoroughly criticized and abandoned. The long-term feudalist ideology took this
opportunity and systematically recovered itself. So, the integrity of feudalism and ultra-leftism formed the basic nature of “Cultural Revolution”.

Under the above social-historical background, educational field started its tortuous process of development. Because of the alternation of mainstream ideology, 1922 Curriculum Reform and the related curriculum ideas and theories towards enlightenment or democracy were prohibited. Meanwhile all the New Education Reform Movement in the period of Republic of China was abandoned. The progressive educators like Hu Shih, Huang Yanpei, Chen Heqin, even John Dewey, William Head Kilpatrick, and Paul Monroe were fiercely criticized. All the educational ideas like “individual development”, “democratic education”, “life education”, “child-centered education”, and so on, were treated as “bourgeois pedagogy”, and should be criticized and rooted out.

Kairov’s Pedagogy. How to construct “proletarian pedagogy”? The most convenient way was to borrow the ready-made pedagogy from the former Soviet Union. The main legitimate pedagogy is Kairov’s Pedagogy. It was translated into Chinese and published in China in 1950, revised for three times and reprinted for many times. It fully embodied Stalinism and was permitted by the resolution of Soviet Union Ministry of Education. It deeply influenced New China’s educational theory, practice, and policy, and provided the “model” for “socialist pedagogy”.

In Kairov’s Pedagogy, there are three “basic concepts”: “communist education”, “instructional contents”, and “instruction” (Kairov, I. 1953, 14-15). So called “communist education”, “is to purposefully and designedly nurture the younger generation, in order to help them positively participate in the construction of communist society, and positively defend Soviet country who has built up this society.” (14). So called “instructional contents”, “is the system of knowledge, skills, and skillful techniques, which students must master” (15). So called “instruction”, “is the work designedly implemented in schools. That means teachers systematically and orderly transmit knowledge to students and organize students’ activities, in order to help them consciously, positively, and firmly master certain knowledge, skills, and skillful techniques, and help each of them develop the character suitable for communist education tasks, based on the positive instructional work.” (15). So, in Kairov’s Pedagogy, education is the process that teachers dominantly transmit knowledge, skills and techniques to students and develop students’ communist consciousness, characters, and behaviors. Because “instructional contents” play most important roles in this process, they must be determined by governments. So curriculum conceptions are thoroughly removed in Kairov’s Pedagogy.

After the sufficient learning from Kairov’s Pedagogy, New China tried to establish its own pedagogy, which is called “revolutionary pedagogy”. Somebody called it “Mao Zedong Pedagogy” (Dong, B. 2011). This pedagogy has the following characteristics: it changed “moral education” into “political education”, which means education must serve the mainstream ideology, and put “political education” at the first position; it emphasizes the connections between education and productive labor and the masses, which is a “labor-oriented education”; it has Marxist dialectical materialism as its theoretical foundation, which is actually Mao Zedong’s “theory of practice” and “theory of contradictions”; it has workers with socialist consciousness and culture as the ultimate educational aim.

The commonalities between Kairov’s Pedagogy and Chinese “revolutionary pedagogy” are politics-oriented and training-based. Both have communist or socialist consciousness and characters as educational aims. Both believe in materialism and emphasize the dominant role of education, so they advocate training-based methodology of education. In the perspective of this kind of pedagogy, “instructional contents” are determined by power sectors.
who are in charge of ideology. Teachers and students have no power to make curriculum decisions. Educational researchers have no power either. So, curriculum field disappeared.

There is an important difference between Kairov’s Pedagogy and Chinese “revolutionary pedagogy”: the former emphasizes the instruction of systematic knowledge and skills; the latter is labor-oriented, and despises the learning of systematic knowledge and skills. So, in the period of “Cultural Revolution”, Mao Zedong fiercely criticized Kairov’s Pedagogy, called it “false pedagogy”, urged people “not to have blind faith in it” and “to eliminate its pernicious influence” (Dong B., 2011, 527-528). That’s why after “cultural Revolution”, especially since the recovery of the national examination for the entrance to universities in 1977, Kairov’s Pedagogy has gradually recovered its life in Chinese educational field, although it disappeared in Russia for dozens of years. In today’s China, Kairov’s Pedagogy still has strong influence in educational research field and is still one of the main foundations for “testing-oriented education” in practical field. It still hinders the realization of the ideal of educational democratization in China.

Pragmatism, Humanism, and the Recovery of Curriculum Field

In 1976, Mao Zedong died and then “Cultural Revolution” was ended. In 1978, Chinese government initiated the reform and opening-up policy. In order to lay firm theoretical foundations for this policy, the government led the Discussion on the Issue of Truth Standards, and achieved a great success. The conclusion is: “practice is the only standard to test truth”. The government alleged that it is a “Marxist view”. But it actually a pragmatist point. Using practice or the consequence of actions to test the effectiveness of propositions is the pragmatist view of truth, which faces to the future, controls the relationship between causes and effects, changes causes into means, and effects into ends. So it is a practical or acting view of truth. Remembering that Chinese most famous liberalist Hu Shih said the same words when he talked about John Dewey’s philosophy on July 10, 1921. He said, “Practice is the only touchstone to test truth”. (Hu, Shih, 2001, p.51). So the Discussion on the Issue of Truth Standards symbolized the recovery of liberalism in China. Deng Xiaoping raised two famous “theories”. One is “crossing the river by feeling the stones”, which means moving steadily and cautiously by testing each step. This is a spirit of trial-and-error. We can call it “stone theory”. The other is “whether a white cat or black cat, a good cat catches mice”, which means going beyond the debate of the ideologies between “capitalism” and “socialism”, and finding effective method to develop economy. This is a typical pragmatic attitude. We can call it “cat theory”. These two theories are the good examples of pragmatism and liberalism in China.

Radicalism also changed in 1980s, which was embodied as the debate on humanism in Marxist camp. In order to confront the humanistic disasters in “Cultural Revolution” and deeply understand the causes that gave rise to them, Chinese intelligentsia started to think about the following questions: What is the essence of humanity? What is the relationship between humanism and Marxism? Are there any phenomena of alienations in socialism? In order to answer these questions, Karl Marx’s early works, especially Economic and Philosophic Manuscripts of 1844, were wholeheartedly read and studied by Chinese intellectuals. The conclusion is that feudalist ideology in the name of “socialism” is the root of humanistic disasters. Because of feudalist ideology such as apotheosis and personality cult, “human beings are no longer human beings, but slaves and sinners groveling at the feet of gods, or wild beasts wearing the masks of gods.” (Li, Z. 2008, 211). Human dignity and human values are sacred and inviolable. Individuals have unique values and must not be overlooked and denied in the name of “collectivism”. Marxism is
humanism, and human beings are the starting point of Marxism. Socialism also has the phenomena of alienations and should be overcome by reflection and criticism. The establishment of Marxism as “human-beings-centered philosophy” means the criticism and transcendence of the theory of class struggles.

The return to liberalism and the turn to humanism in Marxism cooperated to form the second enlightenment in 1980s in China. It was “an awakening era, which was full of ideals, passions, and hopes.” “1980s was full of passions and ideals. These passions were not only for individuals (individual interests, personal emancipations, and so on), but also for the society, country, nation, and even higher objectives. So they were the passions connected to ideals.” (Li, Z. 2014a, 341). The second enlightenment inherits the basic spirits of the first one, i.e. May Fourth Movement, and fully developed them. Firstly, it praised the dignity of humanity and the values of individuals, and opposed the repression of feudalism and collectivism to individuals. Li Zehou said, “The main feature of 1980s was the awakening of individuals, which inherited the characteristic of May Fourth Movement: individuals' awakening from collective controls. May Fourth Movement is the awakening from the thousands of years' control of feudalist powers. In 1980s, it was individuals' awakening from the dozens of years’ control of collective powers. ” (340-341). The awakening of the consciousness of individuals and humanity was embodied in various ways: philosophy, literature, arts, and everyday life. Secondly, it advocated freedom and democracy, and criticized feudalism and despotism. In the light of the severe destruction of legal system and the abuses of human rights in “Cultural Revolution”, the political claims of democracy and freedom were deeply discussed and pursued. One of the efforts is “New Enlightenment Movement” in late 1980s. During the great debate on humanism and alienation issue, some democratic intellectuals initiated a journal New Enlightenment. Wang Yuanhua was the editor-in-chief, and Li Shu, Li Rui, Yu Guangyuan, Wang Huide, Li Shenzhi, Hu Jiwei, Qin Chuan, Wang Ruoshui, Li Honglin, and Li Pu formed the editorial committee. The aim of this journal was “to promote the emancipation of human thoughts, initiate new enlightenment in the whole nation, and carry on the reform of political system.” (Li, R. 2010, 19). New Enlightenment was first released in October, 1988, and was banned in 1989. It published four issues in total. It promoted the communication of the thoughts of democracy and freedom. Thirdly, it advocated scientific spirits, and fought against ignorance and superstition. In 1978, Chinese government organized the First National Conference on Science. Deng Xiaoping called for “marching toward science” in this conference. The social atmosphere of respecting science and scientists was formed (Zou, S. 2009, 39-40).

The main difference between the second enlightenment and the first one, May Fourth Movement, was embodied in the relationship between enlightenment and salvation or revolution. For May Fourth Movement, the relationship between enlightenment and salvation was complicated, and salvation overwhelmed enlightenment at last. Enlightenment therefore became an unfinished task. For the second enlightenment, the tensions between salvation and enlightenment did not exist, and enlightenment firstly overwhelmed salvation in Chinese history. Just as Li Zehou said in 1989, “If salvation overwhelmed enlightenment in revolutionary age in the past, today enlightenment is salvation. The only way to make the country prosperous and strong, and to realize modernization, is to strive for democracy, freedom, reason, and the rule of law” (Li, Z. 2014b, 49). Based on the second enlightenment in 1980s, many social thoughts were generated and deeply influence the society in 1990s. For example, pragmatism, utilitarianism, cultural conservatism, nationalism, neo-liberalism, neo-leftism, post-modernism, and so on, were popular and influential (Zou, S. 2009, 41-44). Meanwhile, politics, economy, culture, and education were deeply changed.
Shanghai Curriculum Reform. On the background of the second enlightenment and the reform and opening-up policy, Chinese government initiated educational reform. In May, 1985, the government released *The Party Central Committee’s Decision to Reform Educational System*. The main content is to change centralization into decentralization in educational system. It points out the main problems in curriculum and teaching: “Many curriculum contents are obsolete. Teaching methods are rigid. Students’ practical work is overlooked”. These problems result in “students’ very low abilities to live an independent life and to think creatively” (The Party Central Committee. 1985). This official document points out the future direction of curriculum reform. In 1986, the government issued the first Compulsory Education Law, and regulated that China would enact 9 years’ compulsory education from 1986 on. Universal and massive education is the basic character of Chinese education. In order to meet the requirements of compulsory education and the decentralized educational system, the government initiated a curriculum reform. Shanghai, as one of the most important cities in China, led this curriculum reform.

Shanghai Curriculum Reform was initiated in May, 1988. It was a whole systematic K-12 curriculum reform. In September, 1991, the new curriculum was experimented in some schools. From 1993 on, it was gradually spread to the whole city. The main aim for this curriculum reform was regulated as follows: “Primary and secondary schools should provide well-rounded education of morality, intelligence, body, aesthetics, and labor. Students should become good citizens with well-developed ideological qualities, cultural qualities, physical qualities, and labor qualities, who should develop good individualities and meet the need of socialist construction cause.” (Wang, S. 1991, 20). “Qualities education” and “individual development” are the soul for Shanghai Curriculum Reform. To change “teaching to tests” into “qualities education”, and “collective-centered education” into “individual development” is the main objective for this reform. Because it explicitly raised the idea of “individual development”, it was the dynamic part of the second enlightenment.

In order to embody the idea of “qualities education” and realize the aim of “individual development”, Shanghai Curriculum Reform created a “pedagogical model” of curriculum design, which was formed by the dynamic interaction among social needs, systems of subject matters, and students’ development. This model absorbed the reasonable elements of three typical theoretical orientations of curriculum design—“the subject-centered curriculum”, “the student-centered curriculum”, and “the social-centered curriculum”, and carefully avoided the biases of each orientation. For Shanghai Curriculum Reform, the integrity of social needs, systems of subject matters, and students’ development forms the keystone of “qualities education” and “individual development”. This model overcame the shortcomings of long-term dominant orientations of “social-centered curriculum” and “subject-centered curriculum” in China, and recovered the status of students’ needs and development in curriculum (Zhong, Q. 1995, 30-36).

In order to promote “individual development” of students, Shanghai Curriculum Reform created a new curriculum structure, which was constituted by compulsory curriculum, elective curriculum, and activity curriculum. Because of the highly centralized system of curriculum management, there was no true elective curriculum in the past. Shanghai Curriculum Reform historically set elective curriculum from grade 8 to grade 12. From then on, increasing students’ choice in curriculum has been an important theme for curriculum reform. Meanwhile, the set of activity curriculum created the opportunity of experiential learning for students, which was helpful to develop students’ creativity and practical ability. The emphasis of activity curriculum and experiential learning also forms a valuable tradition in Chinese curriculum reform.
The Recovery of Curriculum Field. After a long-term of the disappearance of curriculum conceptions and research, accompanying the second enlightenment and related thought emancipation, there was a strong thirst for curriculum field in 1980s. Curriculum is the thought and experience of teachers and students. If there is no curriculum conception in schools, teachers and students are inevitably deprived of their thoughts and experience by rigid “official knowledge”. If there is no curriculum field at universities, educational research is inescapably degraded into the maintainer of “official knowledge” and controlled by technical rationality or mainstream ideology. The second enlightenment was just like a “digger”, which dig out a small but clear spring of curriculum theory in China.

In 1981, the first academic journal of curriculum studies was established in People’s Educational Publishing House in Beijing, named Curriculums, Subject Matters and Instructional methods. It has become one of the most important journals to publish curriculum papers since then. Several other educational journals also published curriculum papers at odds. In 1980s, dozens of papers on curriculum studies were published in China. These papers dealt with several topics in curriculum field: 1) the disciplinarity of curriculum studies, e.g. Dai Botao’s On the Importance of Research on School Curriculum (1981), Shi Guoya’s The Scope and Guiding Principles of Curriculum Research (1984); 2) curriculum development, e.g. Zhong Qiquan’s Several Questions on Modern Curriculum Development (1989a); 3) curriculum reform, e.g. Chen, Xia's The Dialectics of Curriculum Reform (1985); 4) curriculum history, e.g. Xiong Chengdi’s Research on Curriculum and Subject Matters in Ancient China (1985); 5) hidden curriculum, e.g. Ban, Hua’s Hidden Curriculum and the Forming of Personal Morality (1988); and so on. Restricted by the social conditions at the early stage of reform and opening-up period, these papers were limited in the width and depth of curriculum studies, but they were like buds in spring, indicating a beautiful future.

The most important event in 1980s and early 1990s was the publication of synoptic textbooks of curriculum studies. It was the first time after 1949. In 1989, the former director of Institute of Curriculum and Instruction at East China Normal University, Professor Zhong Qiquan published the milestone book in Chinese curriculum field Modern Curriculum Theory (1989b) in Shanghai. This is an encyclopedia-like curriculum book, which systematically introduces and explores the development of curriculum studies in western world. It integrates three perspectives of the theoretical, practical, and international. On theoretical level, it explores ancient curriculum theory in western world; the Enlightenment curriculum thoughts of Johann Amos Comenius, John Locke, and Jean-Jacques Rousseau; Pestalozzism; utilitarianism of Herbert Spencer and Thomas Henry Huxley; Herbartism; John Dewey’s empiricism; discipline-centered curriculum thoughts of Jerome S. Brunner, Joseph Schwab, and Philip Phoenix; and humanist curriculum in 1970s. On practical level, it investigates curriculum objectives, curriculum structures, curriculum types, curriculum materials, curriculum evaluation, and curriculum management. On international level, it comparatively studies the curriculum circumstances in America, England, France, Germany, Japan, and Soviet Union. This is a magnificent picture of world curriculum field. It not only provides rich and colorful curriculum ideas, but also suggested methodical principles of the theoretical, practical, and international. It is one of the most influential curriculum synoptic text in China, marks the recovery of curriculum field in contemporary China and the independence of curriculum studies from Kairov’s Pedagogy.

Also in 1989, Professor Chen Xia published another synoptic text Curriculum Theory (1989) in Beijing. It involves curriculum history in China and western world, various curriculum schools in western world, the influence factors of school curriculum, the nature and types of school curriculum, curriculum construction and implementation, curriculum evaluation, and so on. This book tries to absorb the “positive elements” from the Soviet Union and western world, focus on practical needs of Chinese education, and form a curriculum book with “Chinese

Shanghai Curriculum Reform and the newborn curriculum field mutually promoted. Emphasizing students’ individual development and qualities education, borrowing western curriculum theories, and recovering Chinese curriculum field, all embodied the characteristics of liberalism and humanism in the second enlightenment. All these great achievements laid firm foundations for the third enlightenment, new curriculum reform, and curriculum studies with Chinese style in 21st century.

Chinese Liberalism, New Enlightenment, New Curriculum Reform, and Chinese Curriculum Studies

The turn of the century provided a valuable moment for Chinese people to reflect: where should we go in 21st century?

From early 1990s to the present, it is the period of fastest development in the past two centuries in China. China’s way of development is the way of compressed modernization. That means China uses dozens of years to realize modernization which takes hundreds of years in western developed countries. “By and large, the current of new enlightenment in 1980s in China testifies the Renaissance and the Enlightenment in modern times, and the differentiation and diversification of social-cultural currents of thoughts since 1990s in China largely testifies the circumstances of ideas and social thoughts during the transforming period of capitalist industrialization.” (Zou, S. 2009, 46). The compressed modernization or growth results in two outcomes. Firstly, it rapidly changes China and the society swiftly goes to individualization, pluralization, freedom, democracy, and progress. In the past 30 years, China has created a miracle of economic development in the world. Now China’s economic aggregate ranks No.2 worldwide. 1.3 billion people’s subsistence problem has been solved, which is a continuingly unfinished job in the past thousands of years. Political democracy, law construction, human rights, individual freedom, and social justice are also making big progress. Cultural development are unprecedentedly prosperous. Chinese people can almost live same cultural life to the people in western developed countries, which is unimaginable in the past. All these great achievement are not easy to get and should not be overlooked.

Secondly, it is the best of times, and it is the worst of times. Because everything goes too fast and the society has no enough time to solve the problems of modernization, various social problems show up. Physically speaking, today, China’s environmental pollution and destruction come to a climax. The ideal of unity between heaven and human being is given up, which persisted for thousands of years in ancient China. The sustainable development between man and the nature does not exist. Spiritually speaking, together with the high-speed development of market economy, the reification of human beings’ spiritual life reaches its peak, belief crisis and moral decline are
denounced by the people in the world. Commodity fetishism and hedonism are on the increase. “Human bodies become the instruments of consumption”, and “human spirits become the experimental sites and victim of pleasure” (Zou, S. 2007, 55). Cultural industry and mass culture forcefully control human beings' spiritual life and everyday life. Not all parts of cultural industry and mass culture are negative, but they might decrease or deprive the transcendence of human spirits, and make people dominated by material desire. They might change human interests into human fashions, and control human spiritual life. Fashions hinder and depress the independence and individualization of human life. “In form, fashions claim individualization. In essence, fashions, as market tastes, just realize typicalization and formalization of individuality” (Zou, S. 2007, 56). Just like Zygmunt Bauman criticized, the process people seek individuality “is like the one people change clothes, which can be freely chosen or put down” (Bauman, Z. 2002, 187. Quoted in Zou, S. 2007, 56). They might colonize life world through the control of people's cultural styles and life forms. When people's everyday life is thoroughly dominated by cultural industry and mass media, people's unique and private life will disappear, their spiritual life will have no body to live in, and their souls will become wandering ghosts. The colonization of life world goes to its peak in networking life. When information technology is involved in cultural industry and mass culture, a new life style—networking life—will be created. Today networking life is swiftly and increasingly affecting, dominating, and alienating the everyday life of human beings. “More and more people treat networking life as real life, displace and forget real everyday life. Virtuality becomes reality, but reality becomes illusion.” (Zou, S. 2007, 56). Maybe one of the most severe dangers for human beings is the displacement of life world by networking life. Extreme freedom is no freedom. When human beings lose true freedom in internet, human society will inevitably fall into unprecedented spiritual crisis.

Confronted with the social problems, different thought trends provide different solutions. Radicalism or new leftism tries to reinforce the authority and power of government and solve the problems by top-down control and conquest. Conservatism or new Confucianism tries to recover traditional culture and moral system, and cure the social diseases by the promotion of people’s morality. Liberalism or rightism tries to directly and quickly borrow the political system of democracy from western world, and solve the problems by the rule of law. The debates among the three social thought trends have been persisting since we stepped into 21st century, as if the history went back to the period of May Fourth Movement about a century ago. Where is way to go?

**Chinese Liberalism.** Tracing back to one hundred years' Chinese history, when liberalism, radicalism, and conservatism positively interact with each other, Chinese society will develop well, and politics, economy, and culture will get prosperous; when the three thought trends blindly compete with each other, or one trend draws support from political power to fight the others or ban their legality, Chinese society will go to crisis even disasters, like the period of Cultural Revolution (Tang, Y. 2006, 225-245).

Since Chinese society went into 21st century, each of the three thought trends has been continuously developing and getting stronger and stronger. Confucianism has been getting the double supports of economy and politics from the government in the past 15 years, and become an unprecedented “fad” in thought circle, academic field, and civil society after the end of the imperial examinations system in 1905. Accompanying the development of market economy and the internationalization of Chinese society, liberalism is not only embraced by the intellectuals but also supported by the masses. The representative works of all kinds of liberalism in western world have been translated into Chinese and wholehearted read. Marxism, as the mainstream ideology and as an academic thought, is subtly distinguished and mutually affected. Nearly all kinds of western Marxism have been introduced to China and studied by scholars. The mainstream ideology is getting more open and getting rid of the control of the
ideology from the former Soviet Union. In short, the situation of tripartite confrontation of liberalism, radicalism, and conservatism has been recovered in today’s China and become firmer than the circumstances in the first part of 20th century.

The developmental direction of Chinese society is towards Chinese liberalism. That means China should firmly keep the liberalist direction of freedom, democracy, human rights, and the rule of law, meanwhile inherit the valuable tradition of morality and benevolence in Confucianism, absorb the historical consciousness and critical consciousness in Marxism, and borrow the positive elements from existentialism, post-modernism, or other thoughts (Li, Z. 2012, 1-38). So, Chinese liberalism is historical, ideal, and emotional. In contrast, generally speaking, western liberalism is ahistorical and rational (Li, Z. 2014b, 245-247). Chinese liberalism is the integrity of the ideal and real, the traditional and the modern, the national and the international. China should open up a Chinese way to go for modernization, freedom, and democracy.

Chinese liberalism is a transformative creation and a creative synthesis. It needs the transformative creation of Chinese wisdom traditions, including Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism. Meanwhile, it should also creatively synthesize other thoughts, especially radicalism. If Chinese wisdom traditions are overlooked, liberalism will go to colonialism and hegemonism. If radicalism is overlooked, liberalism will be lack of historical consciousness and critical consciousness, and become still. If liberalism is overlooked, nationalism and leftism will go together, and form an ultra-nationalism or populism. And the society will be in danger, even at the edge of wars.

New Enlightenment. If in the first part of 20th century, salvation overwhelmed enlightenment; during 1949 to late 1970s, social movements and revolution overwhelmed enlightenment; in 1980s, enlightenment was salvation; today, in the 21st century, we should go to “new enlightenment”.

“New enlightenment” has Chinese liberalism as its ideological foundation. It at least has the following connotations: 1) it keeps the enlightenment ideals and objectives of science, democracy, equality, freedom, human rights, and the rule of law from beginning to end; 2) it criticizes and overcomes the shortcomings of “enlightenment reason”, especially instrumental rationality and scientism; 3) it integrates enlightenment ideals with Chinese wisdom traditions, especially Confucianism; 4) it focuses on today’s real social problems in China and the world; 5) it adopts the bottom-up strategy to realize enlightenment ideals; and so on (Zhang, H. 2008).

If May Fourth Movement is the first enlightenment, 1980s is the second enlightenment, today’s “new enlightenment” is the third enlightenment. For this round of enlightenment, education will play a decisive role.

New Curriculum Reform. Just as the second enlightenment in 1980s is the preparation for the third enlightenment in 2000s, Shanghai Curriculum Reform laid foundation for 2001 Curriculum Reform or “New Curriculum Reform”. On June 7th, the State Council of China issued The Guidelines for Curriculum Reform of K-12 Education (Try-out Version). This marked the start of New Curriculum Reform. This important official document regulates the aims of new curriculum as follows:

The new curriculum should be in step with the advancement of our times. Our new education is to imbue our students with patriotism and team spirit, nurture their love for our socialism, cultural and revolutionary heritage of Chinese nation, train them to become law-abiding citizens with sound morality, positive world outlook, correct attitudes toward life, and a sound value system. Our education should also instill into our students the sense of responsibility as a citizen, and the ideals of serving people. They should be able to work with creativity, turn
knowledge into practice, and possess scientific literacy, human literacy, and environmental consciousness. They will pursue life-long study with basic knowledge, skills and methods. They are healthy both physically and psychologically with a good taste for beauty, ideals of life, morality and culture and the ability to exercise self-control (National Ministry of Education, 2001).

The general idea of New Curriculum Reform is “for Chinese nation’s rejuvenation, for every student’s development” (Zhong, Q., Cui Y. & Zhang H. 2001). From the general curriculum idea and curriculum aims, we can find that New Curriculum Reform is an organic part of new enlightenment. Firstly, it fully embodies liberalist spirit and enlightenment ideals, e.g. “for every student’s development”, emphasizing students’ creativity, scientific literacy, and human literacy, advocating citizen education and legal education, and so on. Secondly, it also embodies the claims of Confucianism, e.g. “for Chinese nation’s rejuvenation”, “to nurture students’ love for cultural heritage of Chinese nation”, emphasizing moral education, and so on. Thirdly, it fully embodies the demand of the mainstream ideology Marxism.

The nature of New Curriculum Reform is educational democracy (Zhang, H. 2014, 53-54), which echoes 1922 Curriculum Reform, just like today’s new enlightenment echoes May Fourth Movement.

Chinese Curriculum Studies. Chinese curriculum field was born in May Fourth Movement, under the background of 1922 Curriculum Reform. It disappeared in ultra-leftism, under the background of Kairov’s Pedagogy and educational centralization. It was reborn in the second enlightenment in 1980s, under the background of Shanghai Curriculum Reform. It has been getting more and more prosperous in today’s new enlightenment, under the background of the ongoing New Curriculum Reform.

What conclusions can we draw from a social-historical perspective?

Firstly, Chinese curriculum studies should have Chinese liberalism as its thought foundation. We should treat curriculum studies as a liberal cause, creatively transform Chinese wisdom traditions and develop curriculum wisdom, keep historical and critical consciousness to do curriculum research, and draw valuable perspectives from various thought trends to understand curriculum.

Secondly, Chinese curriculum studies should have new enlightenment as its ultimate aim. We should treat curriculum studies as a human science, seek educational democracy, work on the emancipation of teachers and students, criticize technical rationality, and successfully connect enlightenment ideals and Chinese wisdom traditions.

Thirdly, Chinese curriculum scholars should collaborate with school teachers to carry on grass-rooted curriculum reform. Teachers as curriculum leaders. Teachers as curriculum creators. Curriculum scholars should respect and understand teachers’ curriculum thoughts and practice, and cooperate with teachers to listen to students. Through the continuous and complicated conversations between curriculum theory and practice, scholars, teachers, and students create democratic classrooms and schools, and realize self-emancipations. Educational new enlightenment is a bottom-up cause, a slow revolution.

References


The politics of teacher autonomy in Estonia, Germany, and Finland

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In the era of global educational competition manifested in the international comparative studies of student achievement many countries have chosen a stronger standardization of curricula and increased pressure on teacher accountability which has raised concerns regarding teacher professionalism and autonomy. This study focuses on cross-cultural research of teacher autonomy casting light on the varying responses of nation-states to the tension of standardization and decentralization of education as well as structure and agency problematic.

As autonomy can be understood as a positive notion of liberty to do something or as negative notion of freedom from constraints (Carter, 2012) this research focuses on both aspects: autonomy and control. The three main research questions are:

1) What theoretical frameworks are there about teacher autonomy and control?
2) How does the education policy shape teacher autonomy and control?
3) How do teachers perceive their professional autonomy and control over themselves?

In addition to creating two theoretical models three empirical studies were conducted. First, upper secondary school curricula and teachers' newspapers from Estonia, Germany (Bavaria) and Finland (1990-2011) were analysed using critical discourse analysis. Then an interview study was conducted with 10 Estonian, 10 Finnish and 13 German teachers. The result: Curriculum discourse is in contradiction with teachers' experiences as expressed in newspapers and interviews.

Keywords: teacher autonomy, comparative education, curriculum discourse, teacher attitudes, neoliberalism

Introduction

My interest in the topic derives from my own experience as an Estonian high school teacher who experienced, during the 2000s, the contradictory roles of teachers in the era of decentralization and standardization of education. Since the mid-1990s, Estonian education policy emphasized local, school-based decision-making regarding the curriculum and school management, while centralized graduation exams were introduced which emphasized competence-based learning and standardized outcomes of education. Based on these exams, ranking lists of schools were created which strongly influenced students' school choice and public opinion of school quality, at the same time putting pressure on teachers to be accountable for the performance of their students. With the independent lesson allocation of schools and school profiling, teachers were expected to deliver the same standardized outcome with fewer lessons than schools which emphasized the subject with additional lessons. This naturally created negative feelings in teachers. In fact, according to an OECD study on teachers (2009, p. 111), Estonian teachers reported, on average, a lower level of job-satisfaction and self-efficacy than teachers in other OECD countries. Self-efficacy was, in this report, defined as “the judgment of one’s capability to accomplish given level of performance” (Bandura, 1984, p. 391, as cited in OECD, 2009, p. 111). This finding, combined with the
general knowledge of teachers’ low social status in Estonia and the following difficulties in recruiting new teachers, raises concern regarding the sustainability of the teaching profession in Estonia.

Although the demands on the teaching profession are growing everywhere since education became, with the comparative student achievement tests, such as PISA, a matter of international importance, evidence suggests that on-the-job stress is managed better by teachers who perceive themselves to be autonomous regarding the curriculum. Moreover, general teacher autonomy, which involves the need of teachers to have control over their work environment, is also positively correlated with empowerment and professionalism, which are indicators of commitment to the profession (Pearson and Moomaw 2005, p. 49). Since autonomy is one of the basic psychological needs fostering motivation and job satisfaction (Vansteenkiste and Deci 2013) it is important to study how much and what kind of autonomy teachers in Estonia do have. In order to do this, an international comparative study seemed appropriate because it enables to see the findings on Estonian teachers in a larger context.

The comparison involves Estonia and two other countries which were selected due to their historical and present influences on Estonian education: Germany (with the focus on Bavaria) and Finland. While the influence of German culture on Estonian education is mainly explained by the long presence of (ruling) Baltic Germans in Estonia from the early 13th century until 1940, the Finnish influences are more recent. After the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991 when the Estonian Republic was re-established, Estonia resumed developing its own curricula. Expert knowledge was sought from Finland as Estonia’s closest neighbor with well-functioning education system and longer existing traditions of democracy. The first national curriculum of Estonia after the Soviet period was released in 1996 after being reviewed by the curriculum experts of Finnish National Board of Education (Krull & Trasberg, 2006).

This paper summarizes the main findings of my doctoral dissertation (Erss 2015) which contains the theoretical overview and the development of two theoretical models and three empirical studies. First, the theoretical concepts of teacher autonomy and the two models are presented that form the operational context of the empirical studies from which the research questions are derived. Next, the main results of the empirical studies of curricula, teacher newspapers and teacher interviews are given. Finally, the results are discussed in the light of global pressures of neoliberal policy and ideology.

**Theoretical overview**

The question of human freedom and autonomy has fascinated philosophers since ancient Greece. Plato described freedom as self-government and control of one’s desires by saying that people who succumb to their desires become slaves to them and are no longer free. He emphasized the dichotomy of freedom and responsibility which comes close to the notion of positive freedom by some modern philosophers (Hansen, 2010, p. 8). The distinction between positive and negative notion of liberty goes back to Kant (Carter, 2012) and was defended in detail by Isaiah Berlin in the 1950s and 1960s (1969). While positive liberty refers to the capacity of an individual to take control of one’s life and realize one’s fundamental goals, negative liberty indicates absence from constraints and control by others (Carter, 2012). Another difference is the attribution of negative liberty to individuals and positive liberty to collectivities of humans which makes the notion of autonomy closer to the positive liberty. However, both
are necessary in understanding autonomy which is why this paper concentrates on analyzing both autonomy and control.

Autonomy can additionally be viewed from the psychological and sociological point of view. In following, I will present four theories that led to the creation of two theoretical models for the empirical research. Psychological research has long been divided between those who do not believe in the existence of the free will of humans such as behaviorists (Skinner, 1971) and those who consider it illusory (Wegner, 2002), burdensome (Schwartz, 2000) or bound by culture and gender (Iyengar & DeVoe, 2003; Jordan, 1991). The self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2006) views autonomy as a key in understanding the quality of behavioral regulation. Within self-determination theory (SDT) autonomy is understood as self-governance or rule by the self that is accomplished with self-determined acts. The opposite of autonomy is heteronomy which refers to regulations from outside of the phenomenal self by forces experienced as alien or pressuring which can point to inner impulses or demands or external contingencies such as reward or punishment. Unlike other psychological theories on autonomy, the self-determination theory acknowledges, while referring to Pfander (1967), that self-determined acts must not be solely based on inner urges. Withal, they can follow external suggestions, on the condition that they are fully endorsed by the self.

In case of curriculum enactment, autonomy becomes a matter of degree to which teachers endorse the curriculum instructions. Regarding the self-determination of human acts the SDT distinguishes between five degrees of motivation between autonomy and heteronomy: external, introjected, identified, integrated or intrinsic motivation. While the first refers to total lack of autonomy and the last to absolute autonomy the rest express different degrees of endorsement of externally suggested ideas (Ryan & Deci, 2006, p. 1563).

The sociological view of autonomy regards autonomy as a too individualistic concept and prefers using the term “agency” which takes into account the social constraints to autonomy (Archer, 2000; Priestly, Edwards & Priestly, 2012). In simple terms, agency can be understood as “capacity for autonomous social action... to operate independently of the determining constraints of social structure” (Calhoun, 2002, p. 7) or as “ability to exert control over and give direction to one’s life” (Biesta & Tedder, 2007). The ecological agency theory of Biesta and Tedder emphasizes agency as achievement, not “power” while concentrating on the preconditions under which agency can be realized. Achieving agency involves interaction between “individual efforts, available resources and the contextual and structural “factors” which are bound to a certain time and location during a person’s life-course and related to his/her previous experiences and future aspiration. The good news is that limitations to agency can be overcome, to a certain point, by learning (Biesta & Tedder, 2007). Another sociological approach, neoinstitutionalism, refers to the social structure defining or constraining the autonomy of teachers by organizational practices and structures which are deeply embedded in social and political environments. These reflect the rules, beliefs and conventions of a wider environment (Scott, 2001). New institutionalists do not see individuals as autonomous authors of their preferences; they believe preference formation takes place within the constraints imposed by institutional settings (Weber, 1947; Immergut, 1998), history, tradition, and culture (Meyer & Benavot, 2013, p. 14).

The philosophical, psychological and sociological aspects of teacher autonomy are combined in the model of Smith and Erdoğan (2008, p. 84) who emphasize three components of autonomy: 1) self-directedness 2) capacity 3) freedom from control. These aspects refer both to teachers’ professional action and development while
distinguishing between capacity or willingness to self-direct one’s teaching and learning, and actual self-directed teaching or learning behavior. According to this model the term teacher autonomy refers mainly to the capacity.

These four theories were the basis for creating two theoretical models as a theoretical framework of the study of teacher autonomy. The first model (see Figure 1) is inspired by neoinstitutionalism depicting the institutional governance of teacher autonomy with the main emphasis on discourse since institutional order manifests itself through discourse and documents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutional levels/Forms of control</th>
<th>Regulative</th>
<th>Normative</th>
<th>Cultural/cognitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I Global/European</td>
<td>Recommendations of OECD, World Bank, UNESCO, regulation through international comparative testing (PISA, TIMSS)</td>
<td>e.g. Lisbon treaty: life-long learning strategy for EU</td>
<td>Curriculum/Didaktik theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II National</td>
<td>Education laws</td>
<td>National or state curriculum</td>
<td>Curriculum, ideologies, beliefs and traditions, public discourse in media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III School/Classroom</td>
<td>School regulations, e.g. code of conduct</td>
<td>School curriculum</td>
<td>Organizational culture, habitus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV Teacher</td>
<td>Teacher-made rules about assessment, discipline etc.</td>
<td>Individual teaching plan</td>
<td>Teachers’ beliefs, perceptions, experiences</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Institutional order of educational governance

The model depicts the position of teacher within the framework of institutional, national and supranational education policy who is influenced by regulative and normative documents which define his/her duties and rights. By this model teachers are a product of the socialization in particular national, cultural and social settings reflecting ideologies, beliefs and traditions while being impacted by public opinion and discourse in media. In order to create a multilayered picture of teacher autonomy two sources of data were used: curricula for upper secondary schools in Estonia, Bavaria, and Finland since 1990, and teacher newspapers from 1991-2010. Since German education system is decentralized between 16 Länder where each Land makes their own education policy and curricula, only one could be selected for this study: based on personal access to the sources, Bavaria is in the focus of this study among the German provinces.
Following this model the first research question with its sub-questions is:

1) How does the education policy shape teacher autonomy and control?

As the aforementioned theories demonstrated, teacher autonomy is a complex phenomenon that involves the social structure and contingencies on institutional and macro-political level as well as personal factors of motivation, capacity and willingness for autonomous action. Consequently, the second theoretical model concerns the personal factors of teacher autonomy as reflected in the following model:

![Teacher autonomy in environmental context](image)

While synthesizing the self-determination theory of Deci and Ryan (2006), the ecological agency theory of Biesta and Tedder (2007) and the teacher autonomy model of Smith and Erdoğan (2008), this model explains teacher autonomy by three factors in the teachers’ organizational, personal and public context: degree of freedom from control, capacity and degree of self-directedness. Whereas freedom from control is defined by the influence of public sphere (education policy, public opinion) and organizational dynamic (school policy and relations), capacity is illustrated by internal factors such as capacity for autonomous pedagogy and the external factors such as resources. Likewise, teachers’ actions regarding the content of teaching (curriculum) and students reflect a higher or lower degree of self-directedness.

Following this model, the second research question is:
2) How do teachers perceive their professional autonomy and control over themselves?

As method of data collection for the second question, interviews with teachers were selected with the purpose of getting insights into teachers’ attitudes, experiences and beliefs regarding teacher autonomy and control.

Methodology

The three data sets and the methods used for data analysis are illustrated by the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data sources from:</th>
<th>Estonia</th>
<th>Germany</th>
<th>Finland</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Study III: Qualitative content analysis of teacher interviews</td>
<td>1) 10 upper secondary school teachers from Estonia</td>
<td>2) 13 gymnasium teachers from Germany (9 were currently teaching in Estonia)</td>
<td>3) 10 upper secondary school teachers from Finland</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Data

Only upper secondary curricula (with the exception of German gymnasium which covers the grades 5-12) were selected for analysis since the differences of the education systems on lower levels make the comparison more difficult. Furthermore, the existence of a standardized graduation or matriculation exam in all three education systems presumes a particular pressure on upper secondary school teachers. I was interested in how these exams would affect teacher autonomy. The time period of curriculum analysis and media discourse of teacher newspapers was synchronized in order to compare reactions to the curricula in the newspapers and the reception of education policy.

The method of critical discourse analysis (CDA) seemed appropriate since the study of teacher autonomy in curricula and teacher newspapers was carried out using the social constructionist paradigm which considers language as the most essential system through which humans construct reality (Burr, 1995, p. 5; Gergen, 1999, pp. 6-12). CDA is considered a helpful tool in examining the underlying ideas, assumptions, conceptualizations and ideologies in texts and discourses, shedding light on the overt and covert agendas of educational policy manifested
in normative political documents such as curricula, and public discourse in media. CDA is an interdisciplinary field connecting critical linguistics and social sciences. It conceptualizes languages (discourse) as a form of social practice or behavior while making people aware of the mutual influences of language and social structure (Titscher et al., 2000, p. 147). Following the discourse-historical approach of Reisigl and Wodak (2009, p. 93) the analytical steps are operationalized as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operational question</th>
<th>Discursive strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. How are persons, objects, phenomena/events, processes and actions named and referred to linguistically?</td>
<td>Nomination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What characteristics, qualities and features are attributed to social actors, objects, phenomena/events and processes?</td>
<td>Predication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. What arguments are employed in the discourse in question?</td>
<td>Argumentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. From what perspective are these nominations, attributions and arguments expressed?</td>
<td>Perspectivization/framing or discourse representation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Are the respective utterances articulated overtly; are they intensified or mitigated?</td>
<td>Intensification/mitigation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Discursive strategies

For the purpose of triangulation another method was selected for the analysis of semi-structured teacher interviews: qualitative content analysis. My preferred approach to qualitative content analysis is that of Mayring (2000) which unites the strengths of quantitative content analysis with the qualitative procedure. Focusing on a step-by-step description of inductive and deductive category development, the categories are rigorously defined including text examples. To ensure reliability, I have used theoretically founded, deductive categories that enable a comparison with other studies.

Results of the critical discourse analysis of curricula

The following table summarizes the main findings of the comparative analysis of curricula:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher autonomy</td>
<td>Changing role of teachers from curriculum implementers to curriculum</td>
<td>The 1990 curriculum is very prescriptive, only allowing space for</td>
<td>Changing role of teachers from curriculum implementers to</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Policies

Curricular decision making involves decisions about methods, materials and assessment. The freedoms regarding assessment and new course design increase since 2011. The 2008 curriculum adds two career-related seminars for teachers to design.

The freedoms regarding assessment and new course design increase since 2011. Curricular decision making involves decisions about methods, materials and assessment. The 2008 curriculum adds two career-related seminars for teachers to design.

Social constructivist learning paradigm

Strongly represented since 1996 by describing teachers as “guides”, “designers” or “creators of learning situations.” Since 2011 intensification of the discourse of “learning environment” which starts to replace teachers and mitigate their agency.

The 1990 curriculum is traditionally teacher centered while the 2008 curriculum introduces social constructivist keywords but they are used simultaneously with the paradigm of “knowledge transmission”.

Strongly represented since 1994 by describing teachers as “guides”, “designers” or “creators of learning situations”. In 2003 curriculum teachers are less frequently mentioned than in 1994 resulting in mitigation of teachers’ agency.

Change of rhetoric in the 2000s

The 2002 curriculum uses more normative rhetoric. All choices refer to collective decision-making of teachers, not individual decisions, especially in the 2011 curriculum where “school” is replacing teachers as the decision-making body.

Increase of school autonomy rhetoric but at the same time tighter standardization and decrease of choices for students in the 2008 curriculum as well as less time for covering all the topics than before the G 8 reform.

The 2003 curriculum is more normative and somewhat reduces teacher autonomy: when the 1994 curriculum was more or less a suggestion then the 2003 curriculum makes its compulsory character very clear.

Forms of control/standardization

Stress on self-assessment of schools, although external evaluation of schools also exists.

Comparative centralized tests and interregional tests are emphasized in the 2008 curriculum. Symbolic control of civil servants through oath-taking. Standardization of education is the strongest in Bavaria.

Stress on self-assessment of schools.

Table 3: Comparative results of the curriculum analysis

The most significant differences between the autonomy expressed in upper secondary school curricula of Estonia, Finland and Germany lie in school autonomy although this does not automatically translate into teacher autonomy. Whereas Finnish and Estonian curricula authorize since 1994 and 1996, respectively, the development of school curricula based on the national curriculum, the Bavarian curriculum for gymnasia was still centrally prescribed in 2008. Although some concessions were made for independent design of career-related seminars in grades 11 and 12, no school-based curriculum development on a comparable scale was authorized, yet promises were made in the 2008 Bavarian curriculum to increase school autonomy in the future.

Teachers’ roles are described in the 1994 Finnish curriculum and 1996 Estonian curriculum as changing from “curriculum implementers” to “curriculum developers”, and in the Estonian case, very optimistically even to “makers
of education policy”. The Estonian and Finnish curricula of the 1990s mention as autonomy of teachers specifically decisions regarding methods, materials and assessment, and the Finnish curriculum additionally refers to content. Simultaneously, the Bavarian curriculum of 1990 is very prescriptive, even extracurricular activities are cautioned to be selected as “not to contradict the purpose of education”.

Another difference in the curricula is the dominant teaching paradigm which is in the Estonian and Finnish curriculum since 1996 and 1994 strongly social-constructivist, referring to teachers as “guides”, “designers” or “creators of learning situations”, while Bavarian curriculum is more teacher centered, representing the paradigm of “knowledge transmission”.

A change in rhetoric of the Estonian and Finnish curricula is noticeable in the 2000s when the curriculum text becomes more normative, emphasizing more the duties than freedoms of teachers and tending to avoid the word “teacher” by replacing it by “school”. The responsibility of individual teachers is clouded as most decisions are made collectively and also autonomy becomes a collective concept. The Bavarian curriculum of 2008, on the other hand, increases the autonomy rhetoric while concurrently referring to increased standardization and control by comparative testing. Control discourse altogether is in Estonian and Finnish curriculum disguised as self-control and self-assessment making it rather latent. In comparison, the standardization discourse is the strongest in Bavarian curriculum.

Results of the critical discourse analysis of teacher newspapers

The results of the comparative analysis of teacher newspapers such as Estonian “Õpetajate leht” (1996-2010), Finnish “Opettaja” (1994-2010) and Bavarian “Das Gymnasium in Bayern” (1991-2010) are summarized in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discourses</th>
<th>Estonian context</th>
<th>German context</th>
<th>Finnish context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II. The influence of PISA tests on educational discourse</td>
<td>Strong: a pleasant surprise: “Teachers deserve more respect” discourse; increased output standardization</td>
<td>Very strong: PISA shock: “bad schools and bad results” discourse, rapid reforms: more control and standardization.</td>
<td>Strong: return of the equality discourse and intensified evaluation discourse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Neoliberal discourse: 1) competition between schools 2) “parentocracy” 3) “teachers as service providers”</td>
<td>Very strongly represented, resisted by scholars and somewhat by teachers. 1) Very strong, teachers fear losing their job due to school closures. 2) Strong, teachers feel powerless and not supported by their principals.</td>
<td>Very strongly represented as well as very strongly resisted by teachers. 1) Low, as schools have more standardized curricula and teachers as civil servants are centrally paid. 2) Increasing, teachers fear loss of autonomy and</td>
<td>Very strongly represented as well as very strongly resisted by teachers and scholars. 1) Strong on upper secondary school level, felt particularly in bigger cities and south of Finland. 2) Strong, teachers feel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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### IV. Discourse of autonomy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3) Characterizes the attitudes of politicians, students and parents.</th>
<th>3) Characterizes the attitudes of politicians, students and parents.</th>
<th>bullied and threatened by parents.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly discussed but diverse concepts. “Teacher as an artist” metaphor = interpreter of the curriculum. School curriculum development as imposed autonomy. Fear of responsibility and additional workload.</td>
<td>Strongly discussed in the context of “school autonomy” which has a negative connotation, instead “pedagogical freedom”. Teachers prefer a centrally determined curriculum.</td>
<td>Not very prevalent but increasing since OECDs remark: “The system of trust”. “Teacher as an artist metaphor”, teachers generally favorable towards school curriculum development and autonomy but critical of growing workload.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### V. Discourse of democracy

| Teachers criticize strongly the “authoritarian” and “undemocratic” educational governance. Strong confrontational attitude between teachers and other stakeholders. | Generally missing, except for the “G-8-reform” which was decided “behind closed doors”. | Missing. Generally friendly relationship between teachers and the authorities. |

### VI. Discourse of evaluation and control

| Strong but contradictory: school inspectors want more power to sanction schools, punitive discourse; scholars want to “liberate” teachers from bureaucratic control. | Very strong since 2002, the PISA shock: “More testing = more quality” to which teachers respond: “we want less control and more freedom and time” | Strong with emphasis on self-evaluation and school development but with national criteria. |

### VII. Discourse of equality

| Moderately present in the context of comprehensive school discourse as opposed to democratic and diversified school. | Strong: basic counterargument against school autonomy. | Traditionally very strong, intensified by PISA test findings. |

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Table 4: The comparative discourse analysis of teacher's newspapers

The discourse analysis of teacher newspapers regarding teacher autonomy and control is summarized by seven dominant discourses which play a more or less significant role in different national contexts. For example, the democracy discourse is only prevalent in Estonian context and missing almost completely in German and Finnish context. This can be explained by the historical events and the status of Estonia as a country in transition from Soviet totalitarianism to democracy in the 1990s. Estonian teachers perceived the education policy-making as an authoritarian top-down activity where teachers were not sufficiently involved nor their comments taken seriously. Related to democracy discourse, the teacher autonomy discourse was very strongly represented in Estonian teachers’ newspaper but rather modestly covered in Finnish teachers’ union paper. It seems that in Finland teacher autonomy was taken for granted while Estonian teachers had to fight for it. In Bavaria, the discourse of school autonomy took a surprising turn where it was associated with negative things such as an irresponsibly unfunded increase of work load and independent management of reduced resources. As such, school autonomy was completely resented by Bavarian gymnasium teachers who preferred a continuing central guidance of the curriculum and centrally provided funds so that teachers could be autonomous in their classroom.
The penetration of neoliberal vocabulary into education with education as a market place where schools are in competition with each other for students as “clients” and where parents gradually gain more influence was very strong in all three countries, although the reactions of teachers varied. While Estonian teachers regarded the neoliberal discourse neutrally, Finnish and German teachers actively opposed it. The results of the PISA tests became a catalyst for increased evaluation and control discourse affecting Germany the most due to its disappointing results which were published in 2002. Increased standardization similarly followed in Estonia and Finland where results were good. In fact, internal school evaluation discourse in connection with school quality discourse became one of the dominant topics in the Finnish teachers’ newspaper in the 2000s. On the positive side, the PISA results, which exceeded expectations in Estonia, started a discourse for improving teachers’ low status and giving them more credence.

**Results of teacher interviews**

The sample of teachers who participated in teacher interviews is characterized by the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of interviewees</th>
<th>Estonian teachers</th>
<th>German teachers</th>
<th>Finnish teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geographical location</th>
<th>Tallinn 8, Paide 1, Viimsi 1</th>
<th>Teachers with experience working in Estonia and Germany: 9</th>
<th>Teachers currently teaching in Bavaria: 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(S) Saxonia: 2, (BW) Baden-Wuerttemberg: 1, (RP) Rhineland-Palatinate 1, (NRW) North Rhine-Westphalia: 2, (Br) Bremen: 1, (B) Bavaria: 2</td>
<td></td>
<td>Helsinki 5, Tampere 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>2 men, 8 women</th>
<th>5 men, 8 women</th>
<th>3 men, 7 women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work experience</th>
<th>5-40 years</th>
<th>1-34 years</th>
<th>5-31 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table 5: Sample

It is a purposeful sample, intended to include as many different subject teachers as possible. Teachers were contacted via existing contacts or by e-mail provided on schools’ homepages. All interviews were conducted
personally and lasted 1.5-3 hours. All teachers taught various subjects on upper secondary school level, additionally, the Estonian and German teachers had classes on lower secondary level. The interviews took place from 2012-2013. The content of the interviews was categorized by the theoretical model (see Figure 2) in three categories: self-directedness, capacity, freedom from control. Additionally, one inductively derived category was added: teachers’ responsibility and accountability for student achievement.

The study revealed German teachers perceive to be externally directed regarding the educational goals while there were none among Finnish teachers who admitted it. Some Estonian teachers perceived the national curriculum development as externally directed despite the ostensibly democratic involvement of teachers which unfortunately did not yield in any of their suggestions being accepted. The difference in endorsement of the curriculum is striking: Estonian teachers are most critical regarding the curriculum while curriculum usually "makes sense" to German and Finnish teachers who are more loyal to it. Estonian teachers often felt that the lack of resources and study aids does not allow them to fully implement the curriculum. The most valuable resource that is in short supply everywhere is time. Teachers in all three countries voiced concern about not having enough time for all topics prescribed in the national curriculum.

In terms of freedom from control all teachers perceived to have pedagogical autonomy. However, many Finnish teachers prefer greater autonomy, teaching without textbooks while using their own choice of materials. Furthermore, they take autonomy for granted: “I don’t think there is so much control and that we thrive because of this pedagogical freedom that we have guaranteed in the law in Finland and being so trusted as a professional group.” (EnSF25)

Estonian teachers did not perceive teaching without textbooks as true freedom, rather as imposed since textbooks in several subjects were totally outdated. In addition, Estonian teachers demonstrated less frequently their own pedagogical agenda than German or Finnish teachers which is an indicator of capacity to enact autonomy.

The most compelling differences in teacher autonomy concern teacher accountability for students’ test results. In Estonia, school administrators, students and parents frequently put an equal sign between student achievement and the quality of teachers’ work. Estonian teachers feel pressure to be accountable for the results of graduation exams and ranking lists of schools while German and Finnish teachers emphasize more the responsibility of students and see their own role in student achievement merely as facilitators of learning.

Conclusion

The analysis of the curricula, teachers’ newspapers and teacher interviews clearly shows that curriculum discourse can be misleading as the promised autonomy often will not be realized due to social, organizational or personal constraints. In Estonia, teachers never became “makers of education policy” as suggested by the national curriculum of 1996. The Bavarian teachers saw a contradiction between the increasing rhetoric of autonomy in the 2008 curriculum and the reform in 2004 which compressed the gymnasium time and content designed for 13 years.

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1 The code combination refers to the taught subjects, gender and work experience of the interviewee in years (EN – English, S – Swedish, F – Female)
into 12 years. Finnish teachers concurrently experienced difficulties in realizing independently designed school curricula during the economic downturn of the 1990s.

Evidently, the discourse of neoliberalism was very strongly represented in the teachers’ newspaper discourse and somewhat in the curricula in all three countries but due to the strong resistance of teachers in Germany and Finland it never came to dominate their education policy as it did in Estonia where teachers do not seem to have a firm opinion about these practices. This can most likely be explained by their national trajectories and path-dependencies. Traditionally, Finland has laid a heavy emphasis on social-democratic values while Germany claims to be a “social capitalist state”. Estonian development has been, since the collapse of the Soviet Union, characterized by total resentment of anything resembling the socialist governance, thus free reign has been given to “parentocracy” and competition between schools (read “school choice”).

Acknowledgement

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References


Regionalization of an Educational System and the Curriculum issue - The case of Madeira (Portugal)

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The implementation of politically autonomous regimes on the Portuguese insular regions of the Açores and Madeira, within the broader scope of the political and constitutional process of the country's democratization after April 74, has not been a linear, clear and easy one, particularly within the Educational system, and more specifically in Curriculum terms.

In fact the multiple, diverse and contradictory interpretations on the subject over the last 40 years, between the authorities of the Republic and those of both autonomous Regions, has induced the need for a systematic approach and analysis of the matter, from a wider perspective, either institutional, particularly on European terms, as well as cultural and economically-wise, but also from a curriculum and learning process point of view.

Thus, our aim was to perceive and study the PRESSUPOSITIONS and the PRINCIPLES of the whole process along with the CONSTRAINTS been put to it in Madeira's particular case (and more specially from 1992 to 2000), and accordingly try to infer / deduce on the eventual LIMITS (if any) to the implementation of a real and effective regionalization of the Educational system, particularly of the Curriculum.

Keywords: Politics and Policies; Processes of Autonomy and Decentralization; Subsidiarity; Regional Development; Culture and Curriculum; Learning, Space, Time and Context.

"If "development" is for the people (...),
and for the people where they are,
there is no development other than the regional one"

Simões Lopes
Introduction and general framework

The formal process of autonomy of the Portuguese insular regions emerged in 1976, following the implementation of democracy in Portugal two years earlier. Enshrined in the Constitution as subsequently in the Political and Administrative Statutes of the Azores and Madeira it assured the right of these now Autonomous Regions to take full responsibility for the development of their archipelagos and populations.

Accordingly, and as it should be, Education as a key tool to cultural, civic and economical development, to both Citizens individually or the aforementioned Regions and its institutions, public or private, was perceived as having to be adjusted to the real needs and prospects of the Azorean and the Madeira peoples.

It is with this background and based in the Constitution and in the Provisional Statute of the Autonomous Region of Madeira published in 1976 (via Decree Law 318-D/76 of April 30 and 427-F/76 of 1 June) that, in 1979, on September 4th, a first Decree Law (No. 364/79) is published focusing only on Educational, Sports and Youth Activities issues.

With its writing and in addition to the already established by the Constitution and the Provisional Statute, one might call the moment the level one (or 1st phase) of the decentralization/regionalization process of the Portuguese Education system, for it sets powers of the then Ministry of Education and Scientific Research (MEIC) and the Government of the Region.

However, in matters concerning the curriculum, it is clear in its Article 2, § 2, item a), that the competences are integrally of the national Ministry, giving up, so just, the Region the right to be heard and the regional government, according to Article 6, § 1, item g) of the said Decree Law, the possibility of "stimulating pedagogical experiences, in accordance with the characteristics of the region, listening for such a purpose, the Studies and Planning Department of the MEIC ".

Ten years later, in 1986, a Basic National Act on Education (Law 46/86), was adopted by the Parliament of the Republic, setting, in its Article 3, the Organizational Principles of the system, which states that it must

"Decentralize, de-concentrate and diversify educational structures and actions in order to provide a proper adaptation to the realities, a high sense of participation by the population, a proper integration in the community and efficient decisions,"

understanding that somehow induces, when establishing in the same decree the General Principles of the system administration, the existence of "administrative structures nationwide, regional autonomous, regional and local" (Art 43, § 2).

It adds even at § 3 of the same article, that "For the purposes of the preceding paragraph organic forms of decentralization and de-concentration of services shall be adopted", which, it is clear on Article 44, shall be determined by "special laws (which) regulate the definition and articulation of competences between the different levels of administration."

Yet in this context and assuming the same decentralizing logic in Curriculum terms (Chapter VII - Article 47), it is stated that "The curricula of compulsory education must be established at national level, regardless the existence of flexible contents integrating regional components" (§ 4), while, at the secondary level, references are made to the possibility of "integrating in its components regional and local issues " (§ 5).
Being the juridical edifice an integrated construction, it is still important to note that, at least at the "compulsory education institute level", the same Act establishes (Article 8, § 3), as a matrix, the specific objectives for its three cycles, addressing in a broad scope what to be learned in each of them, while respecting the fundamental principles, namely that "the educational system has to promote learning that is relevant to society and Individuals (...) and, at the same time, enable and protect the expression of diversity" (Tedesco et al: 2013:7).

The truth, however, is that complementary and somehow in contradiction with the very general spirit of the laws, through documents such as i) "Curricular Organization and Programs" and ii) "National Curriculum of Basic Education - Essential Competences" the Ministry of Education of Portugal, in a normative and prescriptive way, centralizes in itself "and in a small group of individuals (...) all the power of decision and curriculum initiative" (Fino:1996:3), namely by detailing what it wants, for each area, for each subject ... and even what it expects from "the actions of each teacher" (ME - DEB, 2001: pp. 17/26), which of course turns out to be counterproductive to the whole process of autonomy and empowerment that was envisaged not only institutionally … but up to the level of each teacher on its classroom enabling her/him to "translate into practice the Intended objectives, prioritize learning and content areas, and adopt teaching strategies and evaluation criteria that respond to each student's uniqueness" (Tedesco et al.: ibid.: 8).

In another context and beyond the Basic National Act on Education, 1986 has also introduced some other more radical changes in the country's prospects and practices due to the integration of Portugal in the European Economic Communities, and most particularly in Educational terms after the approval of the Treaty of the European Union (also known as the Maastricht one which entered into force on January, 1st, 1993), considered the so called primacy principle of the European legislation vis-à-vis the one of the Member States.

The cited treaty after referring, in Article B of the Common Provisions, that "The objectives of the Union shall be achieved (...) while respecting the principle of subsidiarity" (EU:1992:8) also sets on its Article 126, that "The Community shall contribute to the development of quality education by encouraging cooperation between Member States and, if necessary, by supporting and supplementing their action" (ibid.: 47).

Two years after the implementation of the previously mentioned Treaty, in 1995, the relevance of the issue reached a new dimension with the publication by the Commission of a White Paper on Education and Training, entitled Teaching and Learning: Towards the Learning society, in which it is established that 1996 will be the European Year of Lifelong Learning (EC:1995:52).

Truly relevant in this document for our exercise is that the EU somehow establishes, with what it calls "major lines of evolution" (ibid.:48) and "plans of competencies" (ibid.:52), the autonomy of the agents of education and training and the respect for the principle of subsidiarity as crucial and determinant instruments, both, to the development of education and training.

With regards to autonomy as a major line of evolution, the assumed thesis is that

i. "It is by giving greater autonomy (...) that education and training systems can adapt better to meet modern needs" (ibid.:48), as

ii. "the most decentralised systems are also the most flexible, the quickest to adapt and hence have the greatest propensity to develop new forms of social partnership" (ibid.).
Concerning the "plans of competences", the understanding is that respect for "the principle of subsidiarity is an essential part (...) for the following reasons" (ibid.:51):

a) because it is already enshrined in the Treaty;

b) for the more general fact of being a "common sense principle (sic) as the highest political level, thus the furthest away from the area of application, should only act when individuals, families, and political authorities at all other levels cannot "(ibid.:53) a position which is paradigmatically clarified for the Community itself, when it states that" (his) action is (only) intended, in education and training, as a complement and to support national actions "(ibid.:52)

c) while the Commission, simultaneously and in order to ensure consistency to the process, also underlines that it is "fully aware that in several Member States responsibility for action lies with the regional or other decentralised authorities" (ibid.:53) therefore emphasizing, "the move to the learning society must be centred on the individual" (ibid.).

On the matter of subsidiarity and also important to emphasize is Lisbon's Law Faculty professor Blanco de Morais’ perspective on the issue, for and according to that former juridical consultant of a Portuguese Prime Minister,

"If in juridical terms the principle was born federally, its incidence as an additional criterion for the allocation of confluent powers between the State-Person and various types of decentralized territorial entities (...) has expanded to other forms of state, in particular to those with a unitary structure "(1998:783).

This view is further reinforced by the same author, in relation to Portugal, when pages ahead (ibid.;790), he points out that "with the (Constitution’s) 1997 revision, doubts were dissipated while subsidiarity gained the status of constitutional guiding principle of the organization and of the inner functioning of the Portuguese Republic as a unitary state."

Continuing his reasoning, though at the level of the powers and competences under the Basic Law of the Land Use Policy and Planning, this Constitutional and Administrative Law professor, also stresses that "it matters little, in the abstract, that the principle of subsidiarity is hosted by the Basic Law, as a rule of superior value (...) of the Constitution (...) imposes it as a parameter in the exercise of concurrent powers between the state and local authorities "(ibid.;810) which, mutatis mutandis, applies to the Autonomous Regions and the Basic National Act on Education and others.

Apart from these perspectives on conceptual and organizational issues, and in particular on the "divided" responsibilities within the educational system, among Europe, the Member States and their Regions (as well as with local authorities, Schools and Families) we also have to adduce the "equation", and returning to the autonomic subject and its process post-1976, two other diplomas, the now called Definitive Statutes of the Azores and Madeira, each categorized as Structuring Acts of the regime, or even, according to Mota Amaral (2007), as para-Constitutional Laws, that is to say of superior hierarchical value than any other Basic Acts.

It should be highlighted that still according to this ex-President of the Portuguese Republican Parliament the Statutes in question "express, in a way, a contract between the Republic and each of the Autonomous Regions,
signed by their respective governing bodies democratically legitimized and only by converging will both parties can change them "(ibid.).

This specific reference to the two Definitive Statutes is still crucial and a central part to a better overall understanding of the issue, since it stems from the existing law that the autonomic frameworks of the two Regions should not necessarily be equal, moreover appropriate to the views, expectations and wishes of the people of each of the archipelagos, expressed through their elected deputies to their respective Legislative Assemblies, meaning there is no "closed, one and indivisible" autonomous model applicable to both Regions, either the possibility of each to opt for the solution it may consider more appropriate to its specific context.

Interesting and rather explicit in this regard is the position that "The state is politically unitary, but it is considered constitutionally limited by the insular autonomies (...) and by the principles of subsidiarity and democratic administrative decentralization" (Sousa, NJVAS:2013: 1).

On what concerns to the regionalization of education in Madeira, the outlook and the general framework of the issue is established on the already mentioned Definitive version of the 1999 Statute (Law 130/99 of 21 August), at Article 40, item o), where it is set that "Preschool Education; Primary Education, Secondary, Higher and Special Education" are "matters of specific interest" of the Region.

In addition and revealing the widespread political impact in the Member States of the EU Treaty of 1992 and the 1995 White Paper on Education and Training, the cited 1999 version of the Madeira Statute also enshrines, in a specific article (Nº 11) at its Chapter I - Fundamental Principles – meaning applicable to all levels of the relationship between the Republic and the Region, the precept of subsidiarity, namely while stating that:

"In the relationship between State bodies and self-government bodies of the Region the principle of subsidiarity shall be applied, according to which, and outside the scope of the State's exclusive competence, public intervention is done preferably by the Board level that is closer and most able to intervene, unless the specific objectives of the action concerned can not be sufficiently achieved but by the top management level".

Politically and symbolically not negligible, or even to be categorized as very relevant to the matter under discussion, was the fact that this political and administrative Definitive Statute of the Autonomous Region of Madeira has been adopted unanimously and by acclamation, by all political parties from the extreme right to the extreme left, both at the Regional Parliament and at the Assembly of the Republic, which is worth saying that the country as a whole, validated through its legitimate representatives, with the inherent consequences, the spirit and the letter of such Statute, which, as stated again by Mota Amaral (ibid.), "No one can therefore ignore that it corresponds to the will of the most representative body of the Portuguese people".

Worth to say is that in the two decades period between the publication of the 1979 Decree Law, which first addressed the issue of regionalization of competences in the sector, and the time of publication of Law 130/99, it seems that a substantial change, in legal terms (and eventually in the so-called mental schemes) in force in the Republic and in the Region, have occurred on the issue.

That said, it is known that reality in politics has 3 levels. A first, discursive, which embodies a philosophical and ideological dimension and a vision. A second, juridical and political, which transforms and embodies, in legal terms
and at various levels, those ideas and perspectives on diplomas and policies. And finally, a third, operational (which occurs in several planes), embodying (partially or completely) the published declared intentions.

While the transformation in discursive and juridical terms seems to be real in this 20-year interval (safeguarded the exceptions of the Constitutional Court and the Ministry of Education in several – prominent -- circumstances) the truth is that at the level of the application of the law the praxis demonstrates the opposite, vis-à-vis the issue of regionalization of Education and Curriculum, being paradigmatic and to be underlined the fact that if the Region would ever do anything like, its student’s mobility within the country would be denied, as it has already, by the way, been done to a few teachers of special education when trying to apply for a job in the mainland of the country, not to mention trying to bring to court a secretary of state of the region for assuming a certain policy shouldn’t be implemented in a certain way.

Still to deem very interesting on this specific item is the fact that this discussion which disrespects the Region's ability to decide on matters of Curriculum, is not applied by the Portuguese Republic "toward" other geographies and spaces that hold those same (or even less) competences, namely within some of the CPLP (Community of the Portuguese Speaking Countries) and regions of other EU Member States, as well as to the countries where the Portuguese Diaspora has expanded.

In fact, in one case or another, especially at the Compulsory Education and Secondary Education levels, any student coming from those countries educational systems – over which Portugal exercises no power at all -- has direct access to the same level and grade, safeguarded still the additional support to learning the Portuguese language, if they come from countries where this is not the official one… a possibility that has systematically been denied to the Region of Madeira and its students of those same levels, every time its Parliament and Government tried to implement it based on all the previously cited documents and practices.

In this general context, it is such a process, particularly its concerning presuppositions and principles, but also its constraints, that we want to analyse through the case of Madeira, and via it try to infer which are the limits, manifested and / or possibly hidden (Bernardi:1974), to the Regionalization of Education and in particular of the Curriculum.

Problem and research questions

Thus, the central issue of the research is to understand what / which (if any) are the limits to the decentralization/regionalization of the Educational system to the politically Autonomous Region of Madeira, and particularly those concerning the Curriculum.

From the mentioned problem derived the fundamental questions of research, which are, briefly, the following:

1. How do the general presuppositions and obligations resulting from our integration in transnational spaces, like the European Union and the CPLP as well as in more informal universes like the relationship with the countries of the Portuguese Diaspora, influence the determination of Educational policies ?

2. How does the political and administrative organization of the State perceives the organization of the Educational system in Portugal and its interaction with the politically autonomous regions of the Azores and Madeira ?

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3. Shouldn’t the historical process and the cultural reality of a People, as pillars of one’s Citizenship and Personal Development, be considered in the Educational policies of the Regions, in particular in Insular and Ultra Peripheral ones?

4. How does the construction of the Curriculum as a key component of Education policies must take into account the cultural, economic and social conditions of Citizens and Territories?

**Literature review**

Having established the problem and the questions referred above, it was necessary to define the core themes of the literature review, which were basically perceived in four plans:

i. Political Science;

ii. Development Theories and in particular Regional Development ones;

iii. Theory of Organizations and the Constraint analysis Methodology, and finally,

iv. Curriculum Theories.

Within the first, 3 levels were to be studied:

One, eminently historical, concerning the political and administrative organization of Portugal until the 25th of April 1974 and the struggle process for autonomy of the peoples of the Azores and Madeira till the “consecration” of the 1st and Provisional Political Statute of the Autonomous Region of Madeira in 1976.

A 2nd one, related to the effective establishment of political autonomy in the Portuguese constitutional framework and its evolution until the approval of the Definitive Political Statute of Madeira in 1999, and finally,

a third plane, induced by the formal integration of Portugal in transnational spaces and the inherent obligations, particularly with the European Union (in such a case specially due to the primacy principle of its legislation over the Member States but also for the assumption of the principle of subsidiarity as a determinant tool of political organization) and the CPLP (considered the established processes and types of mobility in the area of Education among its Members), as well as a more informal one with the countries of the Portuguese Diaspora.

Regarding the 2nd plan, the one concerning the Development theories, the aim was to identify, in its most various plans and with an anthropological and sociological perspective, which axes are to be considered decisive for the generally perceived development, as well as in a more focused approach in the Regional dimension of it, particularly regarding relocation issues; de concentration, decentralization and regionalization ones, and their correspondent processes and implications.

The analysis at the light of the Theory of Organizations (along with the Constraint Method of Goldratt) had an evolutionary logic crossed with specific the Portuguese history on the matter, starting in the 2nd wave period (Toffler:1984) up to the new technological realities of the 21st century, in order to better understand the consequences of each choice for institutions of all kinds, either economic, social, cultural or political.

Finally, with regard to the Curriculum theories, the fundamental idea was to perceive its vision and mission, along with their evolution, and the role that fits to “space and time variables” in its design, that is to say to the cultural,
Policies

Economical and social realities, sensu lato, particularly in geographically discontinued countries and their educational systems.

Methodology

Defined the problem, having been put the main issues and identified the core themes of the literature review, it is now time to refer to methodology.

Given the framework defined, it is essentially qualitative and of interpretative/comprehensive nature, in which the most important role was initially reserved to document analysis and, further, to semi-structured interviews to multiple stakeholders and decision-makers participating in the process, being the "triangulation" supported on these and their comparison. A word, at this particular point, to refer that several of those interviews are still to be made, meaning our work is not yet closed, although the already analysed undoubtedly points out a perspective.

In terms of document analysis, regarded as an understanding mechanism of the structure and essence of circumstances that allow the description of the "deep structure" of the phenomena (Sousa, JM:2011:63), particular focus was there to all types of legislation, whether European, National and Regional Autonomous, extended to the formal agreements with the CPLP and to the informal with the countries of the Diaspora, as well as to the political programs of the Governments of the Republic and Region and to the speeches of the national and regional politicians. Neither negligible was yet the understanding of the "how" of the operational processes led by both national and regional entities, as in "The approach of qualitative research (...) everything has the potential to constitute a clue that allows us to establish a more insightful understanding of our object of study" (Bogdan Bliken:1994:49).

As for the semi-structured interviews and because "We aim to reach, I assume, the human significance of the processes inherent to our institutions" (Stott:1973, quoted by Charles Horton Cooley in Bogdan Bliken:1994:33) they involve national and regional policy makers, either from the national and regional parliaments and governments, members of the representative parties, as well as with Mayors; Teachers' Union representatives and Parents and Students Associations as well as with primary and secondary School Directors.

Conclusion

Very briefly, for has referred some of the interviews are still to be done, the provisional conclusions lead us to a kind of an ambivalent political regime to which more important than the

a) Letter and spirit of the Laws (the European, the National, the Regional and/or the ones subscript on agreements and protocols with third countries, either Portuguese speaking ones or others) and their general presuppositions and principles, or

b) Corollaries of scientific, theoretical and methodological perspectives of such different theories like the Regional Development, Organizations and Curriculum ones, or
c) Results of the pedagogical praxis centred on one’s cultural background and one’s society historical process and reality, versus a prescriptive and ‘top-down’ one from a central and (understood as a) plenipotentiaiy state department,

what effectively matters and counts, though not being assumed neither said, is the perceived political sensation (and acting at different levels) that the capital of the country’s ruling (probably, some say, for its five hundred years of imperial and colonial past) has exclusive powers and competences in order to guarantee what is assumed, like in the past when the motto was “From Minho to East-Timor”, as the “unity” of the process of “production” of Portuguese citizens, even, let us reiterate, if such an attitude is counterproductive, anti-scientific and not even respecting the diverse levels of norms, rules and principles the country as a whole should be implementing, particularly, one should say, for the sake of all its Citizens, Regions and Institutions.

Thus the main observable constraint, following Goldbratt’s methodology (from the very front line of the process – the teacher in a classroom facing pupils – to the conceptualization and design of the Curriculum), and accordingly the limit to the regionalization of Education and particularly of the Curriculum, is an intangible and ideological one, the so called cultural and mental scheme which is still institutionally inculcated in the central governing bodies of the country and its representatives (from whatever political party), for it goes further, as we have observed through Blanco de Morais’ analysis on the Basic Law of the Land Use Policy and Planning, than the Education system, and crosses every department of the Portuguese political organization.

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Curriculum and didaktik in 21st century: Still divergent or converging?

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An intensive dialogue between US, German and other European scholars on the topic of didaktik and curriculum theory took place during 1990s. Here, I review this dialogue and extend it into current post-2000 conversations regarding didaktik and curriculum theory to examine how the two traditions are being affected by global trends in education. German didaktik theory is central to curriculum, teaching and learning in Continental Europe generally and German speaking world specifically, but is mostly unknown in the English speaking world (Hopmann, 2007; Westbury et al., 2000). Curriculum is used widely by many countries but I refer here only to curriculum traditions employed in the U.S. The objective of this work is to discern threads of development both within curriculum and didaktik orientations, and identify whether they are still holding to their traditional assumptions about education or they are converging towards one another. Another objective for this theoretical work is to revitalize the cross-national and cross-cultural educational dialogues and exchanges between didaktik and curriculum theorists and educational researchers. I utilize content analysis to examine publications that derived from previous curriculum-didaktik dialogue as well as recent education policy documents and education developments in U.S. and Germany, as the two core curriculum and didaktik countries respectively, to pursue the objectives of this paper. Then, I exemplify the initial state and the identified changes through two logical models, which compare and contrast didaktik and curriculum theory as two educational policy systems. Logic Models are tools primarily developed and used by program managers and evaluators to describe programs in terms of their assumptions, inputs, activities, outputs and outcomes (McLaughlin & Jordan, 1999). The results point to two key educational changes, which are elaborated on more in depth, including the introduction of common core educational standards, i.e. national educational standards in the U.S. and introduction of external assessments in Germany. While curriculum and didaktik still hold to their traditional conceptualizations of the field, I conclude that to some extent both traditions are moving towards one another as a result of global education trends such as international assessments and the coordination of teaching and learning around research-based learning trajectories and learning progressions, in math education and science education, respectively.

Keywords: curriculum, didaktik, logic models, educational policy, comparative education

Introduction

Intensification of global cross-national cooperation in almost any fields, including education, has been inviting for educational theorists and practitioners to look ‘over’ the borders of their nations for exchange and transfer of ideas for educational improvement. But for exchange and transfer to occur, some level of understanding is required to enable the flow of ideas in a two- or multi-way direction. In efforts to reach that level of understanding, European and US scholars initiated a more intensive dialogue to discuss and understand similarities and differences between German-based Didaktik and US-based curriculum theory traditions during the 1990s. The spark for that intensified dialogue, after some earlier exchanges between two traditions starting from 1960s, came from the interest of US educational scholars to better understand what was this concept called ‘Didaktik’? (Hopmann & Riquarts, 2000). Of course, the underlying objectives and intentions were much broader and the dialogue tried to address questions,
such as: How did the two traditions compare and contrast? Could, and to what extent, one tradition inform the other? Is there something that they can learn from one another? etc. We have summarized the findings of the dialogue during 1990s in Table 1.

So what is Didaktik theory? German Didaktik theory is central to curriculum, teaching and learning in Continental Europe generally and German speaking world specifically, but is mostly unknown in the English speaking world (Hopmann, 2007; Westbury et al., 2000). The German term Didaktik is well-established in post-1990s English literature, and to avoid the use of more negatively loaded concept of didactics as teacher centered and controlled instruction (Kansanen, 2002), we use the original spelling Didaktik throughout the article. In its original conceptualization, “Didaktik is about how teaching can instigate learning, but learning as a content-based student activity not as swallowing a sermon or a monologue or otherwise one-sided distribution of knowledge by a teacher” (Hopmann, 2007, p. 113). The interpretation of Didaktik across Europe led to a variety of modes but Hopmann points out they shared three common aspects, "(a) the concept of Bildung, (b) the embedded differential of matter and meaning, and (c) a concept of the necessary autonomy of teaching" to address “problems of order, sequence, and choice within their respective frames of reference” (Hopmann, 2007, p. 115). We will return to Bildung later, as another key concept within Didaktik theory.

Curriculum, on the other hand, is a widely used theory amongst many countries, primarily in the English-speaking world, but we focus here more on its North American and more specifically US tradition. While there are numerous definitions and constructs on curriculum, varying largely from one period of time to the other, what we refer to as curriculum here, is the prevailing curriculum model that has been in place in the U.S. since early 1900s, when the so-called social efficiency model of curriculum promoted by Franklin Bobbit and largely perpetuated by US industrial forces of the time, won the American education battle against humanistic-based models of curriculum, who were mainly led and supported by John Dewey (Kliebard, 2004). According to Kliebard (2004), ideas outside the realm of education, such as those of Frederick Taylor, an engineer from scientific management, that gave birth to social efficiency as a social ideal and educational doctrine, and ideas of Edward Thorndike from psychology, who introduced educational or “intelligence” measurement into American education, led to social efficiency curriculum models within the U.S. education. Such models have shaped US education curriculum and educational thinking and practice to the present days with continued heavy focus on externally-mandated accountability models. Social efficiency models suggested that students would learn in schools only what they needed to know in order to perform as an adult member of social order, that is, “To go beyond what someone had to know in order to perform that role successfully was simply wasteful” (Kliebard, 2004, p. 77). More recently the criticism against so-called ‘business-driven’ educational policies in the U.S. have mounted to such heights where it is argued that “the common school became first a factory, then a corporation, now a cram school, but always a business” (Pinar, 2012, p. 15). However, with advancement of the learning sciences in the last several decades, curriculum has seen a shift towards cognitive and constructive models of curriculum, but the driving assumptions about education have not been challenged.

 Debates between Didaktik and curriculum have already been extensive during 20th century. During 1960s, there was an export of curriculum ideas from the U.S. curriculum to Germany (Gundem & Hopmann, 1998), during 1990s, there was a dialogue for the benefit of better understanding between traditions (Westbury, Hopmann, & Riquarts, 2000), while more recently there is renewed interest in cross-cultural comparisons and scholarly exchanges between the US curriculum and German Didaktik, especially in relation to learning progressions and
teaching sequences research and to curriculum content issues (Duschl, Maeng & Sezen, 2011). This rekindled interest is an opportunity for both traditions to reflect upon their recent past and current developments and identify areas in which they could be strengthened if they are open to changes and willing to learn from one another.

In our analysis, we extend the prior work in the field in an innovative way by translating the outcomes of the Didaktik-curriculum dialogue into logic models. Logic Models are tools primarily developed and used by program managers and evaluators to describe programs in terms of their assumptions, inputs, activities, outputs and outcomes (McLaughlin & Jordan, 1999). In this article, we conceptualize Didaktik and curriculum as two broad programs of education policy systems representing German and US contexts and through the logic models did analyses of salient changes over the years. While we understand that Didaktik would strongly resist such a comparison model, we consider the models do provide a clear layout as to how Didaktik and curriculum compare and contrast across same logic model categories.

One purpose for our theoretical work is to revitalize the cross-national and cross-cultural educational dialogues and exchanges between Didaktik and curriculum theorists, educational practitioners, researchers, and policy makers. We feel that a more intensive and extensive educational exchange between nations’ scholars could lead to 1) a deeper and better understanding of pedagogical traditions and 2) better informed decision-makers and policy makers to help avoid challenges in policy development and program implementation. A second purpose is to show how the administration of international assessments such as Trends in International Math and Science Studies (TIMSS) and Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) has pushed many countries, including the U.S. and Germany, to undertake reforms that improve their students’ achievement in those assessments. These global and national educational processes as well as the lessons learned in the past in Didaktik and curriculum traditions could save significant resources and time for nations engaged in further educational developments in the coming years (e.g., 21st Century Skills, Diagnostic Assessments, Scientific Practices) by avoiding development of policies that lead to one versus another outcome. An example here is Germany’s decision to introduce external assessments, which have not proved to increase student achievement over time in the U.S., therefore it would save resources required for test development and administration, etc., if such a policy was never put in place.

Comparative education scholarship is divided over usability and validity of cross-national education research due to national cultural and historical differences. Indeed, scholars participating in Didaktik-Curriculum debate during 1990s noted that educational issues “[…] are always rooted in the particularities of national histories, of national habits, and of national aspirations” (Reid, 1998, p. 11-12). However, we contend that fruitful insights and understandings emerge when trying to disentangle global and cross-national educational developments and practices. While it is argued that educational policy discourse has largely been standardized globally (Schriewer, 2000), within-country educational differences in Germany and the U.S. still provide relevant potential research-based solutions for one another. An example is with issues related to curriculum coherence and alignment, as central elements for provision of high quality education and experiences for everyone participating in and contributing to education systems in respective countries. We begin the paper by providing discussions of the theoretical frameworks and methodology that informed our work. We then follow with presentations of results and discussion, and conclude with some insights as to where our thinking might lead to in the near future.
Theoretical Framework

We draw from three theoretical perspectives to conceptualize the discussion on Didaktik and curriculum traditions: logic models, Didaktik/Bildung, and curriculum theory, with an emphasis on teaching sequences and learning progressions. First, we employ logic models of inputs/outputs to put Didaktik and curriculum traditions in a comparative and contrasting perspective. Logic models are a way to highlight the key elements of a project or program from assumptions to inputs to outcomes so that those involved in design, implementation and evaluation use the same platform as a point of reference (McLaughlin & Jordan, 1999). We view Didaktik and curriculum traditions as two separate standalone programs of education; therefore, the logic models framework serves our purpose to examine both traditions through the same perspective and to facilitate our discussion here.

Second, we use Didaktik/Bildung theory to focus the discussion on German educational thinking. Klette (2007) described this tradition “as a relation between teachers and learners (the who), subject matter (the what) and instructional methods (the how)” (p. 147). Similarly, Didaktik “provides teachers with ways of considering the essential what, how and why questions around their teaching of their students in their classrooms” (Westbury, 2000, p. 17, emphasis in the original). Hopmann (2007) stated that Didaktik is a matter of order, sequence, choice; features that align well with contemporary thinking regarding US standards revision and attention to Learning Trajectories in mathematics education and Learning Progressions in science education. Within the frame of order, sequence, and choice, Hopmann stated that “Didaktik became the main tool for creating space for local teaching by providing interpretative tools for dealing with state guidelines on a local basis” (p. 113).

As noted above, Bildung is a central concept in Didaktik tradition. German concept Bildung is a noun meaning something like “being educated, educatedness.” It also carries the connotations of the word bilden “to form, to shape”. Bildung, as understood by Humboldt (1792), means ‘grasping as much world as possible’ and as ‘contributing to human kind’ by development of one’s own unique self. In Bildung, whatever is done or learned is done or learned to develop one’s own individuality, to unfold the capabilities of the I (Hopmann, 2007). The notion of Bildung, as developed in the Didaktik perspective, sees Bildung as an individual outcome, not as a program for education. This is in opposition to US testing-driven education and international testing programs where the meaning of the subject matter content is fixed, and in most cases only one right solution is sought from everyone. Furthermore, competence-based curricula are problematic as it is not possible to match a certain competence with a certain content matter, and also gaining competence is but one of the many potential meanings which can be achieved by a given content matter (Hopmann, 2007). Bildung is seen as an ideal aspiring to be mastered by students with teacher’s support and something to hold on to and work towards throughout a personal life journey. In other words, it means preparing students for lifelong learning beyond formal education, for the sake of transforming themselves as human beings, and to the extent possible, extend that transformation to what the person does (occupation) and society at large.

Third, we draw from the more recent work in the curriculum theory, which is shifting its focus from being more behavioristic- to being more cognitivist- and constructivist- oriented. In particular, we focus on learning trajectories in mathematics education and learning progressions in science education placed within US educational research, and curriculum theory. Learning trajectories is a promising field of research in mathematics education that focuses on better curriculum, instruction and assessment alignment for the benefit of students’ learning. More specifically, learning trajectories were defined as:
descriptions of children’s thinking and learning in a specific mathematical domain, and a related conjectured route through a set of instructional tasks designed to engender those mental processes or actions hypothesized to move children through a developmental progression of levels of thinking, created with the intent of supporting children’s achievement of specific goals in that mathematical domain. (Clements & Sarama, 2004, p. 83)

Learning progressions research focuses on curriculum coherence and puts into practice an aligned system between curriculum-instruction-assessment that strives to elevate students’ understandings and reasoning from simpler to integrated levels. “Learning progressions (LPs) are research-based descriptions of how students build their knowledge, and gain more expertise within and across a discipline over a broad span of time” (National Research Council, 2007, p. 8-5). We extend the discussion on most recent developments in the science, technology, engineering and math (STEM) education in the US as per the recent push towards science learning and teaching that relies on integration of science and engineering practices, crosscutting concepts and disciplinary core ideas. The concept of Bildung maps well to Learning Trajectories and Learning Progressions constructs regarding pathways of formative development and developmental corridors incorporating a focus on using knowledge and participating productively in disciplinary talk.

Methodology

To develop our arguments, we employ a conceptual/theoretical mode of inquiry situated within comparative educational research. We explore, analyze, and synthesize theoretical perspectives that helped develop Didaktik and curriculum traditions historically up to the present day through the comparative lens. We apply interpretive methods based on hermeneutics, a qualitative-based approach that draws heavily from German philosophers of the Enlightenment period. We follow Gadamer’s (1993) conceptualization of hermeneutics, who viewed hermeneutic work as based on polarity of familiarity and strangeness and the tensions in-between the two. We extend this notion of hermeneutics to the investigation of Didaktik and curriculum traditions by interpreting them both within their own territory, and also explore how both are merging with and extending to the territory of the other. For our interpretative/hermeneutic work, we use primary source texts covering issues of Didaktik and curriculum theory since 1990s. We place our findings in two separate logic models, one covering Didaktik-curriculum dialogue during 1990s and the other based on more recent developments in both traditions.

Table 1 summarizes Didaktik-curriculum dialogue during 1990s and vertically is organized into two columns representing Didaktik and Curriculum and row sections, namely, Assumptions, outlining assumptions about intended educational policies in two educational systems; Inputs, highlighting what goes into education system; Activities, covering what supposedly happens at classroom level; Outputs, presenting expected educational outputs from the schools; and Outcomes, summarizing short-term, mid-term and long-term aspirations emerging from the educational outcomes. Table 2a is in same format, but it highlights in bold the changes we identified as part of post-2000s national and global educational developments in Germany and the U.S. Table 2b is only a simpler version of Table 2a, where we have kept changes identified in Table 2a, and highlighted in bold those we contend pose significant departures from Didaktik-curriculum theory in the past. Dashes (meaning ----) in tables indicate we have not been able to identify a corresponding concept in the counterpart theory.
Results and Discussion

Here, we report the results of our analytical and synthetic work in two separate logic models. The first logic model is based on the work of US and European authors that organized Didaktik/Curriculum dialogue during 1990s. Comparing the two traditions, Westbury (2000) argued that under curriculum theory, the social and cultural world is an objective structure and the task of the curriculum is to present the structure to students, and help them determine what place they will occupy in it. Within curriculum tradition the teacher role is the one of an invisible agent of the system, “seen as “animated” and directed by the system and not as a source of animation for the system” (Westbury, 2000, p. 21). On the other hand, under Didaktik, the world that education should help create is presented as subjectified and the question is not how students learn or how to lead students towards a body of knowledge, but the question is about the object of learning in terms of Bildung, what it should signify to the student, and how students themselves experience this significance (Westbury, 2000). Didaktik theory is a teacher- rather than system-centered system, where the role of the teacher is “forming” rather “instructing” his or her students and in so doing, celebrates the individuality of each teacher as an active and reflective curriculum and decision maker rather than seeing the teacher as implementing a workplace manual of best practices, that is, a curriculum or a curriculum package (Westbury, 2000). Under Didaktik, teachers enjoy autonomy because “[...] nothing is decided by the choice of the matter itself, but by how the teacher chooses to enact a given content for a given audience of students under given circumstances” (Hopmann, 2007, p. 117). Furthermore, Hopmann argued, Didaktik is the necessarily restrained effort to make certain substantive outcomes possible, while knowing that it can always turn out completely different from what was intended. Hopmann (2007) writes that: “The purpose of teaching and schooling is in this perspective... the use of knowledge as a transformative tool of unfolding the learner’s individuality and sociability, in short: the Bildung of the learners by teaching” (p. 115). Teacher’s role within the system, and teacher education philosophy were identified as potential areas for exchange during 1990s.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSUMPTIONS</th>
<th>DIDAKTIK</th>
<th>CURRICULUM THEORY</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Education creates a world as subjectified</td>
<td>- Education creates a world as objectified</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Hermeneutics</td>
<td>- Empiricism</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Humanistic / Romantic</td>
<td>- Positivist / Formalist</td>
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<tr>
<td>INPUTS</td>
<td>- State-prescribed curricula <em>(Lehrplan)</em></td>
<td>- State-prescribed standards</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>- District and/or school curricula</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Teachers as professionals/ curriculum makers</td>
<td>- Teachers as system's agents</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Teacher autonomy</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Students</td>
<td>- Students</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Subject matters/objects of learning in terms of Bildung/content of teaching</td>
<td>- Subject matters/bodies of information</td>
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<td>Accountability</td>
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<td>ACTIVITIES</td>
<td>- Reflective practice of teaching</td>
<td>- Teaching as enactment/instruction</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Teaching as licensed</td>
<td>- Teaching as certified/in-serviced</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Didaktik reflection</td>
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</table>
Policies

| Short-term | - Bildung | - Mastery of knowledge and skills/literacy |
| Medium-term | - Increased student contribution to and transformation of disciplinary knowledge/society | - Increased student productivity for and consumerism in the society |
| Long-term | - Increased commitment to Bildung | - Maintained competitive advantage over other nations |

Table 6: First Logic Model of Didaktik and Curriculum as programmes of education policy systems based on 1990's debate

The second logic model draws from post-2000s policy documents to examine how and to what extent the two traditions departed from their more historical and modern roots as exemplified during 1990s. Our analysis shows that significant developments in the U.S. and Germany have enabled both Didaktik and curriculum to seek new avenues for further developments. We found significant changes in both Didaktik and curriculum theory. However, the motivations for changes seem to have been not very wide apart but of varying degrees: in Germany, the so-called PISA shock seems to have pushed German educators to reconsider their educational policy orientations; in the U.S., PISA ‘syndrome’ also had an impact but the efforts to achieve curriculum coherence seem to have been a larger influence. Curriculum coherence is described as the alignment of the specified ideas, and the depth at which the ideas are studied, and the sequencing of the topics within each grade and across the grades (Fortus & Krajcik, 2012). Efforts towards coherence are most obvious in the field of STEM education, where there is an almost nation-wide state-led undertaking to put in place integrated science learning and teaching that is adequately aligned across curriculum, instruction and assessment.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policies</th>
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| - School curricula based on federal state curricula (developed and enacted by within school subject matter teachers)  
  - Teachers as professionals/ curriculum makers  
  - Teacher autonomy  
  - Students (Students’ conceptions as relevant aspects of classrooms)  
  - Subject matters/objects of learning in terms of Bildung/content of teaching |
| - Teachers as system’s agents  
| - Students  
  - Subject matters/learning for deep understanding  
  Accountability |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITIES</th>
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| - Reflective practice of teaching  
  - Teaching as licensed  
  - Didaktik reflection  
  - Observation based on competencies defined in Bildungsstandards  
  - External state assessments of Bildungsstandards after grade 10 and 12 (state assessment counts for approx. 30% of students’ final grade)  
  - Peer-teacher evaluation / self-professionalism  
  - School evaluation – consequences are recommendations  
  | - Effective teaching  
  - Teaching as certified/in-serviced  
  - Adaptive instruction  
  | - Assessments aligned to common core standards  
  - Systemic teacher performance evaluation  
  - School evaluation – consequences are high-stakes  
  - Curriculum implementation  
  | - Teacher education exceeds subject orientation (psychology, educational sciences FachDidaktik), includes 7 years of education (3 years undergraduate+2 years master+2 years in-service training)  
  - Mandated advanced training on the job  
  | - Professional development relevant to content to be taught |

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<tr>
<th>OUTPUTS</th>
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| - Initiation of learning to help students achieve competencies  
  - Unfolding of individuality/creativity  
  - Meaning-making  
  | Learning outcomes  
  - Test scores/Student performances  
  | Deeper understanding  
  

<table>
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<tr>
<th>OUTCOMES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Short-term  
  - Bildung  
  - Self-determination  
  - Co-determination  
  | Mastery of knowledge and skills/deeper learning for deeper understanding  
  | |
| Medium-term  
  - Application of competencies for an active participation in society  
  - Diversity  
  | Increased student productivity for and consumerism in the society  
  | Conformity |
| Long-term  
  - Increased commitment to Bildung  
  | Maintained competitive advantage over other nations |

Table 7: Second Logic Model of Didaktik and Curriculum changes based on post-2000's developments
For this paper, we have provided a summary of the salient changes in Table 2b below and highlighted in **bold** those that we consider to represent significant departures from previous policy thinking in Didaktik and curriculum traditions. Ironically, but maybe not coincidentally, through these major changes, we find Didaktik and curriculum moving towards one another’s ‘territories’. Included in these changes are the following:

1) in **Input** section, changes on national education standards and alignment of school curricula with national standards, and

2) in **Activities** sections, introduction of external assessment in Germany and adaptive instruction and professional development relevant to what will be taught in the U.S.

Arguably, what a few years back would have been thought unimaginable is now a reality in the recently reconceptualized notions of Didaktik and curriculum *practices*. We note *practices* because these two changes appear in **Input** and **Activities** sections, which to a large extent relate to practices taking place within the systems. Interestingly, we found that these practices are being implemented without reconsideration of the initial assumptions on which the whole education policy system is built on. Also, we did not find many significant changes in **Output** and **Outcomes** sections as per Logic Models categories, even though we agree that focus on achievement of competencies in Germany and student performance in the U.S. are considerable steps, but we see them as extension of two major changes indicated above and which we will elaborate more in depth in the following sections.

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### ASSUMPTIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Didaktik</th>
<th>Curriculum-Instruction-Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- National Bildungs-standards (Competencies + Bildung)</td>
<td>- National common core standards*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Core curricula on the federal state level</td>
<td>- District and/or school curricula based on national common core standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- School curricula based on federal state curricula (developed and enacted by within school subject matter teachers)</td>
<td>- Subject matters/learning for deep understanding</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### INPUTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Didaktik</th>
<th>Curriculum-Instruction-Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Observation based on competencies defined in Bildungsstandards</td>
<td>- Effective teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- External state assessments of Bildungsstandards after grade 10 and 12 (state assessment counts for approx. 30% of students' final grade)</td>
<td>- Adaptive instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- School evaluation – consequences are recommendations</td>
<td>- Assessments aligned to common core standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### ACTIVITIES

- Teacher education exceeds subject orientation (psychology, educational sciences FachDidaktik), includes 7 years of education (3 years undergraduate + 2
### Changes in National Education Standards and School Curriculum Alignment

Since the mid-1990s, international student assessments such as TIMSS and PISA have acted as a thunderclap on educational politics – especially in German-speaking Europe. Results showing that 50% of the students failed central aims of core knowledge (Baumert et al. 2000) initiated an empirical turn in the Didaktik tradition. Initiated by the growing influence of psychometrics, the Didaktik tradition shifted from an input to an output model, from evaluating education based on the question “What have we taught today” to “What concepts and competencies have we learned today”. Based on international, national and regional assessment studies educational standards (Bildungsstandards) were developed describing the knowledge and competencies a student has to achieve after leaving school. With the shift from input to output model a second shift was initiated: the Bildungsstandards are formulated at the state level and transformed by the schools into school-curricula at a micro level (Köller, 2009). The German Bildungsstandards try to make a connection between the holistic tradition of Bildung and the Anglo-American tradition of formulating core knowledge and competencies. The comparison of “post-PISA Didaktik-perspective” and the modern curriculum perspective shows that Didaktik is on the way of finding a new identity in formulating standards as a sine qua non for achieving Bildung. In curriculum tradition, we found that changes in national common core standards in English, Math, and Sciences constitute a sea change in the US curriculum making, traditionally an undertaking of individual states and school districts. Nonetheless, we argue that the changes reshaping Didaktik and curriculum are largely situated within their previously held assumptions, and based on their historical roots and development stages.

However, the path to what is called common core initiative in English and Math and Next Generation Science Standards has not been short and smooth. Numerous scholars had been addressing the issue of lacking curriculum coherence and alignment in the U.S. curriculum since late 1990s. For example, Schmidt, Houng and Cogan (2002), investigating US students’ achievement in TIMSS study, claimed that “American students and
teachers are greatly disadvantaged by our country’s lack of a common, coherent curriculum and the texts, materials, and training that match it” (p. 1), while analogous concerns were voiced repeatedly by other researcher reports (Schmidt, Wang & McKnight, 2005; Schmidt, 2008; National Research Council [NRC], 2007; Fortus & Krajcik, 2012). Therefore, as the Carnegie Corporation of New York, & Institute for Advanced Study (2009) report suggested, an alignment across curriculum, instruction and assessment would be the response to upgrading education standards for all students and schools in all states with the hope to improve students’ achievement within country and vis-à-vis international peers. Almost all U.S. member states have signed up for ‘common core’ standards and national assessments expected to be put in place starting from 2014-2015 school year. In turn, school districts are expected to follow-up and develop their curricula that are in line with the national standards adopted at both state and federal level.

Whether these steps will produce intended outcomes remains to be seen, but concomitant developments are major shifts from curriculum structure of the past. In particular, US developments are strikingly different from century-old beliefs and practices, where school curriculum is an inherently community-based affair to be decided individually by schools and districts. In Germany’s case, developments are in line with past practices of national curriculum, but introduction of competencies or Bildungstandards, is to some extent in contradiction with the Didaktik principles since focusing on certain standards means dumping down curriculum. From Didaktik perspective, when teachers and students meet around specific content matter, the result is not a specific outcome, in the form of competencies, but the outcomes are multiple and go beyond any individual competence (Hopmann, 2007). However, German educators seem to have well-situated their competency-based education within Bildung, considering standards as another way of achieving the ideals of Bildung, as the case has been within Didaktik all along (Köller, 2009). The shift from didaktik-based models of education towards models more in line with curriculum and competency-based models seems to be a trend in other Continental European countries formerly dominated by Didaktik tradition (Pantić & Wubbels, 2012).

The work on learning trajectories and learning progressions in the US contributed to further accelerate decisions on having national educational standards, which in turn would evolve into some kind of a national curriculum, and then to curriculum alignment and coherence. As Fortus and Krajcik (2012) have noted, learning progressions are descriptions of successively more sophisticated ways of thinking about how learners develop key disciplinary concepts and practices within a grade level and across multiple grades. In turn, they further argue, learning progressions allow designers to bring coherence to their curriculum materials, coherence that is crucial in supporting student learning by providing alignment between standards, instructional tasks, and assessments across grades and grade bands. We predict that with the start of implementation of the national standards and curriculum in the US, there will be a greater need for results from educational research in learning trajectories and learning progressions. Also, this need will result with more funding for this line of educational research as both policy makers and educators at schools, districts or state or federal levels will be interested to have empirically established learning trajectories in math and learning progressions in sciences. In turn, extended learning about learning trajectories and learning progressions will assist teachers in schools to implement the new curriculum, and policy-makers at decision making levels to bring intended curriculum goals up to scale across the nation.

The most recent emphasis on acceleration of STEM education reform in the US demonstrates a unique and ambitious agenda to redesign the science teaching and learning across the nation. To this end, a number of influential National Research Council (NRC) reports have drawn a new roadmap for U.S. science education.
Among them, *Taking Science to School: Learning and teaching science in grades K-8* (NRC, 2007), *A Framework for K-12 Science Education: Practices, Crosscutting Concepts and Core Ideas* (NRC, 2012a), *Education for Life and Work* (NRC, 2012b) and *Developing Assessments for the Next Generation Science Standards* (NRC, 2014) represent the stepping stones for the changes that are already initiated and those yet to come in US science education. A key recommendation that spans across all these reports is that science learning be organized into longer learning sequences, i.e. learning progressions that span vertically across grades and horizontally within a given school year. Another key recommendation that emerges from the reports maintains the need for fewer focused disciplinary core ideas that provide for deeper learning, as well as integration of science and engineering practices and crosscutting concepts to facilitate learning of core knowledge and practices that are crucial for mastery of scientific knowledge and reasoning. These developments are taking science education into a new space in efforts to overcome the past labeling of the US curriculum as a "mile wide and an inch deep." In the new agenda, a renewed definition of science is reconfirmed: “Science is not just a body of knowledge that reflects current understanding of the world; it is also a set of practices used to establish, extend, and refine that knowledge. Both elements—knowledge and practice—are essential.” (NRC, 2012a, p. 26). To some extent, the redefined science for the US context sounds quite similar to the positions within Didaktik system that view the role of education beyond immediate knowledge mastery – such that entails a more transformative role for the students involved, the professional communities they engage with, and societies they contribute to. To make this possible in the US, the *Education for Life and Work* report (NRC, 2012b) recommends incorporation of “21st century competencies”, such as problem solving, critical thinking and collaboration into teaching and learning activities for deeper learning purposes. The orientations laid out for the future of science education in the US start to sound a lot more as ideals aspired to be reached through Bildung in Didaktik tradition.

More specifically, the K-12 Science Education Framework sits on three dimensions, including scientific and engineering practices, crosscutting concepts, which have applicability across science disciplines, and core disciplinary ideas. In more detail, the scientific and engineering practices for science classrooms include: 1. Asking questions (for science) and defining problems (for engineering); 2. Developing and using models; 3. Planning and carrying out investigations; 4. Analyzing and interpreting data; 5. Using mathematics and computational thinking; 6. Constructing explanations (for science) and designing solutions (for engineering); 7. Engaging in argument from evidence; and 8. Obtaining, evaluating, and communicating information. In turn, there are seven crosscutting concepts, including patterns; cause and effect: mechanism and explanation; scale, proportion and quantity; systems and system models; energy and matter: flows, cycles and conservation; structure and function; and stability and change. The third dimension on disciplinary core ideas lists 13 core ideas distributed across physical sciences (four), life sciences (four), earth and space sciences (three) and engineering, technology and the applications of sciences (two) (NRC, 2012a). In the report words:

Understanding the core ideas and engaging in the scientific and engineering practices helps to prepare students for broader understanding, and deeper levels of scientific and engineering investigation, later on – in high school, college, and beyond. One rationale for organizing content around core ideas comes from studies comparing experts and novices in any field. Experts understand the core principles and theoretical constructs of their field, and they use them to make sense of new information or tackle novel problems. Novices, in contrast, tend to hold disconnected and even contradictory bits of knowledge as isolated facts and struggle to find a way to organize and integrate them [24]. The assumption, then, is that
helping students learn the core ideas through engaging in scientific and engineering practices will enable them to become less like novices and more like experts (NRC, 2012a, p. 25).

The Framework sets high expectations for the US students, and the ideals for developing a highly scientifically competent citizenry for both professional and other less formal contexts are largely commendable. These ideals pose a giant leap away from the past curriculum thinking and begin to even surpass ideals in Didaktik tradition as part of Bildung. One key challenge that needs to be resolved is whether US teachers will have the professional autonomy to adapt these high ideals into classroom realities of their districts and student populations. While teacher autonomy under Didaktik is still maintained, and teachers are less threatened by externally-mandated accountability models, if at all, the accountability systems in the US will still be in place and thus US teachers will have to walk again the fine line between supporting deeper learning for students and meeting accountability requirements imposed through externally-administered assessments.

To this effect, a latest NRC report on developing assessments for the NGSS (NRC, 2014) recognizes the challenges that might be encountered in implementation of the three-dimensional approach to STEM education, namely, practices, crosscutting concepts and core ideas, and emphasizes the need for adequate classroom assessments and monitoring assessments. The report recommends the use of both formative and summative classroom assessments, i.e. formative for the needs of instructional improvement and summative for the needs of student grading. The monitoring assessments are recommended to track student learning and mastery of scientific practices, concepts and core ideas across different settings and time periods. The latter focus on monitoring assessments demonstrates continuation of past curriculum theory thinking is in line with the curriculum theory assumption that holds objectivist and positivist view of the world in which learning can be tracked and measured – a notion that Didaktik tradition in Germany has also started to lend itself into.

Returning to scientific and engineering practices one more time, here we offer a more extensive elaboration of the third scientific and engineering practice, i.e. Planning and Carrying Out Investigations as per The Framework provisions (NRC, 2012a). Planning and carrying out investigations is a science practice for making sense of and explaining the natural world. The outcomes of investigations help in the discovery of patterns and the development of cause and effect mechanisms that are used to explain and understand natural phenomena and engineering designs. For scientists and engineers, planning and carryout investigations has many steps, involving numerous decisions, and frequently requires repeated attempts. It takes time to sort things out in the natural world, to ask the right questions, and to make the appropriate measurements and observations. The Framework points out, however, that such sense-making enactments are missing in the current US K-12 science programs. One goal of the Framework is to make learners’ experiences with science a bit of a struggle in order to develop images that science is a way of knowing that strives to make sense of the world. At its core, planning and carrying out investigations is a set of sense-making practices.

Thus, the Framework suggests that over a three year grade band (e.g., K-2 3-5, 6-8, 9-12), students’ engagements with the planning and carrying out of investigations, teachers should increasingly lead them to broaden and deepen the complexity of investigations; both in terms of the questions and problems being posed as well as the measures and methods being employed. The Framework’s intent is to avoid students only doing investigations that present science knowledge and inquiry in ways that lead students to see scientific knowledge as non-problematic. Non-problematic in the sense that science is seen as an easy straightforward path to answers and explanations where
there is no struggle. Ask a question, you always get the answer. Make measurements, you always selected the right tool and procedure. Make observations, you always obtain the correct information knowing when and where to look. Such investigations-without-struggles leads to students leaving school with naïve notions that the results from investigations and scientific knowledge as non-problematic. Thus, planning and carrying out investigations should instead reveal how obtaining, building and refining scientific knowledge through scientific inquiries involves working through a variety of complex problematic processes.

So how can investigations be planned and carried out within the classroom settings? Planning investigations begins with designing experimental or observational inquiries that align to the question(s) being asked or the hypothesis being put forth. One begins this process by considering the relevant properties, attributes and variables and then determining how they may be observed, measured, and isolated or controlled. Isolating and controlling variables are important for determining patterns, establishing cause and effect relationships and building mechanisms to explain or describe events and systems. In laboratory or design experiments, students need to decide:

1. Which variable(s) will be treated as results, the outcomes of the experiment that are allowed to be different and vary, and
2. Which variable(s) are to be treated as the inputs and thus must be held constant, that is controlled.

In field observations, planning investigations begins with finding out what can and can’t be controlled and then deciding when to do measurements or how to collect different samples of data under different conditions. The range of choices, the complexities with obtaining and setting up materials, and the wide variety of sources of error are what makes scientific knowledge problematic – it is complex work and thinking that can frequently be inaccurate or misdirected.

Let’s consider then about some of the problems of measurement and measuring. Important decisions about measure are part of planning and carrying out investigations. What measurements should be taken? What level of accuracy do you want? What instruments or tools should be used to make such measurements? Precision is very important, the goal is to measure and record as accurately as possible so as to try and eliminate as many sources of error as possible. Then there are the precision issues when doing field studies such as conducting observation, conducting counts, gathering samples, and generating representations and drawings. Once again, we see how obtaining, building and refining scientific knowledge becomes problematic. As noted earlier, Framework’s goal is to avoid students developing ‘Knowledge Unproblematic’ views of science knowledge and scientific inquiry. Planning and carrying out investigations are important experiences that help students acquire conceptual knowledge, procedural knowledge and epistemic knowledge and develop a ‘Knowledge Problematic’ view of scientific inquiry. Again, considering scientific practices from the Didaktik-Curriculum dichotomy, it becomes obvious that teacher’s role is central in engaging students in investigations with open ended solutions – in those where the goal is not only to achieve to an answer that will be relevant in an upcoming standardized tests. In other words, diminishing teacher autonomy and professionalism through accountability models in the US, and anywhere where those models are in place, minimizes the opportunities for teachers to allow both themselves and students to engage in investigations that face errors and failures and experience ‘problematic’ nature of scientific knowledge, thus avoiding the trap of ‘knowledge non-problematic.’
Introduction of External Assessment in Germany and Adaptive Instruction and Professional Development Relevant to be Taught in the U.S

External assessments in K-12 education have been around for a long period of time, but that was not the case in Germany until the beginning of 21st century. Didaktik literature does not elaborate much on external assessment, if at all. The primary reason for the lack of external assessments in Didaktik tradition in the past is the notion of teacher’s autonomy and uniqueness of meetings between teachers and students around content matter. Didaktik theory suggests that student assessment is a sole discretion of individual teachers when individual students try to come to terms and understand some specific content (curriculum) (Hopmann, 2007). Considering how long these Didaktik principles have been held amidst educator communities in Germany, external assessment is indeed a major revolution in Germany, and the one that is already facing some resistance and opposition whether it fits with German Didaktik-based educational model. Hopmann (2007) considered that if “[...] many politicians and researchers argue that national testing combined with reducing the state curriculum to competency expectations would enhance the autonomy of schools and teachers, this is – plainly speaking – educational rubbish, at least from a Didaktik perspective” (p. 120). According to him, this approach would reduce teacher autonomy, as the expectation would be to match specific matter with competence, and autonomy of situated meeting the leaner with matter would get lost, under Bildung perspective. Didaktik literature shows that some curriculum principles were tried in Germany during 1960s, but resulted with a short-lived exchange and return of Didaktik to its traditional roots. However, we argue that the friction and tension between German policy makers who insist on external assessment and education community who insists on Didaktik principles will continue for some time, and while the administration of external assessments will persist, Didaktik will not give up its principles either.

The changes with regard to adaptive instruction and professional education relevant to curriculum to be taught on the U.S. education spectrum have a better chance to succeed for three reasons: first, that they seem to be better aligned with the overall national agenda for curriculum alignment; second, adaptive instruction requires some teacher autonomy in adjusting national curriculum standards for the needs of individual and specific students, schools and districts in the U.S.; and third, because teachers will need to have higher academic levels to be able to teach a more demanding curriculum and they will need professional development tailored to specific curriculum content areas they will be teaching in schools. Indeed, research reviews have pointed to ‘adaptive instruction’ as a single most effective way to bring about intended changes at classroom settings (Corcoran & Silander, 2009). ‘Adaptive instruction’ is a vaguely defined term but it is suggested to make use of a variety of instructional approaches that are customized to individual students or groups of students and classrooms, such as group learning, project based learning, and dialogic teaching to name a few. Corcoran and Silander (2009) further argue that their conceptualization of adaptive instruction as well as formative assessment practices that pertain to providing immediate feedback to students for the sole purpose of advancing student learning and not evaluating them could potentially lead to ever increasing higher academic levels students are expected to achieve. However, they caution that “It is important to recognize that what is being “adapted” in adaptive instruction is not the learning goals for students, but rather the instructional strategies and supports offered to help students reach the goals” (Corcoran & Silander, 2009, p. 175). In addition, they noted that, “Adaptive instruction could incorporate the effective instructional approaches we have been reviewing, but add the power of real-time feedback and continuous improvement, for the student, for the teacher, and for the profession” (Corcoran & Silander, 2009, p. 174).
It is eye-opening to see how well adaptive instruction argumentation fit within Didaktik and Bildung principles in general and to the Wolfgang Klafki's Didaktik analysis in particular. For example, Didaktik requires teachers to undertake a Didaktik analysis prior to teaching any content to students, asking for content of instruction to be analyzed at three levels:

- Relating it to subject matter as a structure of knowledge;
- Relating it to subject matter as in use in everyday life, and;
- Relating it to subject matter as in use in the frame of schooling and relations to other school subjects and its placement in the curriculum as a whole. (Westbury, Hopmann & Riquarts, 2000, p. 198).

From this perspective, it is ironic to observe how both Didaktik and curriculum traditions are moving towards each other ‘territories’ in areas they are being asked to change. We argue that it is tragic to some extent to see how Germany is trying to emphasize external assessments despite an ever growing body of decades of research against external and standardized testing in the U.S. By the same token, we contend the shift towards more teacher autonomy, adaptive instruction and formative assessment in the U.S. as an advocacy towards Didaktik-based thinking and practices, which Germany policy-makers are trying to do away with, but resistance of Didaktik scholars is promising in that it might lead to preservation of these values for the benefit of developing each students’ individuality to their fullest potential.

Conclusions

In the globalized world of the 21st century, intensified by massive technological developments, education systems in the U.S and Germany, and indeed everywhere, are under double pressures: first, how to build a respectable and valid education system at home, i.e. within country, that matches the needs of students and expectations of the society, and second, how to increase achievement in international assessments to prove that they too have a ‘world class’ education irrespective of how ‘world class’ education is defined. Didaktik and curriculum are being shaped by these pressures, and the changes introduced in both camps hold significant implications for further work in educational arena.

Didaktik/curriculum changes we identified here have implications for educational research, policy making and educational practice for both countries. With regard to educational research, the example of the Didaktik-based model of educational reconstruction (MER) research program can be considered. The MER (Duit, Gropengießer & Kattman, 2005), coordinates three domains of research – 1) Investigations into students’ perspectives; 2) Clarification and analysis of subject matter content; 3) Design of learning environments. The MER offers a well-conceived framework for educational research as well as a context for conducting theoretical, basic, and applied research. The cornerstone of this research program is the ‘Teaching Experiment’, an interview-type method that seeks to understand how individuals coordinate core conceptual understandings in domain-specific contexts (e.g., evolution, ecology, adaptation, cellular functions, among others). This research can be a useful complementary to the research on learning trajectories and learning progressions in the U.S., as US scholars and researchers undertake more extended initiatives to bring curriculum coherence and alignment at classroom level as a tool for teachers to prepare students to engage in deeper meaning making for the goal of transforming their lives, their professions and their communities and society at large. Indeed, the learning trajectories and learning progressions
research in the U.S. is already stimulating rich debates as how to achieve more coherence and better alignment and rigor in curriculum-instruction-assessment triangle.

With regard to policy-making, the two traditions seem to be moving towards a similar educational trend and further developments will be critical to see whether the trend will continue or whether traditions will withdraw to their own roots again. As argued in this paper, the changes observed in the U.S. policy system seem to be better aligned between policy makers and education/academic community, therefore, we predict a better chance of success in these policy efforts which are built around the concept of curriculum alignment. In Germany, the situation is more difficult to predict as it seems there is more resistance from academic community to the policies introduced by the policy makers. However, we note that while external assessment will continue to be administered in German education system, Didaktik-oriented teaching force and academic community will do its best to align those assessments with Didaktik and Bildung principles, or discontinue them completely.

Educational practice is another field where we might expect new developments. Will US 'common core' initiatives bring about intended results? How will US policy-makers adapt their policies in the light of eventual potential implementation challenges in schools? To what extent will German policy makers push for external assessments to be used for accountability purposes in a country where teachers’ professionalism and autonomy have been central to education for centuries? All these questions invite for further attention to be paid to these developments, but as the trend identified here shows, Didaktik and curriculum are likely to evolve into more converging than diverging education spectrums.

Significant changes in both systems – in Germany’s case, the shift towards competency-based educational standards, introduction of external standardized assessment, and modifications in teacher education programs, and in the U.S. case, the shift towards national common core standards, alignment of assessments to standards, and increased focus on teacher professional development relevant to content to be taught – show that the past few years of national and global forces and trends have reshaped and restructured them in ways unimaginable a few decades back. The effects of this reshaping process is already felt in both Germany and the U.S. in terms of new policy and research initiatives being designed and supported (for example, Bildungsstandards in Germany and Common Core Initiative and Next Generation of Science Standards in the U.S.). Next, the challenge will be how these initiated changes will be implemented at the classroom level by teachers and learners as key beneficiaries and contributors to the educational transformation hoped for, and arguably needed, in the 21st century.

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In Portugal, the policy measures which followed the April 1974 democratic revolution attributed to education the "mission" of guaranteeing the right to a fair and effective equality of opportunity in school access and success (Portuguese Educational System Law, 1986). As examples of these measures, the TEIP program (in English ETPI - Educational Territories of Priority Intervention) was created in the 90's involving schools linked to social inequality 'problems,' dropout and school failure (Leite, Fernandes & Silva, 2013) with the main aim to support schools in dealing with these situations. Firstly, a diagnosis of the problems is made and, afterwards, the aspects that need improvement are selected and it is developed an appropriate intervention project. This policy measure, which may be considered as "compensatory education", has emerged associated to other international movements such as the "Head Start" and "Follow-Through" projects (United States); the “Priority Education Zones” (France); and "Educational Priority Areas" and "Education Action Zones" (England). Another policy measure initiated more recently, in 2006, is the schools external evaluation (SEE) process. Also influenced by international policies (Dale, 2007) and associating the evaluation of educational institutions to accountability (Afonso, 2009; Fullan, Rincon-Gallardo & Hargreaves, 2015), this measure is related to decentralization processes and the intention of improving education quality (Pacheco, 2000; OECD, 2012). Assuming that is a political responsibility to promote an educational improvement (Bolívar, 2003; Coe, 2009), it is important to analyse whether the SEE process and TEIP program follow-driven by democratic and egalitarian principles, i.e., if these political measures contribute to the achievement of social and curricular justice, essential in building a democratic school (Apple & Beane, 1995; Leite, 2002). Consequently, the study aims to understand how the objectives of these two policy measures are being implemented and how schools seek educational improvement based on curricular and social justice (Connell, 1995; Crahay, 2000; Rawls, 2003; Dubet, 2008; Santomé, 2013). To achieve these goals, we did 5 semi directive interviews (Hopf, 2004) to the National Education Council President; the person responsible for TEIP program at national level; and three exploratory interviews in a TEIP school to the headmaster, the TEIP program coordinator and the self-assessment team coordinator. The interviews discourses were subject to analysis and reflection through a process of content analysis (Krippendorff, 2012), using the NVivo software (v. 10) and with them it was possible to understand how, locally, the SEE process and TEIP program are experienced and interpreted at a curricular level. The study allowed understand that these policies - schools evaluation and TEIP program - even constituting two separate measures, are interconnected in order to promote school success and educational improvement. Having moderately positive effects on school everyday life, it is possible to recognize attention to social and cultural diversity of students and the use of strategies that seek to ensure the success and educational improvement of all, even though in some schools this situation is not yet an institutionalized practice.

1. Introduction

According to the Portuguese Educational System Law (1986), school education must ensure the right to a fair and effective equality of opportunity in school access and in school success. The schools' external evaluation process (SEE) and the TEIP program (in English ETPI - Educational Territories of Priority Intervention) are two different measures that nowadays influence schools’ at organizational, pedagogical and curricular levels. This study has as
general aim to understand the impact/effect of policy measures implementation that promote school success and educational improvement, particularly in what is concerned to SEE and TEIP program.

The SEE process happens in all public schools including those that are integrated in TEIP program. This means that TEIP schools live with SEE process plus the process of establishing educational targets which are inherent to this program. It is with these two ideas by reference that this study is developed to understand how the objectives of these two policy measures are being implemented, in particular regarding to the conditions that contribute to the respect of the needs and characteristics of the different social groups present in different school contexts. In this way, we want to understand how schools develop processes searching educational improvement based on curricular and social justice (Connell, 1995; Apple, 2013; Santomé, 2013). In this context, for this study, we carried out 5 semi directive interviews to the National Education Council President; the person responsible for TEIP program at national level; and three exploratory interviews in a TEIP school to the headmaster, the TEIP program coordinator and the self-assessment team coordinator.

In the first part of this paper we develop a theoretical framework focused on issues already mentioned. Subsequently, the methodological procedures and the data collected are presented. Finally, and taking into account the data collected, some conclusions are elaborated.

2. Theoretical Framework

In Portugal, policies measures associated to the promotion of school success and educational improvement were implemented and justified on aspects related to equal opportunities and social justice principles. Thus, it is relevant to understand the influence of policy measures that have been implemented to accomplish these objectives and to promote educational improvement. Two of these measures are the TEIP program (in English Educational Territories of Priority Intervention) and Schools’ External Evaluation Process (SEE). In this sense, we consider that is important to know what influences and what effects have these policy measures justified with the intention of promoting school success and educational improvement in schools daily life.

The first educational policy in Portugal, related to issues of equity and equality, focused primarily on the most disadvantaged social groups (Lemos, 2013). These educational policies become known as "compensatory education" or "priority education", as took place, for example, with the ZEP - "Zones d'education Prioritaire" (France), the "Head Start" and "Follow-Through" projects (USA) and the "Education Action Zones" (England). Under the influence of these policies, in 1996, the TEIP program was created. This program was presented as a public policy focused on solving problems related to social inequality, dropout and school failure (Leite, Fernandes & Silva, 2013). It was a political measure that recognized the importance of local intervention, representing principles of decentralization, participation and autonomy through accountability practices related to the reconfiguration of State regulatory function (Afonso & Costa, 2011). In this same line of thought, and taking into account European guidelines in terms of evaluation policies (Wood et al, 2011; OECD, 2012), the accountability demands of each institution to improve their performance has been increasing in addition to the need to promote school success. In this regard, the schools’ evaluation is officially presented with the objective of contributing to educational improvement (Law n. ° 31/2002). Thus, since 2006, all Portuguese public schools are subject to the school external evaluation process (SEE) justified in order to promote the progress of learning and student
outcomes’. In conjunction with this goal of overall school and student learning improvement, there is an external accountability process (Afonso, 2009) that cannot be ignored. To accomplish its goals, the SEE process follows a framework structured around three areas: (1) results, (2) educational service provision and (3) leadership and management.

Nowadays, TEIP schools are subject to a monitoring and evaluation process and that’s within this relationship that we consider that is important to understand how schools’ deal with these processes in line with processes that contribute to social and curricular justice.

3. Methodological Procedures

Taking into account this theoretical framework, the study was developed with the general aim of understanding the impact/effect of policy measures implementation to the promotion of school success and educational improvement, particularly concerning schools’ external evaluation and TEIP program. Therefore, our intention is to answer the following questions: What actions are taken by schools to achieve social justice principle, taking into account these two policy measures? What influence does the SEE process and TEIP program have in the different dimensions of daily school life and in what way they contribute to the promotion of participatory and inclusive education?

To achieve these goals, we carried out 5 semi directive interviews (Hopf, 2004; Bogdan & Biklen, 1994; Goodson, 2013; Seidman, 2013): to the president of the national educational council (PNEC); to the responsible for the TEIP program at a national level (RTP); and three interviews in a TEIP school in the North of Portugal to the Headmaster, self-evaluation Coordinator and the TEIP program coordinator from a TEIP school. These interviews were analyzed through a process of content analysis (Krippendorff, 2012), using the N.Vivo software (v. 10) (Bardin, 2011; Krippendorff, 2004).

4. Data Presentation

Concerning the PNEC and RTP interviews, although the discourses of these interviewees are very different they are connected in several aspects. First of all, there is a focus on students’ academic success and they are most of all worried about the learning quality developed by students. So, for them, it is very important the existence of learning regulation and monitoring instruments that allows schools to be aware of the actions that they take and to empower them to define the goals to be achieved. As it was said:

«I think that the existence of a schools external evaluation system is always a regulatory tool of learning and school performance that is effective (...) what we've come to realize is that there has been an improvement in instruments that are used for this evaluation» (PNEC)

«We cannot assess the impact of this if we do not realize what is an evaluation process. That is, we have to have some references» (PNEC)

«In this evaluation model, I have to realize that there are elements that are quantifiable, there are other elements that are not quantifiable but are measurable, and there are other elements that are not explicit. It's what I think often, the most important thing is what we designate as school culture» (PNEC)
«We have to have monitoring mechanisms that allows us some sustainability to evaluate (...) I cannot make an assessment on an impressionist remark» (PNEC)

«As time goes by we have been increasingly focused on students issues» (RTEIP)

«Nowadays the number of teachers integrated in TEIP program is much higher than the number of technicians, there was here a complete reversal (...) Nowadays, more and more, we are concerned with the success promotion. There is also here an image inversion, always pasted a picture of failure, are territories with a high failure rate, with a lot of indiscipline and this was systematically set to the brand TEIP» (RTEIP)

«A basic principle of operation of any model is that external evaluation should not be dissociated from the internal evaluation (...) any assessment, internal or external, have to be compared and cannot be done in a closed vessel» (PNEC)

In the other hand, there is a focus on the importance of efficiency and effectiveness and, in the opinion of these interviewees, to achieve that, is essential that schools develop an integrated and articulated work and define the aims and the results to accomplish in order to know what are the steps that they have to follow to succeed the desired improvement.

«Does not interest me to know what are the good schools or the bad schools, I want to know those who have culture to innovate, improve, rectify, that's what is important (...) I believe that schools can do many things but if they don't have good learning and good results its mission fails (...) and so, I have to have good results with good processes and above all, results that are contextualized, that is, I know that students are not equal. As I know that students are not equal my gain is to know that, despite the limitations they have, they can achieve a higher level than it would be estimable taking into account the social status and cultural capital they have. And so if I set that the evaluation objective is to trigger sustainable processes learning qualification (...) I think this is the most important. » (PNEC)

«That is, its effectiveness is reduced. I think that schools today are more concerned with academic results. Schools today have realized that is not enough to have good intentions, they want to have good results. I think this is positive. » (PNEC)

«There are many projects in schools (...) instead of having an integrated strategic vision of educational action, we have corseted interventions, not necessarily interconnected and articulated, which in turn contribute to a very large inefficiency and questionable effectiveness» (RTEIP)

«Any plan assumes that there is a preliminary assessment, making a diagnosis to know what are our starting problems, prioritize them, and from there define a action plan. In this sense we have here a key role for evaluation: I call it internal evaluation. Of course as the plan is developed, it is necessary to monitor and then be assessed the results of implementing this plan. And so we have here an improvement cycle» (RTEIP)

«In terms of TEIP program, one of the developments that I think that is very significant was the targets question (...) know where to go, in other words, set goals» (RTEIP)
Consequently, to achieve educational improvement, is fundamental the existence of good leaderships that know how to correctly mobilize the resources. In the same way, the actions must be focused in the decrease of school retention and to fight the stigmatized vision about TEIP program.

«There is a fundamental key: good leaders. And most of all have good leadership focused in the pedagogical area, that is, how am I going to improve learning, that is the great challenge (...) a leader is this, is the ability to mobilize the resources you have, to qualify the processes that have to better achieve the goals, he can set himself or the community to define, and so this is what leadership is» (PCNE)

«You can have external evaluation and have the principle of inclusion, have the principle of inclusion assured. Let's see one thing, schools ... I don't like the concept of inclusive education. Why? Because I think school is inclusive by nature (...) the school is the main powerful mechanism, if properly used, to face the social determinism» (PCNE)

«I consider that the emblem "TEIP schools" is stigmatizing. I ended up with it immediately. Kept the support measures, but ended with this emblem of "TEIP School." It is stigmatizing, teachers flee them, parents flee them, and even the poor people fleeing them. No poor like walking a poor little school, as they say» (PCNE)

«The evaluation, in its various forms, is always present, and should always be present, and we always advocate that. In fact, and this is reflected even in their own improvement plans, schools are defining their actions, however there is one that all schools should to have: an action on monitoring and evaluation of the plan itself. It is a matter of consistency. For example, one of the tools that is driven to support schools is the possibility they hire an outside expert» (RTEIP)

«At the TEIP program level, I think it is precisely a measure of social justice because it is not giving the same to everyone that we will be fairer because they are not all on the same starting point. Looking at the education system, for all of its organizational units, if I give the same to all organizational units I’m not promoting social justice because they are not all on the same starting point, do not deal all with the same kind of problems and challenge (...) TEIP program, as a measure of positive discrimination, helps to increase social justice» (RTEIP)

Finally, by these discourses it is possible to understand that to achieve quality educational policy schools must differentiate educational interventions and focus their actions on the prevention and collaborative work among teachers and school community.

«There is one thing that is important: we have to try to overcome this problem of retention. Retention is the main mechanism of social exclusion, it is not school exclusion is the exclusion from school leading to social exclusion» (PNEC)

«The whole external evaluation process is a process of induction over internal evaluation, you must adjust the internal evaluation to what is the assessment process, ie, it is the same thing as studying for an exam, schools also studying for an exam» (PNEC)

«Define clearly what the objectives (...) because you have to clearly define what are the priorities (...) Equity is allow everyone to have access to learning and if they are different allow that there are different
learning. This means what? I have to pick on the weakest students but have to also take on the strongest students. It is not? That's fair, is be able to give different solutions for different problems, that's my concern» (PNEC)

«A quality educational policy is outlines goals, or rather, sets goals, outline the goals and define appropriate strategies. And are those that as much as possible should be reported and discussed» (PNEC)

«In practice, sometimes the solution is very simple: to differentiate the type of interventions» (RTEIP)

«(...) when we were in an improvement plan, a report, ask you to do the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities for improvement identification, when we do that, deep down, we are making a parallel with what are the aim of the external evaluation. All school, when they are doing this exercise and who had the external evaluation recently, go there to seek information. One feeds the other» (RTEIP)

«In the SEE process schools have to make a development plan, an improvement plan. In TEIP program schools have an improvement plan. And then we have the educational project. And some schools, often refer to this ... this is a bit schizophrenic. But there is, this is the difficulty of seeing an integrated point of view, (...) schools should have the ability to integrate this» (RTEIP)

«The biggest challenge that these policies faced is to integrate the various measures and give them this approach to prevention. We cannot forget our responsibilities internationally assumed» (RTEIP)

Summing up, it appears that these speeches are focused on academic success and on learning qualification, where there is a central focus in the definition of results and goals to be achieved. Both interviewees mentioned that it is necessary to incorporate these aspects in their school culture and for that the leadership role is crucial. These speeches are centered on the need for efficiency and effectiveness of schools associated with principles of fairness and justice because, for them, these policies are compatible with equal opportunities being essential to fight school retention that is perceived as a form of school exclusion which consequently leads to social exclusion. There is too the recognition of parallelisms between the TEIP program and SEE program, given that the monitoring and evaluation processes are combined in many aspects.

The following image (figure 3) shows a scheme which sums the speeches collected:
Regarding the interviews collected on a TEIP school to the Headmaster, self-evaluation Coordinator and the TEIP program coordinator, through the definition of goals to be achieved, TEIP program implies a co-responsabilization of school community inducing improvement processes. Due to that, these interviewees feel the need for a more continuous SEE process and the support of an external element to facilitate the construction and execution of improvement plans.

«The self-evaluation process only began to have some consistency with the entry in TEIP program. We have to be accountable and as such we have to do self-evaluation (…) It’s like see ourselves in the mirror, usually we never have time to see ourselves in the mirror» (Schools headmaster interview).

«The main reasons [for integrating TEIP program] are related to advantages we have in terms of resources and also in terms of some guidance concerning what could be done here» (SE team coordinator).

«I think we are developing such a flexible curriculum that responds to all. I think it might be the best opinion, I do not see another way» (TEIP team coordinator).

«For me a fair curriculum is a curriculum that suits abilities and skills for all students» (Schools headmaster interview).

In this sense, and according to the headmasters and the coordinators, principles of justice and equity are associated with curriculum adaptation to students' needs and that’s a reason that also justify TEIP program.
5. Some Conclusions

Concerning the data collected we tried to answer the starting research questions. In this way, it is possible to conclude that there is still work to do to achieve the full inclusion of students. However, it seems to be a greater awareness and critical reflection about the actions that are required to implement student's inclusion, in particular the need of schools integrated and coordinated work.

To the interviewees these measures are perceived with positive effects for the promotion of social justice, either for combating school/grade retention or as positive discrimination. To the schools headmasters, it is recognized the positive effects on the performance of schools leaders actions and in the promotion of equity and curricular justice. Nevertheless, there is a need to strengthen the leaderships training, in order to implement a culture of formative evaluation as an instrument for change and maximize the relationships between SEE, self-evaluation and internal evaluation.

In sum, these policy measures have an impact and moderately positive effects on school everyday life and although constituted as two separate policies, they are interconnected in different aspects. It seems to be a strengthening of the idea of evaluation as a monitoring mechanism of educational and improvement plans and, for that, it is essential the support of an external element, a "critical friend", in the organizational and curricular development of schools.

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The reflection on cultural competency in Estonian national curricula for upper secondary school
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Estonia’s educational policy is reflected in the National Curriculum for upper secondary education (NC), where cultural competency is included as one of the main objectives. Almost ten years separate the ratifications of the two most recent versions of the NC in 2002 and 2011. Between these years, Estonia joined NATO and the EU, survived the economic recession and experienced important controversies between the Estonian and Russian linguistic communities during the Bronze Night in 2007.

The national curriculum always reflects a certain view of what a culturally competent citizen should know, do and be. Researchers (Westbury, 2007; Rosenmund 2006) have found that in the societal context, the discourse of curriculum addresses a specific social problem. In Estonia, culture has always been strongly linked to the language. As Estonia’s main minority language, Russian is actually spoken by a large number of people around the world, the Estonian language is considered as a means to grant the survival of a culture. The current NC stipulates that the upper secondary schools where Russian or another minority language is the language of instruction, 60% of the study process has to be held in Estonian. This means that the curricula aims to implement Content- and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), where culture is one of the core components in addition to content, communication and cognition. At the same time, the curriculum doesn't offer a separated CLIL programme. Researchers (Grandianetti, Langelloti, Ting, 2013) have expressed their concern that on the level of enacted curricula, the danger is that it can be interpreted just as “teaching in another language”. The author (Mänd, 2010) has studied the 2002 curriculum using a model designed by a French didactic, Christian Puren (2006). Puren sees cultural competency issues as a complex of different components: transcultural, which refers to values; metacultural, which is knowledge; intercultural, in representations; pluricultural, found in behaviour; and co-cultural, or cooperation. The present paper investigates the two versions of the Estonian NC in terms of to what extent the components of cultural competency are stressed out and how these components are distributed between the different chapters of the curriculum. The corpus of study includes the general guidelines and the competencies expected to be developed in the school system. The aims, content and outcomes of the two, at the moment, separated fields of Foreign Languages and Social Studies are analysed because they have become important in the CLIL. The study uses content analysis method inspired by discourse analysis, where language is considered to reflect themes that refer to certain components of cultural competency and therefore, cultural competency components are analysed in their respective categories. The expected results are that in comparison, the new NC aims to bring more attention on the pluricultural component whereas the study outcomes are hardly linked with the same objective, intercultural component being stressed out in the assessment of Foreign and Second language learning and the metacultural component in the outcomes of Social Studies.

Keywords: Educational policy, curriculum, cultural competency, pluriculturalism, foreign language teaching and learning
Introduction

Education has often been understood as something that prepares the future citizen. In the context of globalization processes, questions about the concept of citizenship, formerly firmly related to the nation are put to the test. Two major approaches to curriculum studies define the purposes of the Curriculum. On the one hand, there is the German Didaktik tradition which focuses on the development of the individual, and on the other, the Anglo-American curriculum tradition, where attention is brought to the assessment and the quality of instruction. In this paper, I will intend to argue that although the Estonian national curricula for upper secondary schools (2002 and 2011) contain the main elements of Anglo-American curriculum policy such as the objectives, methods, content and assessment guidelines (inspired by the Tyler’s rationale), they still refer to the elements of the Didaktik tradition, to the interplay between the individual and the world, where education means formation, perhaps even transformation, as argues Byram (2010). My focus is on the development of the meaning of the cultural competency in the two most recent Estonian national curricula (2002 and 2011).

A recent study on teacher’s views of curriculum policy (Erss, Mikser et al. 2014) demonstrated that a lot of Estonian teachers don’t feel involved into the curriculum policy making and are therefore alienated of its content. On the other side, researchers such as Westbury (2008), Sivesind and Karesheth (2010) underline that the curriculum policy reflects always what is happening in the society and is strongly influenced by globalization processes. Therefore the curriculum is a reflection of the demands of the society. The cultural aspect of globalization raises important questions about what should be the purposes of the curriculum in terms of cultural competency, as there are a lot of scholars i.e. Ball (2003), Hopmann (2003), Sivesind (2013) who alert for the constant attenuation of assessment and performativity in curriculum planning and are worried about the disappearance of the general purposes (not just objectives and outcomes) of education. As the cultural competency is considered as a key element of curriculum purposes, this article focuses on the question of what characterizes cultural competency in the national curricula.

Different Western countries, such as France, Italy and USA still struggle to find answers to the need to adapt to the cultural diversity within the society. Difficulties are often differently emphasized and are often driven from the current composition of the existing communities within a country. In Estonia, questions about quotas for the refugees demanded by European commission has been compared to the already perceived problems with Russian minorities, who usually have lived in Estonia during decades but often feel alienated from Estonian society. They originally were not refugees, but migrants. According to Statistics Estonia, 25% of Estonian population (1,3 million people) is from Russian origins, 5% from other origins and almost 1% of the population has an undefined citizenship in 2015. A recent report of the Estonian Ministry of Culture on integration in Estonia addresses concern that 19% of residents from foreign origins who have born in Estonia and who's parents are born in Estonia don’t hold Estonian citizenship. This is largely because Estonian citizenship is not granted by the birth to children whose parents are not Estonian citizens. There are also 6,5 % of residents who still carry the “grey passport”, issued after the collapse of the URSS to those who didn’t want to acquire nor Estonian or Russian citizenship.

One of the latest trends in curriculum making is the attempt to find possibilities to integrate different subject fields. The Content and Language Integrated Learning (here and after CLIL) has raised hopes to lighten the overburdened curricula. In Estonia, the CLIL could be considered as an integration project in schools where the language of instruction is mainly Russian. Therefore the curriculum bears important meaning for the development
of cultural competency. The Estonian Basic and Upper Secondary Schools Act as well as the National Curriculum for upper Secondary School currently in force (here and after NC2) define that 60% of the teaching and learning on the upper secondary level must be held in Estonian. This was not mentioned in the National Curriculum for Basic and Upper Secondary School derogated in 2002 (here and after NC 1). Still, there are no separated programs for CLIL classes.

Several political representatives of the Russian community in Estonia express their firm opposition to the educational reform efforts in terms of the prerogative of teaching in Estonian, considered as discriminative. Estonian is spoken by the majority of Estonians, but it is a language not very much known in other parts of the world. Russian is a mother tongue for approximately 30% of Estonian population and is spoken by a large number of people around the world. It is not surprising that Estonian language has been considered as a means to safeguard the culture. The NC2 explicitly aims to implement CLIL for Estonian as a foreign language. According to Eurydice study (2006), Estonian CLIL aims are specifically language-related. The status of Estonian language influences also the choice of subjects to be taught in Estonian on upper secondary level (social sciences, Estonian music and literature), compared to most of the countries in Europe. Estonian culture and language are strongly interlinked, the latter is often considered as a means to adapt students with a different mother tongue (mainly Russian) into Estonian society. The decision to teach 60% of the subjects on upper secondary level in Estonian could be a result of policy borrowing. Amos Paran (2013) has proposed an hypothesis that the CLIL implementation in many European countries has Finland’s successful use of this method as an example to follow. He argues that CLIL implementation is therefore not always a well thought through decision and often fails to take into consideration contextual factors that are crucial to a policy’s success. Such contextual factors can be for example the status of teacher education in a given country, the status of the language of instruction (minority or majority language, language spoken in the society or not), or the preparedness of the teaching staff to implement changes.

Although differences of opinion still exist, there appears to be some agreement that CLIL refers to the valorisation of content, cognition, communication and culture, the “4Cs” (Coyle, 2007, Mehisto, Marsh, Frigols et. al. 2008). Coyle (2007) defines effective CLIL as „a progression in knowledge, skills and understanding of the content, engagement in associated cognitive processing, interaction in the communicative context, the development of appropriate language knowledge and skills as well as the experience of a deepening intercultural awareness“. Cummins (as cited in Coyle, 2007, p. 551) explains that the “framework (of the “4C’s”) puts culture at the core and intercultural understanding pushes the boundaries towards alternative agendas such as transformative pedagogies, global citizenship, student voice and identity investment”. But although the culture is accentuated in these propositions, Coyle (2007) considers the interaction (mainly between the students) in the learning context as fundamental to learning. Therefore it seems to be the intercultural competency that is in the core of the CLIL method and in this paper, I would like to discuss how these propositions on culture that englobe such a vast combination of elements could be approached from a different angle. In this paper, the culture is not considered as something that could be separated from the other components of the CLIL but rather englobes them.

Many researchers in foreign language teaching and learning field such as Abdallah-Pretceille (2006), Byram (2010), Dervin (2009) and Puren (2002, 2006, 2014) have reflected upon the historical development of the concept of cultural competency and studied discourses in legislative documents and theoretical literature that explain those developments. Intercultural competency is one of the most emphasized at the moment but has been subject to
contradictory interpretations. Dervin (2009) argues that it has tendency of being too underestimated when reduced to communication and interaction as a mere sending and receiving of messages. On the other hand, it is difficult to grasp the whole signification of cultural education with a single denomination of “intercultural competency”, therefore Abdallah-Pretceille (2006) speaks of “culturality”: knowledge about otherness has to be completed with constant work on oneself. Byram (2010) argues that paying attention to multilingual and multicultural aspects of social interaction can “enrich education for citizenship and that in the best of all possibles worlds, the intercultural citizen is gebildet (reference to Bildung concept of citizenship), is a social agent active in a multicultural society, wheather “national-state” or international polity”. Byram is also positive about the perspective of implementing CLIL to gain these objectives.

Puren (2002) sees the cultural competency issues as a complex of different components. He has defined five of them in terms of how they have emerged in the context of language teaching and learning since 1900 in Western countries (Europe and North-America). First and foremost, there has always been a great importance given to the transcultural component, which refers to values. The values were once considered universal, or at least, universally applicable, which has arrived to a certain cultural pre-eminence of western countries over other cultures. Similarities can be found in the original ideas of Bildung, the german conception of the educational purpose to prepare a cultivated, cultured, well-read person. The need for a different approach in development of cultural competency was in the metacultural component, which is knowledge. The objective was to underline essential differences in the matter of how the foreign culture appears through the political, educational structure, geography or fine arts, which were mainly observed via texts. Therefore this component of cultural competency was developed mainly by activities which demand a complex of different cognitive activities, such as proposed by B. Bloom (1956): remembering, analysing, interpreting etc. With the growing possibilities to travel to foreign countries (in the 1970s, in Estonia in 1990s), the intercultural component appeared. The objective was to be able to talk with the native speaker in punctual situations, such as buying a bread at local grocery’s or reserving a train ticket. The main objective of cultural competence was to discover one’s representations of everyday practices of the foreigners and to change one’s behaviour accordingly. As the contacts with the “Other” did not always engage people only in punctual communication and interaction with foreigners, the pluricultural component appeared in the 1990s. Pluricultural component refers to living side by side with people from different cultural backgrounds and origins, with no actual obligation to interact with them: here, we speak about behaviour as the need to accept the “Other” as he or she is. Therefore, representations and behaviour are essentially inter-related: representation refers to personal beliefs (or beliefs shared with people from the same background) about cultural practices and the need to modify them in order to interact with those from other cultures, pluricultural refers to the taking account of different cultural practices and phenomena, that influence the behaviour of the “Other”. The co-cultural component, most recently emerged, refers to the conceptions of action. As the pluricultural, this component of cultural competency has an important role in the Common European Framework for Languages (here and after CEFR). This component sees the cooperation as a making of a common culture. Puren’s model is hence important for the present research as it defines the development of the concept of cultural competency in detail and gives opportunity to trace in the National Currícula the emerging components, such as pluri- and co-cultural (see table 9.).
Table 9: Christian Puren's model of cultural competency

It is important to notice that in Estonia, the Communicative approach emerged significantly later than in Western Europe and North-America. This is mainly due to the fact that until 1990s, Estonia was occupied by the Soviet Union and the possibilities of travelling, with some exceptions for people who had relatives in Western countries, were restricted to countries of the former URSS, where the main common language of interaction was Russian. In addition to the deficit of study materials in the 1990s (the textbooks from Soviet period were tainted with communist ideology so they had to be excluded from the study material), new innovative methodologies were discovered moderately after the Restoration of Independence in 1991.

Research questions

Prior research (Mänd, 2010) about the importance of cultural competency in the general guidelines and Foreign language field in the NC1 showed that the cultural competency doesn’t confine anymore with the traditional approach by knowledge and values but also indicates the importance of understanding representations, behaviour and cooperation. Nevertheless, the results of the analysis showed that as for the foreign languages subject field, the development of cultural competency combined meta- and intercultural aspects and little attention was attributed
to pluri- and co-cultural competency. Therefore further support was expected to be found in comparison of the NC1 and NC2. How has the meaning of cultural competency developed in the curricula in terms of the importance attributed to the pluri- and co-cultural components of cultural competency? What kind of changes can be observed between the two most recent Estonian curricula? What hypothesis could be elaborated in terms of the meaning that teachers in CLIL classes could attribute to the development of cultural competency?

**The method of analysis**

The corpus of study includes the general guidelines and the competencies expected to be developed in the school system; the aims, content and outcomes of the two, at the moment, separated fields of Foreign Languages and Social Studies are analysed because they have become important in the objective to implement CLIL in mainly Russian-speaking schools in Estonia. The study uses content analysis method inspired by discourse analysis, where language is considered to reflect themes that refer to certain components of cultural competency and therefore, cultural competency components are analysed in their respective categories. Laurence Bardin (2007) defines the notion of theme on a semantic level, thus the elements of the analyse have variable length. The recording unit was composed of utterances which contain a verb and was also defined in terms of verbalisation (refers to an actor), or nominalization (refers to a concept). In the case of nominalization, the record units which did not contain any verb, the semi-colon was replaced with “[means]” to distinguish the recording units. Then it was categorized according to the Puren’s model for cultural competency, presented above. The content of the compared sections was coded in http://www.qcamap.org software in order to create an exel fail with catagorisations. Then the file was reviewed and commented. Although this enables to describe the categories quantitatively, further reading from other researchers should be done to confirm the reliability of the conclusions. The sections of the curricula were compared with one another to find out in which categories of cultural competency they differ from one another and if there are any significant swifts in the importance of the pluri- and co-cultural components.

**Results**

The relatively similar structure of curriculum text permitted to compare what is the role of each cultural competency component within and in between the curricula. When it comes to values which refer to the transcultural component of cultural competency, they are important almost in each section of the curriculum except for the study outcomes of the foreign language subject field. In the Foreign languages study outcomes, only the section for Estonian as a foreign language in the NC2 states that the student “understands his place within the society”. Elsewhere, references to the transcultural component can be observed by numerous recording units that are introduced with verbs such as “feels, respects, values, follows, acknowledges”. Extra attention in the general guidelines of both curricula is brought to the need to ensure the preservence the Estonian culture. In the NC1 the need to “safeguard and develop Estonian nation and culture” is altered in the NC2 with the need to “safeguard and develop Estonian nation, language and culture” and also underlines that “therefore in the upper secondary school special attention is paid to teaching the Estonian language”. These particular recording units can be found as the introductive sentence of the NC1’s general aims, whereas the NC2 places them as the last recording units in the
“setting of goals” section. Introducing and concluding are considered as means to bring attention to certain elements of discourses. Although these statements apply to both, Estonian schools as well as schools with a partially different language of instruction, it demonstrates the aims of the Estonian integration policy and indicates in my view, the determination of Estonian culture through language. This modification most probably derives from an important change in the Estonian Constitution (1992): in 2007, a modification of the preamble was derogated in order to add “language” to the following sentence: “With unwavering faith and steadfast will to strengthen and develop the state (...) which must guarantee the preservation of the Estonian people, the Estonian language and the Estonian Culture (...) the people of Estonia (...) have adopted the following Constitution”). Similar attention to valuing local culture was observed by Karseth and Sivesind (2010) in the Norwegian Curricula: in the globalization context, the need to respect the cultural origins does not necessarily conflict with the differences between cultures because personal cultural heritage is considered as something to be appreciated and developed worldwide.

Both curricula point out the concern to assure that the student will have to avoid opinions which violate essential values, such as human dignity. This is explained thoroughly in the section of Social studies subject field. The NC1 phrases this through nominalisation and considers the possibility that the student could be holding unacceptable beliefs: “the beliefs which do not correspond to the general values can only be altered in individual and systematic work, guiding the student delicately [towards socially accepted beliefs]”. The NC2 on the contrary, verbalizes the study outcomes: “The student respects the individual, cultural differences and various viewpoints in case they do not demean human dignity”. Therefore the latter defines this transcultural component through the students’ exposure to opinions that could have a negative impact on his or her beliefs and signals the need to be more analytical and cautious while constructing opinions.

If the interest of the reader of the curricula would be in the understanding of the meaning of cultural competency as it is stated explicitly, then the performance of knowledge about cultural artefacts, general ethics and moral norms would define it especially in the NC1 and NC2’s first version, therefore referring to a combination of trans- and metacultural components. In the NC2, the value competency has been renamed as “value- and cultural competency” and the content of the first version of the NC2 has been completed with notions of pluricultural significance (“the capacity to value human, cultural and environmental diversity”).

Moving on to the role of the knowledge in the curriculum, the most important shift in the importance of the metacultural component, which refers to the capacity to inform and to be informed is observed in the general guidelines of the curriculum. While the NC1 gives a detailed description of information processing (the ability to understand, interpret, exchange, create texts) the NC2 is more general (refers to the ability to define the function of texts) and adds the ability to compose long- and short-term plans (entrepreneurship competency). Therefore the aims of the new curriculum stress out less individual capacities of knowledge processing. Karseth and Sivesind (2010) in their study on the Norwegian curriculum reform stated that the new conception of knowledge society should refer to the sharing of knowledge and its use rather than to simple acts of information processing.

The subject field of Estonian as a foreign language has also a section on cultural history in the NC1. This section emphasizes all elements of culture that represent cultural heritage, although specific artists are not designated. In Puren’s terms, “approach by the representative” (in Fr. l’approche par le représentatif) means that the artist is considered as the right person to sense the essence of his or her time and culture. in NC2 the culture is not
referred to as cultural history and is described as one of the general themes. Regardless of that, in both curricula it refers to trans- and metacultural components (in NC2, the sub-title of the section “Culture and creativity” is “Culture as creativity”), mainly because the content is described by notions.

The intercultural component is the most emphasized in the study results of the subject field of foreign languages. The recording units in both curricula are strongly marked with references to communication skills, for example the aim of teaching Estonian as a foreign language is that “the student will acquire the capacity to interact in different situations in Estonian language” (NC1), similar to the aim “the student acquires a level of language skills which allow him or her to communicate in oral and written production while following the respective cultural norms” (NC2).

Both curricula in the foreign languages sections refer to the need to privilege communicative methods in the teaching process, the NC1 describes study activities in the frame of „communicative cognitive action“, the NC2 refers to the communicative and active approach. Puren (2006) has proposed another definition of active approach, which is “active perspective” (in French perspective actionnelle). The task-based class activities do not grant, in his opinion, the real aims of the active approach, which in the CEFR, is “the formation of a social actor”. The reasons why the study outcomes indicate mainly to intercultural components are directly derivated from the need to assess the students individually. In the final evaluation, the student is individually responsible and therefore, assessment of team-work is probably less current in the study process.

One particularity of the Estonian curriculum is that the evaluation descriptions for each level of language proficiency are described almost as in the CEFR by referring to the understanding, writing and speaking skills (levels A1.1-C1), the Estonian version has separated grammar evaluation explications in addition to the 4 communicative skills. Two possibilities of interpretation for this decision could be concluded: firstly, the teachers in Estonia (i.e. by whom the curricula should be enacted) are more acquainted with traditional methodologies of language teaching, therefore the authors of the curriculum may be concerned that they do not see the language skills (reading, writing, listening and oral and written production) in the context of language structures. Another way of interpreting this decision to keep the grammar description in the curriculum is maybe a certain vigilance towards the Communicative approach, which for its fascination for speaking skills and the excessive use of dialogues as a learning material has been criticized for not granting sufficient knowledge of language structures. Content-wise, the decision to keep the grammar in the curriculum refers to the need of to focus on texts (mostly reading) which are presumed to grant opportunities to analyze the structures. This is observable also as the reading skills are assessed with the highest number of credit points (30/100) for the obligatory foreign language state exams, compared to oral expression, which gives a maximum of 20 credit points. This differs from the Estonian language proficiency exams, where the maximum for each communicative skill gives 25% of the final result. In terms of assessment, foreign languages field is assessed as an obligatory state exam in Estonia. The social sciences subjects, which until 2013 were optional state exams, are not longer state-wide exams. Hence the study outcomes for social subjects’ field are much less performativity-oriented than for foreign language field and therefore, these sections of the two curricula do not refer to the intercultural component.

Important shift in the attention to the pluri- and co-cultural components can be observed in the NC2. These components of the cultural competency are quite balanced in the NC2, while in NC1 the pluricultural emerges on the second place after the metacultural and the co-cultural is the least important of all five components. The co-cultural appears mainly in the NC2’s sections for “social and civic competence” and “entrepreneurship
competence”. Verbs of active nature are used to explain these competencies, but they are more often mentioned in the NC2, for example “social and civic competence [means] doing constructive team-work”, “social- and civic competence [means] supporting actively the democratic developments of the society” and “the entrepreneurship competency [means] the capacity to organize and participate in joint activities” and brings in the perspective that the student will be working together with others from his or her age group who have “the same understanding of things”. Therefore it brings in the idea of the possibility to cooperate with others outside the classroom, but in condition of sharing common concerns. In the NC1 on the contrary, the only record units that refer to the co-cultural are “action competency [means] co-operation skills” and “social competency [means] the capacity to support democratic developments in the society”. The emergence of the co- and pluricultural components is a tendency that describes, as argues Meyer (2006), based on an analysis on several countries (cited in Karseth, Sivesind 2010, p. 104), that there is a worldwide trend of how the education should prepare not just a future citizen, but also a member of human society as a whole.

The NC1 is less focused on the pluricultural component because multiple interpretations are possible when the curriculum section for Estonian as a foreign language states: “The student defines his or her relationship with the surrounding life- and cultural environment. Acquired knowledge and immediate participation in the social and cultural environment are the prerequisites to adapt easily and without complications to Estonian society”. In this section, NC1 seems to reflect a paradigm that if the public sphere is mostly relevant to dominant culture then the student must adapt his or her behaviour according to the cultural norms of the country he or she lives in and keep the customs and behaviour of personal culture to private life. It is equally difficult to say whether the “immediate participation” has been interpreted as a way to cooperate (co-cultural component) or just to participate in cultural events, such as going to theatres, cinema, music events, which would point to the metacultural component. In contrast, the NC2 seeks to give a more accurate definition of pluriculturalism and often cites the Common European Framework for Languages (CEFR: 2001: 6)

“Plurality [Plurilinguism] has itself to be seen in the context of pluriculturalism. Language is not only a major aspect of culture, but also a means of access to cultural manifestations (...). In a person’s cultural competence, the various cultures (national, regional, social) to which that person has gained access do not simply co-exist side by side, they are compared, contrasted and actively interact to produce an enriched, integrated pluricultural competence, of which plurilingual competence is one component”.

Although the citation is slightly inaccurate, the references to CEFR brings forward the pluricultural competency in the NC2 compared to the NC1, where this component has not gained much attention and never refers to it as “pluriculturalism” or “multiculturalism”.

Moving on to the section of history as a subject field for upper secondary school, both curricula emphasize the necessity to develop through the learning process the capacity to create one’s own opinion of events and phenomenon whilst enriching one’s “system of values”. This section could be interpreted as a combination of trans-, meta- and pluricultural components with emphasis to the individual path that is characteristic of pluricultural component. But the approach adapted by the new curriculum differs in terms of attention given to the pluricultural component. While in the NC1 there are no references to diversity of cultures, cultural practices and opinions, the NC2 indicates various objectives that explicitly refer to the pluricultural competency, for example the need to “understand that diversity is to be considered as a value and condition of development of any society”. Both
curricula sections on history have not elaborated aspects of co-cultural competency, although in the NC1, the recording unit “understands contemporary society’s problems, feels responsible to resolve them” could refer to the co-cultural (feeling responsible should lead to action). It could be argued that acknowledging doesn’t always lead to acting together. Individual actions rarely lead to important changes; it is the collective ones that count as a result of a co-cultural competency.

The transcultural component has a lot in common with the co-cultural component: its key concept is “values”. The main difference is that the first is the minimum of prerequisite for the development of the second, which aims for the creation of a common culture. This aspect brings out the complexity of the co-cultural component, which cannot be developed by itself but always by looking for support from other components of the cultural competency: having some generally accepted common values to start with, negotiating knowledge, acknowledging representations and attitudes are all necessary to make teamwork not just effective for one single task, but to give it a long-standing perspective. The entrepreneurship competency of NC2 in comparison to the NC1 sees the students as actors in social context, whereas the “action competency” of the NC1 mainly refers to the student’s competency of making the right individual choices. Therefore the findings for the references to Puren’s cultural competency model are much more balanced and complex in the NC2’s general aims and differ a lot in terms of the consideration for the metacultural (most important in the NC1) and co-cultural (most important in the NC2) component of cultural competency.

The social studies subject field was chosen for the analysis to find out what idea of cultural competency these subjects as subjects that should mainly grant the CLIL implementation in Estonia offer. Both curricula focus here on the metacultural competency which is expressed in recording units that describe the skills related to document and content study, meaning that the student will begin to understand the surrounding world and see the connexions between the past and the present as well as between the past events. My first assumption about the significant difference in terms of pluricultural competence in the NC2’s social studies subject field description was refuted as it is the transcultural component that has taken a more important role in the NC2 than in the NC1. This might also be related to the co-cultural component, which is also slightly more important in the NC2 than in the NC1: being a „kindered spirit” to others is a prerequisite for working together. The team-work is perceived as a work in action: “the cooperation skills are learned [in school]”. Similar observation can be done for the content of the sections for civic education. The metacultural is the most important component in the NC1, as recording units constantly refer to knowledge-processing and abilities to manipulate different textual resources (medias and other, as well as the capacity to apply methods of research and use accurate terminology). They are also numerous in the NC2, nevertheless the latter brings out more explicit references to the pluricultural and transcultural component which are moderate in number in the NC1. The references to the knowledge about legislative texts in the NC1 are elaborated in the NC2 to emphasise the central values of these documents, such as “respect for democratic principles”, “understanding Human Rights” and “acknowledging his or her rights and responsibilities as a citizen”.

Erss, Mikser et. al (2014) pointed out in their research on Estonian teachers’ views on curriculum policy that most of them do not feel involved in curriculum making and criticize the detachment of the curriculum general guidelines from the subject field programmes. From one point of view, it could be partially true if the focus of the reader of the curriculum is on the study outcomes of the latter, where it is difficult to trace the educational purposes other than those which refer to knowledge processing and interaction skills. But on the other hand, efforts have been made as an explanation of the general competencies in respect to each subject field has been incorporated to the NC2.
Conclusion

It is almost certain that the general change in the concept of cultural competency in the curricula derives from the attention brought on the meta- and pluricultural components. While in the NC1, the student is an individual who relates to the knowledge he or she has acquired (refers to the metacultural), the NC2 brings attention to the co-construction of the knowledge (pluricultural, co-cultural). The pluricultural component has gained importance in the general description of foreign languages in the NC2, though similarly to the NC1, the communication (the intercultural component) is still underlined as the main element of studying languages and is important in study outcomes, while it has no bearing in the social studies subjects. Surprisingly, it is the transcultural component that has gained importance for the social subjects’ field, as well as in descriptions of separated subject descriptions for history and civic education, whereas in the NC1 this component was the least important.

The co-cultural component appears more often in the description of the social studies subject field of the NC2, but at the same time, it is less present in the study results. Although the CN1 refers to the need to assure civic engagement, the attention is brought to the individual path of the learner and therefore, it is more likely that competences evaluated through the school education tend to be mostly individual.

The results of the analysis, which are to be considered with caution, open up some important themes. As the schools only recently (in 2014) had to bring learning activities and learning environment into conformity with the NC2, it is likely that teachers could still hold practices that depart from the NC1. Therefore it is too early to speak of the NC2 as an enacted curriculum, especially as the teachers do not feel involved in the making of the curriculum (Erss, Mikser et. al 2014). From the viewpoint of the intended new curriculum and the CLIL’s importance for Estonia as an integration project, it would be interesting to know if and how the teachers would embrace the emerging pluricultural competency and if the practicing teachers might be overly attentive to one of the core components that are presented in CLIL model (the 4 C’s). It could be that CLIL teachers with foreign language teacher’s background attribute more attention to the communication skills, which refers to the intercultural component and the teachers of social subjects would focus on content, which refers to the metacultural component.

These findings suggest several courses of action for the implementation of a more comprehensive subject field curriculum sections. The challenge now is to create a joint curriculum for CLIL subjects. A policy priority should also be to fill the gap between the outcomes and the general purposes of the curriculum, which, as cultural competency concerned, are the most ambiguous in terms of the meaning of pluri- and co-cultural competency.

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The teaching of mathematics and the external evaluation of schools: A study involving teachers from 1st to 6th grade  

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The processes and practices of Portuguese education and training are becoming increasingly integrated in agendas globally structured, and whose area of influence is placed in the common frame of European Union policies and transnational organisms such as OCDE (Pacheco, 2009). Evaluation has been acquiring, in the last decades, a critical role, extrapolating its importance beyond the field of education (Afonso, 2010). The emphasis given to schools evaluation derives from two trends that affect most European countries: the decentralization of means and the creation of national goals and of levels of school results (Eurydice, 2011).  

Departing from the political and economic analysis of globalization on education and making a critical approach to the policies of sharing (Takayama, 2008), it is aimed to analyze the mediation of the pressure applied by curricula policies of homogenization and standardization of results (Afonso, 2012; Santiago, Donaldson, Looney & Nusche,2012) and their influence on teachers of Mathematics.

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This quantitative study, involves a questionnaire survey to teachers from 1st to 6th grade and primary teachers, in which it is ascertained how the model of external evaluation, implemented in Portugal since 2006, has been contributing to the creation of concrete consequences in school results, namely on the standards of evaluation, and on the dominance of summative tests in Mathematics, taking in account the curricular changes and teaching changes.

**Keywords:** Curricula, Mathematics, Exams, Quality, Standards, Accountability.

1. Introduction

Evaluation is projected by diverse eyes and interfaces, by concomitant paradigms, models and theories, by differentiated practices which bear new meanings and questions (Pacheco, 2011, p.3). Standing out as a system capable of boosting a new identity, assessment is a technique of biopower, or subjugation in the sense that Foucault (2013) gives to education and health policies, thus contributing to the existence of fear “in a context where short term pressures are increasing, individuals live with the fear of constant assessment and of being unable to live up to the company’s expectations” (Lipovetsky & Serroy, 2010, p.46).

In contemporary societies (Pacheco, 2011, p.9 quoting Gil, 2009) evaluation is pointed out as a universal method to form identities which are essential to modernization, extreme competence, and clarification of subjectivity as evaluation will give and will measure both reward and merit (Ibid).

Curricula and learning while seen as a way to knowledge lead evaluation to be centered on knowledge, even if it takes in account the historical background of education and training policies, thus the evaluation practices are centered on the contents, on the specific goals, and on activities and professional skills (DeKetele, 2008).

Evaluation no longer has a summative or formative component and becomes an unfinished flexible and itinerant project, answering in a more direct way to an evaluation based on standards (Stake, 2006), valuing mainly the personal dimension and the social dimension – the evaluation by the other (Pacheco, 2011).

In the last decades Portugal has seen the expansion of the teaching system and mass education, which not only led to a growing worry about quality and evaluation issues (OCDE, EU, UNESCO), but also to an increase of deeper systems of accountability and liability, which has a notorious impact on the creation of national education policies (IGE, 2009).

For these reasons, the basic principles of national legislation recommend that evaluation and quality control should be applied to the whole education system, including private and cooperative system, as well as promote the improvement, efficiency and effectiveness, along with qualified information for decision making. Therefore, schools’ autonomy is related to liability, accountability and with external evaluation results (IGE, 2013).

The presentation of external or internal evaluation results always has consequences or effects which may contribute to improve the quality or, on the contrary, to demotivate professionals, mainly those who stand for a constructivist approach. This approach redefines the development of quality and evaluation, putting them at the
service of a decentralized and professionalized service, in which schools accept that the results of their self-evaluation can be questioned by the results of external evaluation (Thurler, 1998).

The processes and practices of Portuguese education and training are increasingly integrated in globally structured agendas, and their area of influence is placed in the common frame of European Union policies and transnational bodies such as OCDE (Pacheco, 2009).

Departing from the political and economic analysis of globalization on education and making a critical approach to the policies of sharing (Takayama, 2013), it is aimed to analyze the mediation of the pressure applied by curricula policies of homogenization and standardization of results (Afonso, 2012, Santiago & Donaldson, 2012) and their influence on the role of local players, namely the teachers of Mathematics.

Evaluation has been acquiring, in the last decades, a critical role, extrapolating its importance beyond the field of education (Afonso, 2010). The emphasis given to schools’ evaluation derives from two trends that affect most European countries: the decentralization of means and the creation of national goals and of levels of school results (Eurydice, 2011).

In Portugal, during the 90’s, schools were under Central Administration and were evaluated as organizational units. Then, this model evolved toward the decentralization of public administration and toward an increase of the autonomy given to schools, which came to show their critical value.

The foundations necessary for the birth of several initiatives both of external evaluation and schools’ self-evaluation were created (Climaco, 2010). The Observatory for School Quality (1992), and later the Project Quality XXI, the Project of Integrated Evaluation in Schools (1999), and the Program AVES (2000) carried by Manuel Leão Foundation are good examples of such initiatives.

In these initiatives, the influence of efficient schools, which raised so much interest amongst political education authorities and education actors, is very noticeable (Lima, 2008).


A double evaluation is advocated now – external evaluation and self-evaluation. These two types of evaluation are often pointed out as having opposite lines of thought – self-evaluation heading towards organizational development and external evaluation focusing more on accountability – despite the complementarity aims that the two might have for attaining higher and better levels of school performances (Ministry of Education, 2006).

Deriving from the above mentioned law and from a pilot experience taken place in 2006, a program for External Evaluation of Schools was implemented in Portugal, under the purview of GIES (General Inspectorate of Education and Science), whose first evaluation cycle was finished in 2011.

Amongst the countries within OCDE, schools’ evaluation tends to be considered as a “generator of change, as it contributes to decision making in the teaching system, to the distribution of resources and to an improvement of school learning (Santiago, 2010). According to this author, this tendency is mainly due to greater autonomy granted to schools, which, in most of the cases, explains a higher emphasis on accountability, along with a higher importance attributed to “market mechanisms as a form of accountability” (Idem, 2010, p. 29).
Therefore, the system of accountability entails relations and interdependencies, in which evaluation, accountability and liability are included, also taking into consideration principles such as justice, transparency and the right to information (Afonso, 2011).

Great accountability improves the present as it shapes the future. It invests in, grows and circulates professional capital throughout the system. Combine internal and external accountability, and we will get higher performance, greater self and group responsibility for results, and more commitment to sustaining and enhancing all students’ learning, development and success (Fullan, Rincon-Gallardo & Hargreaves, 2015, p. 14-15).

The schools’ academic performance of students in mathematics is currently evaluated through two big international surveys: the TIMSS and the PISA (Eurydice, 2011). Generally speaking, the TIMSS aims to evaluate “what the students know”, whereas the PISA tries to ascertain “what the students can do with the acquired knowledge”. The collected data has three aspects: the expressed curriculum defined by a country or education system, the implemented curriculum which teachers actually teach, and the acquired curriculum, or what students have learnt (Mullis, Martin & Fo, 2008, p. 25). The PISA isn’t directly focused on a specific aspect of the curriculum; instead it attempts to evaluate how 15-year-old students can apply their math knowledge in everyday life, thus giving emphasis to math literacy.

The results of these studies have become increasingly important throughout the years, to the extent of causing deep changes in the world education policies. This is an impressive fact, since the comparison between Systems of Education through the means of rankings and their interpretation is leading to educational policies defined in a normative mode (Bulle, 2011, p.503).

In this perspective, the participant countries are invited to compete against each other in order to redefine their educational systems based on the results obtained (Idem, p.503).

One of the indicators that attracts public interest the most is the relative rank of the average tests results in every country, creating pressure so that teaching practices of countries with better performance levels are adopted by all countries (Steiner-Khamsi, 2004; Takayama, 2013).

Mathematics as a subject has been gaining an increasingly significant role in the students’ education, since it improves skills and competences, such as problem solving, argumentative skills, formulation and test of hypothesis, communication skills and accuracy of observation, which are critical matters that will facilitate inclusion as well as personal and professional success in an increasingly competitive world (NCTM, 2007; Roth & Radford, 2011). Hence:

“In a world of permanent changes, those who understand and succeed in learning mathematics will significantly have bigger opportunities and better options to build their future. Competence in mathematics opens doors to more productive futures. The lack of this competence keeps these doors closed... All students should have the opportunity and the needed support to learn significant mathematics with deepness and understanding. There is not a conflict between equity and excellence” (NCTM, 2000, p.50).

In most European countries the curricula of mathematics presents itself as a formal document of a normative nature, which specifies the topics to be learnt and describes study programs and their contents, as well as
teaching, learning and evaluation materials that should be used (Kelly, 2009). One of the chief goals of teaching reforms is the improvement of education patterns and, consequently, of students’ academic performance.

One of the main reasons underlying the most recent updates was the inclusion of an approach based on learning results, defined in broad terms as the knowledge and competences needed to prepare a young person for a life of personal, social and professional well-being (Psifidou, 2009). The curricula based on learning results focuses on the learning processes and aims to be more broadening and flexible than the traditional subject based curricula.

The use of learning results on the curricula can also be related to the new concepts of ruling and managing quality. Some people believe that the creation of regulations based on learning results is a way of assuring quality in teaching, and thus conferring more autonomy to schools and teachers to build learning programs that will respond to their students’ needs (Cedefop, 2008).

In Portugal, after the changes introduced to the curriculum in 2008, the present program became more explicit in what concerns the students’ expected performance in each mathematical issue and in the cross curricular competences related to this subject (Eurydice, 2011).

Most European countries are trying to assess the effectiveness of the implementation of curriculum using different means, but curriculum effectiveness is mainly assessed through the national evaluation of students. In almost every educational system, standard tests and national examinations take place, one of their aims being to evaluate curriculum effectiveness (Eurydice, 2011).

There aren’t many specific surveys about the way a curriculum is taught in each school, but usually this type of information is collected under the general framework of external evaluation of schools. However, the results of schools’ self-evaluation are the second source of data more commonly used by countries to assess the effectiveness of their curricula (Idem, 2011)

2. Method

An empirical quantitative study was carried out (Moreira, 2006), departing from the conclusions obtained through the analysis of reports and from the revision of topic-related literature also using a survey by questionnaire (Tuckman, 1994; Ghiglione & Matalon, 1997), developed with items distributed by Likert scale, targeting math teachers from first to sixth grades of primary education from schools in a Municipality in the north of Portugal, whose reliability was tested by another empirical study (Marques, 2013).

The sample (n=51) was randomly selected from schools ranging from Primary and Elementary Education (1st to 6th forms) from a school grouping in the north of Portugal, in which most respondents are female (92%) and the rest are male (8%). The majority of the respondents’ ages in the age range from 30 to 45 years old (45%), followed by respondents over 45 years old (37%), and those under 30 there represent only 17%. Most of them possess a university degree (86%), and the rest of them have a master’s degree (14%). Regarding the subject group, Elementary (5th and 6th forms) is the predominant one (65%), and the others belong to Primary School (35%). Concerning the number of years of service, the majority have between 11 and 20 years (45%), followed by those with more than 20 years (28%), and finally those with more than 10 years (27%).
3. Preliminary Results

The results of the survey are organized in two tables, in descending order of mean obtained in the following areas: Curricular changes (table 10) and Teaching Changes (table 11).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The results obtained by students on national tests contribute to the construction of the school social image.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>0.635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National math tests should take place in the end of each studies cycle (4th, 6th and 9th grades).</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>0.976</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Mathematics Plan contributes for a larger teaching cooperation among teachers.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>0.622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The creation of rankings enhances competitiveness amongst schools.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>0.702</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curricular goals correspond to final goals.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.855</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curricular goals define the contents that students should learn.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>0.787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The schools with the best results in math should be an exemple of good teaching practice for other schools.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>0.969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External evaluation of schools has contributed to a better curricular articulation among school departments.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The formation of rankings helps competitiveness among teachers of subjects with national examinations, including math.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National examinations have contributed to the creation of a yearly math common global test, for every class belonging to the same school grade.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>0.713</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The evaluation of students trough national examinations creates in the teachers the fear of professional failure.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>0.702</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National examinations have contributed to the creation of equal tests for all classes belonging to the same school grade.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>0.635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The results of international examinations (PISA, TIMSS, for example) contribute to a bigger importance of math in the curricular plans of Primary Teaching.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>0.589</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External evaluation of schools has contributed to the creation of a yearly math common global test, for every class belonging to the same school grade.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>0.572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support lessons should only be provided for students who do not present a significant deficit in their learnings.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ evaluation through national examinations has helped me improve my practice as a teacher.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>0.758</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate tests an effective management tool to improve students’ results.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>0.857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students from primary education give more value to math due to the existence of national examinations in the end of the cycle of studies.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>1.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External evaluation of schools has contributed the creation of equal tests for all classes belonging to the same school grade.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>0.640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test-based students’ evaluation contributes to the individualization of the teacher’s work.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>0.922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Mathematics Plan contributes to the improvement of math school results of students from primary education.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.860</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As a math teacher I feel responsible for my students’ results in national examinations. & 1 & 4 & 3.22 & 1.026  
I feel comfortable with the existence of a test-based students’ evaluation. & 1 & 5 & 3.12 & 0.973  
The curricular goals replace the program. & 1 & 4 & 2.25 & 1.055

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homework contributes to the improvement in student’s school results in math.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>0.575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a math teacher I feel pressured to teach my students to be prepared for national examinations.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>0.723</td>
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<tr>
<td>School teaching support lessons for students should be directed for the subjects with national examinations.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.24</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching for tests results contributes to an improvement in the students’ school results.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math teachers are increasingly teaching for the results in national examinations.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The student is the main responsible for his school performance.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a math teacher I feel responsible for the results that my students get on the internal evaluation during the school year.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>0.767</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The social and economic background is the main responsible for the students’ performance.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>1.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The marks obtained in intermediate tests should be included in the students’ final evaluation for the internal evaluation.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.616</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External evaluation of schools has contributed to a bigger cooperation among math teachers in the classroom teaching activity planning (preparing materials…)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External evaluation of schools has contributed to the creation of a yearly math common global test, for every class belonging to the same school grade.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>0.702</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External evaluation of schools has contributed to a bigger cooperation among math teachers in the creation of tools of internal evaluation, including correction and marks criteria.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>0.833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External evaluation of schools has contributed to a bigger cooperation among math teachers in the preparation of teaching contents (defining sequences, strategy …).</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.673</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External evaluation of schools has contributed to a bigger cooperation among math teachers in lesson planning.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>0.755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support lessons should only be provided for students who do not present a significant deficit in their learnings.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>0.849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers are the most important factor in the students’ performance.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>0.964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a math teacher I still teach the same way as before, regardless of national examinations.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>0.905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summative tests results must be the most influential component in the students’ evaluation.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>1.249</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: Curricular changes
As a math teacher I still teach the same way as before, regardless of external evaluation of schools. & 2 & 4 & 2.86 & 0.825  
Test-based students’ evaluation contributes to the objectivity in the evaluation. & 1 & 5 & 2.86 & 1.184  
As a math teacher I value more the summative evaluation than the formative one in the final evaluation of students. & 1 & 4 & 2.63 & 1.095  
Math results on national examinations are a reflection of the students’ actual learning. & 1 & 4 & 2.22 & 0.923  

Table 11: Teaching changes

By analyzing the questions related to the topic of curricular changes (table 1), some specific conclusions may be drawn: the respondents agree on the following ideas: the school results that students achieve in national examinations have an influence on the schools’ social image (X=4.39; D.P.=0.635); national examinations of mathematics should happen at the end of each cycle of studies (X=4.35; D.P.=0.976); the Mathematics Plan contributes to a higher level of teaching cooperation among teachers (X=4.33; D.P.=0.622); the creation of rankings contributes to competitiveness among schools (X=4.22; D.P.=0.702); curricular goals correspond to final goals (X=4.10; D.P.=0.855), and curricular goals set the contents that students should be learning (X=4.01; D.P.=0.787).

In what Teaching Changes are concerned (table 2), the results show that the respondents agree on the following ideas: homework contributes to the improvement in student's school results in math (X=4.43; D.P.=0.575); math teachers feel pressured to teach for national examinations (X=4.27; D.P.=0.723); support lessons in schools should be directed for the subjects that have a national examination (X=4.24; D.P.=0.473); teaching with the purpose of preparing the students for tests contributes to an improvement of school results (X=3.94; D.P.=0.858); math teachers are increasingly teaching to prepare their students for national examinations (X=3.90; D.P.=0.922); the student is the main responsible for his/her school performance (X=3.90; D.P.=0.922), and math teachers feel responsible for the results that their students get on the internal evaluation during the school year (X=3.82; D.P.=0.767).

The respondents’ indecision on the evaluation, which was calculated through the correlation coefficient, can be seen on the effects of summative evaluation on the students’ final school marks, as well as on the objectivity of a test-based evaluation.

4. Conclusions

The respondents of this study, math teachers from 1st to 6th grade, show agreement on the effects the external evaluation has on their practice and also that the achievements outlined on the reports of external evaluation are rhetorical, although they agree to the fact that external evaluation is giving an important contribution to the teaching directed towards tests as well as to the standardization of results. The idea that the results obtained on National Examinations along with the existence of rankings contribute to competitiveness among schools can be seen on the results of this survey; however, there is higher agreement around the idea that the results on math national examinations may not be a reflection of the actual learning done by students, or that their influence may cause an increase of competition among teachers.
The concept of objectivity of a test-based evaluation is a source of large uncertainty by the respondents, who answered in very contradictory ways.

The majority of the respondents admit that there is pressure to teach for national examinations, that the support lessons should be directed for subjects with national examinations, that the students are the main responsible for their school performance, and that teaching for tests contributes to an improvement in school results.

Nevertheless, there is indecision about the idea that curricular goals are a replacement for the program, which can be seen through a very diverse range of answers. Also, there is no agreement on how comfortable teachers are with a test-based evaluation of their students, and that they are responsible for the results of their students on national examinations.

In the study final results, some issues should be addressed: what purpose may examinations have at the end of a cycle, if they do not reflect the actual learning of students? What is their influence on the quality of learning as well as on the actual teaching practice?

References


Legislation


Curriculum making in the Municipal Schools of Petrópolis: Arena of conflicts, resistance and recontextualisation

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Ramos, Rosane Karl (rokarl35@yahoo.com.br); Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

In order to comply with the educational needs present in the Brazilian federal Law number 9.394/96, such as the broadening of mandatory Basic Education to nine years and assessment issues, the Municipal Secretariat of Education of Petrópolis (Rio de Janeiro State, Brazil) organized, all along the year 2014, meetings, seminars and working sessions with school coordinators and teachers, with the specific objective to reform the official school curriculum for the five initial years (1st to 5th years). Fortnightly meetings and/or working sessions were held during 2014 so as to deepen and discuss issues pertaining curriculum, like curriculum structure, pedagogical aims and strategies, and, particularly, selection of contents to update the official curriculum that would be implemented in 2015. This paper presents a synthesis and analyses the results of these meetings and working sessions, which were observed by one of the writers. The main objective of this paper is to understand how the State, represented by the Secretariat of Education staff, acts as a "recontextualising agent" (BERNSTEIN, 1985), and the educational professionals, on the other hand, recontextualise educational policies in their everyday practice in their schools and classrooms (BALL, 2013). We adopted a qualitative approach, using as research instruments observation, interviews and documental/textual analysis. During the process, it could be observed a series of different interests, positions, and conflicts amongst the participants, which contributed to some criticism and to an attitude of suspicion towards the real effectiveness of the final document. One of the main results we had after the analysis is that the final document – which has recently been officially implemented -, despite having been created in an apparent democratic atmosphere, is still object to discontentment and criticism by the larger group of teachers that do have to “enact” it in their everyday working places. The document faces resistance and critics, which may endanger its own implementation and validity, since, as Pacheco (2002) writes, “consensus is something of a fiction, or (...) [it] just occurs among actors who act in accordance with their own interests”.

Introduction

The first Brazilian Law of Directives and Basis for National Education, number 4.024/61, was sanctioned on December 20th, 1961 according to the project of the Ministry of Education of the time, Clemente Mariani. This Law was changed by amendments and articles, and it was reformulated by the Laws 5.540/68, 5.692/71 and, at last, it has been substituted for the Law number 9.394/96 on December 20th, 1996, which has been used as the Directives and Basis for National Education (CERQUEIRA et al, s/d, p. 2).

The Article 2 of the Law 9.394/96 establishes that education is both a family and a State responsibility, and that education aims to fully develop the person, so that he/she may be well prepared for citizenship and well qualified for his/her future work career. According to this Law, Articles 11 and 12, it is the municipal responsibility to organize, maintain and develop its official institutions and organizations of its educational system, and each educational premises will have the obligation to plan and execute their pedagogical proposals.

The municipal government of Petrópolis, Rio de Janeiro State, Brazil, launched in 2014 the document “Petrópolis Curricular Reference/Curricular Proposal”, planned to “support the work done at public municipal schools, to
contribute to the improvement in the quality of learning of their students, and to support the professionals that belong to the municipal educational network so that they can get even better” (PETRÓPOLIS, 2014, p. 5). In order to “comply with the Law 9.394/96 [and subsequent regulations] and with other Brazilian official documents” (idem), the current government of Petrópolis has tried to find means to adapt its regulations to the Federal laws, especially in relation to the curricular orientations to the municipal schools.

The main tenets of the Curricular Proposal are: the learning school; curriculum as cultural space; competencies as learning axis; the priority of the reading and writing competencies over the other skills; the contextualization with the labour market. (PETRÓPOLIS, 2014, p. 9).

The Proposal had its beginning with a seminar directed to school principals, coordinators, inspectors, members of the Education Municipal Council and teachers from the study group “Pro-Curriculum”. This seminar was organized by the Municipal Secretariat of Education and had as its sequence fortnightly meetings with the study group teachers and school coordinators, under the supervision of the Secretariat’s staff.

This paper presents a brief synthesis of such meetings, which were observed by one of the authors during the year 2014, and analyses their results so far.

Our main objective is to understand how the State, represented by the Secretariat of Education staff, has tried to act as a “recontextualizing agent” (BERNSTEIN, 1985) in this discussion and (re) elaboration of the official curricular proposal of Petrópolis, while the education professionals recontextualize educational policies in their daily practice in their classrooms (BALL, 2013). In such arena of conflicts between powers and positions, roles and ideologies, emerges the new curricular proposal, which intends to fill in the gaps in the educational system of the town, but which maybe has not reached this target.

We adopted a qualitative approach for this paper, using as research instruments observation, interviews and documental/textual analysis. During the process of development of the Proposal, a series of opposing interests, positions and conflicts among the participants could be observed, which has contributed to criticism from the participants themselves and some degree of distrustfulness concerning the real effectiveness of the final document.

This paper is divided in: introduction; discussion of theoretical aspects in the relation between educational policies and curriculum; presentation of the synthesis of the observations and extracts of a few interviews; the presentation of the new Proposal and some reactions to it; and our conclusions.

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3 Although it is stated in the referred document, the only federal official text presented in the references section is: “Brasil. Secretaria de Educação Fundamental. Parâmetros curriculares nacionais: Ciências Humanas/ Secretaria de Educação Fundamental. Brasilia: MEC/SEF, 136p. 1997”.

4 It is worth noticing that all the professionals involved were women. According to Ball (2003, p. 227) “The gendered nature of educational reform and of performative technologies and its encounters with a gendered teacher professionalism and discourses of commitment and care needs further attention”.

5 This paper has used data collected by one of the authors for her PhD research in progress.
Educational policies and curriculum: intersections and contradictions

According to José Augusto Pacheco (2002), any public policy should be understood in relation to values, norms and symbols that serve as basis to educational decision making in general, and curricular decisions in particular. The Curricular Proposal in discussion here states that “all school activities are curricular, or else they will not be justified in the school context” (PETRÓPOLIS, 2014, p. 10). Thus, the Proposal is in favor of an association between culture and knowledge, so that there may be a connection between curriculum and life to promote “relevant curricular learning by the students”. (idem).

Nevertheless, curriculum also presents a public space sphere in decision making, that is, “a sphere where multiple perspectives may be worked together in regard to the teaching-learning process” (PACHECO, 2002, p. 7). In such understanding of the word, curriculum is not only what is written in official documents, but mainly a collective construct,

Socially conditioned, plastic and mutable, [which] constitutes and poses itself problems nowadays (…) as a conceptual and management field oriented to the contextualization and differentiation of schools and teachers’ actions, so as to ensure thoroughly learning of all students. (ROLDÃO, 2003, p. 7).

By joining interests, ideologies and beliefs among the diversity of public and contexts, curriculum unveils itself as something far beyond a contents list or practice suggestions. Under such perspective, school is regarded as a place for decisions making that should not be restricted to managerial instances, but, on the contrary, that should involve all the teachers, the students, their families and the surrounding communities.

Pacheco (2002, p. 8-9) also affirms that curricular decisions cannot be analyzed on the basis of personal opinions and reached consensus, since it would result in a balance of hegemonic forces that are historically, socially, economically and culturally determined (idem). In other words, in order to be as democratic as it is intended to be, a curricular proposal, which “has among its priorities cultural citizenship, [which] understands curriculum as a reference to enlarge, locate and contextualize the knowledge humanity has gathered in time” (PETRÓPOLIS, 2014, p. 10), it takes more than sharing of opinions and occasional meetings without a clear method of work, and it takes clear, predetermined, transparent criteria, both for the participation in the process itself and to the writing of the final text, and which should try to equalize the voices of all participants. Antônio Flávio Moreira (2013) says that

It is evident the worry with the establishment of standards, performances, levels to be reached, since Brazil presents particularly low rates of educational quality. (...) The consequence is that school teachers are seen nowadays more as technicians than as transforming intellectuals, like Giroux has proposed. (MOREIRA, 2013, p. 84)

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6 In this respect, Ball (2003) argues that “One key aspect of the current educational reform movement may be seen as struggles over the control of the field of judgement and its values. Who is it that determines what is to count as a valuable, effective or satisfactory performance and what measures or indicators are considered valid? Typically, at least in the UK, these struggles are currently highly individualized as teachers, as ethical subjects, find their values challenged or displaced by the terrors of performativity” (BALL, 2003, p. 216)

7 “Public sector institutions are also required to construct a variety of formal textual accounts of themselves in the form of development plans, strategic documents, sets of objectives, etc.(…) Such texts symbolize and ‘stand for’ the corporate consensus of the institution, and indeed these exercises in institutional extrapolation can also work as a means of manufacturing consensus - the focusing of activities around an ‘agreed’ set of priorities” (BALL, 2003, p. 225-226)
The teacher should be one of the main actors in the curriculum building process in its different phases, which would demand a permanent attitude of partnership, a movement of sharing the decision making process, and should not have his/her role reduced to a policy decision implementer (PACHECO, 2002, p. 145). And a part of this process is the recontextualisation of the official texts and pedagogical discourse, so that they can be used by the educational actors in their daily practice. Bernstein (1985) emphasizes that the pedagogical discourse is in fact a principle, and as such it constitutes itself as a principle of recontextualisation, which, selectively, takes control, re-locates, re-focuses and relates other discourses, so as to constitute its own order (SANTOS, 2003, p. 32). Bernstein distinguishes two recontextualising fields, which sometimes may compete one with the other (DAVIES, 2003, p. 69): the official field, created and maintained by the State and its agents; and the pedagogical recontextualising field, constituted by educators, departments of education in universities, educational journals and research agencies (SANTOS, 2003, p. 32).

The Curricular Proposal of Petrópolis tried to assure that the teachers working from the 1st to the 5th grades would be active, recontextualising actors in this process during the preparation of the final document. However, taking into account the number of teachers that are in the public municipal system of education and the number of professionals who did take part in the writing of the document, we question the effective representation of these teachers. Besides, in the preparation of the Proposal, there was no participation of students, families nor communities representatives, which contributes to the discussion of the intersections and contradictions between the written text and the daily practice.

**Actions taken for the production of the official text**

So as to begin with the actions for the production of the official text, the seminar “Reform of the Curricular Proposal: challenges and perspectives” was held on March 31st, 2014, at the Catholic University of Petrópolis. This seminar was aimed at school directors, coordinators, inspectors and teachers from the study group “Pro-Curriculum”. We highlight that the municipal education system is composed by one hundred school directors, eighty school coordinators, and twenty school inspectors that work for the Secretariat of Education, and that the study group Pro-Curriculum was formed by a group of thirty school teachers that were to represent the one hundred schools that offer 1st to 5th grades of Basic Education. The staff responsible for teachers’ education had been chosen by the Sub-Secretariat of Basic Education and it was formed by four teachers who had an undergraduate degree in Education and had been teaching in the public municipal system for about fifteen years.

The issues addressed during the seminar served as basis for the discussions in the elaboration of the Proposal for the first grades of Basic Education in the study group.

Right after the seminar, in the Proposal elaboration group, different curriculum theories and concepts were studied, including for the different knowledge areas, so that it would be possible to analyse the work to be done bearing in mind a kind of consciousness of what was being produced and/or reproduced. The group of teachers was divided

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8 According to information given orally by a Secretariat member of the staff, there are around 430 teachers in the municipal education system working with 1st to 5th grades.

9 There were 30 teachers, 10 school coordinators and 4 members of the staff of the Secretariat of Education participating in the preparation of the document.
into interest areas – Portuguese, Mathematics, History, Geography and Science. The studies began with the
reading of the official curricular document used at the time, of the curricular proposal that had been done by the
Secretariat of Education for the 6th to 9th grades of Basic Education, of the National Curricular Parameters and the
“Conceptual and methodological elements for the definition of learning rights and development of literacy – 1st to
3rd grades of Basic Education”, formulated by the Ministry of Education\(^\text{10}\).

The analysis of the learning rights text began under the perspective that tried to establish the contents and the
learning objectives to be granted to the children who study in the public municipal system of education in each
grade, organized by structural axis in each knowledge area - a kind of basic, fundamental knowledge that must be
granted to all students. According to the Secretariat staff, the challenge was that this kind of work would become a
structural learning element in curriculum, followed by methodologies and proceedings that would lead to its
effective implementation.

The school coordinators were assigned with extra responsibility in order to assure that the studied elements would
reach all the schools in the system, and they were also invited to become the links between the school community
(teachers and school teams) and the Secretariat.

At the first meeting, the coordinators were asked to name what they considered was hindering the development of
the process of teaching and learning in their schools. According to the Secretariat staff, this discussion showed
some of the in-service education that should be developed all through the year. They stressed that from the
difficulties presented by the coordinators they were able to direct pedagogical strategies to help implementing the
new curriculum.

Concepts of curriculum were reviewed as well, and the challenges of the curricular debate were highlighted. It was
mentioned the need to (re)create the school’s Political Pedagogical Project\(^\text{11}\) as a means to implement the
pedagogical actions. And, having this challenge proposed, the Secretariat staff asked that each coordinator should
present her plan of aims and actions for 2014.

Later, on the second meeting, the coordinators opened the discussion on assessment issues, under the
perspective of accompanying students’ and classes’ learning as a coordinator’s extra role. The study group Pro-
Curriculum focused attention on the organization of learning rights in contents and objectives, according to
structuring axes in each one of the knowledge areas.

At the third meeting, school coordinators presented their aims and actions for the year 2014, which were analyzed
by the Secretariat staff. After analyzing the results of the action plans, the staff showed great concern towards
some evidence observed in the handed papers. In the interviews made with them, members of the staff revealed
that most coordinators were not able to list the tasks and responsibilities of their role, and that the in-service
education in the school space had not been integrated to their plans. Besides, half coordinators had little
experience on the role and little experience in classes between the 1st and 5th grades, which prevented them from
having a better understanding of the curricular aspects involved.

\(^{10}\) We must stress that none of these documents are presented in the Curricular Proposal document reference list.

\(^{11}\) Every school must create and implement its own Political Pedagogical Project.
Other meetings took place until the end of 2014, which approached different issues as the learning rights in Mathematics, teaching strategies for History and Geography, and at last, skills and competencies to be developed in the teaching of Science.

When we analyze the trajectory of the process offered to the school coordinators, we can see that there has not been a link between the themes so as to guide the coordinators to an elaboration on a text that could contribute to the curricular proposal. What was proposed on the first meeting – aspects that may interfere with the teaching-learning process – was not worked on again by the group, as well as the feedback on the weak aspects of each plan of action. The elaborated actions had no space nor time to be discussed.

The same dynamics that was used with the school coordinators was used with the teachers from the study group Pro-Curriculum. They had to point out the elements that interfered in the teaching-learning process, and what they understood about the concept of curriculum. The aim was to emerge the ideas for a new curriculum from the group.

According to a teacher that was a member of the Secretariat staff,

The beginning of this work was interesting, and it was very disturbing for me to see their way to get to the study group, waiting for us to provide them with tasks, with class plans, waiting for our instructions. And we have been stimulating their autonomy ever since. The group of teachers was reorganized in smaller groups according to their interest areas. Thus, we have five knowledge areas: Science, History, Geography, Portuguese and Mathematics. And in this movement, in which they divided themselves into smaller groups, once again they waited to see what we were going to do for them. And yet, maybe in the third or fourth meeting, we started to see them bringing in their own material and contributions.

After the re-organizing of the teachers groups according to their interest areas, they still showed some level of uncertainty to organize the proposed tasks. We observed that they brought to the meetings a great variety of reference materials. Some of the teachers brought documents released by the Ministry of Education, others, law texts. And there were also those who brought curricular proposals from other states or cities in Brazil to be used as models. The autonomy given by the Secretariat staff may have motivated the group to search for specific knowledge or contents that not necessarily had relations to the schools profile in Petrópolis. The Secretariat staff had to re-direct the started tasks.

Since it was a heterogeneous group of teachers\textsuperscript{12}, there were conflicts and divergent opinions. Some were in favor of a more traditional kind of curriculum, which would present lists of contents and practice recommendations, while others defended a critical curriculum, with contents that dealt with cultural and cognitive differences. We observed that some used to prepare themselves previously by reading the texts and preparing their appointments for discussion. Some, on the other hand, did not even care to take the printed texts with them to the meetings.

During the interview done with the Secretariat staff in June 2014, it was said that the deadline for the final version of the Proposal was November 2014. However, they had noticed that the dynamics of the work proposed to the group was slow and fragmented. Consequently, they would need more time to systematize the ideas proposed by the teachers and thus retake the discussions again. This staff had also noticed that the teachers involved in the

\textsuperscript{12} The group was composed by teachers who held an undergraduate degree in Education, others had only the technical degree, others had post-graduate level. Some had little teaching time experience in the municipal system of education, while others had over twenty years of experience.
process did not think of their schools as belonging to a municipal system, that is, they had the tendency to individualize their schools, setting their schools apart from the whole system. They tended to try to solve their schools’ specific issues, and defended their own interests, instead of thinking in suggestions and solutions to the system as a whole.

In order to avoid highlighting just our views on the process, or the Secretariat staff’s, some teachers who belonged to the study group were also interviewed. One of them was a teacher who had been working for the public municipal system of education for eighteen years, always teaching 4th or 5th grades. She had an undergraduate degree in Education, but did not have any other further studies or degrees. She had been indicated by her school director and coordinator to take part in the study group, and she believed her participation to be extremely important. However, she pointed that there should have been discussions and proposals at the schools previous to the meetings, so that they could be used by the study group as well. She noticed that the Secretariat staff did not have a method of conducting and guiding the meetings, and they ended losing time for not knowing exactly what to do or how they were expected to act. She commented that the first two meetings were pretty hard because there was not a clear direction by the staff, either, in regard to bibliographical references to be consulted or how they should begin their tasks. Only after the third meeting the staff realized the need to suggest texts and documents released by the Ministry of Education that the group had not known before. She told us that before the staff decided to do so, the teachers of the study group had been basing their researches on school textbooks and on previous curricular proposals adopted both in Petrópolis and elsewhere.

In the beginning, the teacher felt herself insecure and without proper orientation, as well as she noticed that theory may be far away from practice. She said,

> I was feeling lost and guilty for having left my pupils without classes in order to take part in useless meetings, which reached no final goal. I even thought of giving it up. The feeling I had was that the staff did not know what to do, either, and they were expecting that we, teachers, would tell them so. My group was a good one, the Geography group. Soon we organized ourselves and started to develop our tasks.

After a few meetings, the teacher told us that the discussions started to be more focused by the Secretariat staff. Nevertheless, her group decided to go forward in the elaboration of the document without asking for the mediation of the staff.

As we had noticed that the staff did not understand much of our daily practice, that they lived a different school context, away from the classroom environment, we started to share our own experiences with our pupils among ourselves, and propose activities and contents that were part of our daily practice, our reality. It is no use to have it all beautifully written if we cannot use it with our real pupils.

The teacher reported that her group decided to organize their work by tracing a parallel between the contents for each school grade and the learning rights. However, they were alerted by the staff that in the new Proposal there should not be contents lists, but the different strategies to assure the students’ learning rights instead.

During the meetings in October and November, the teachers involved in the Proposal finished the final document and sent it to be reviewed by specialists. The official text was sent, by e-mail, to the schools in December 2014, after a presentation meeting. According to the staff, it was a preliminary document to be implemented in the year 2015. They expected that some sort of adjusting and change during its implementation would happen, in
accordance with the needs of each individual school. Ball (1994) discusses the unceasing movement that configures the curricular text production. Such production does not get to an end when the text is released. In the act of its implementation, this text is, somehow, re-written, re-interpreted, and re-configured due to the new context where it will be used, and due to the meanings constructed by its implementers. Thus, the practice context of a text involves not only the curricular policy itself, but mainly other texts that are produced in accordance with this one, as well as discourses that exist in the school environment, to which policy talks.

**Presentation of the new curricular reference**

Before being sent to the schools, the new *Proposal* for basic education in Petrópolis was presented at a meeting with school directors, coordinators and teachers of all schools that constitute the public municipal system. During the meeting they presented a brief summary of the trajectory for the elaboration of the document, and some suggestions on how to implement the actions.

By studying the *Proposal*, we have observed that the final document has been based on the aims of the Federal government program “Compromisso Todos pela Educação”, on the “Plano Nacional de Educação”, also on the “Pacto Nacional pela Alfabetização na Idade Certa”, and finally on the “Diretrizes Curriculares para o Ensino Fundamental”. In the *Proposal* it is said that the guiding document was “Elementos conceituais e metodológicos para definição dos direitos de aprendizagem e desenvolvimento do ciclo de alfabetização do ensino fundamental” (PETRÓPOLIS, 2014).

Carla, another interviewed teacher, showed her concern about the efficiency of the new curriculum for basic education, in relation to her work at school:

> We must analyse and discuss this new document thoroughly. You see, the same learning rights directed to literacy classes are the basis of the learning rights for the 4th and 5th grades. I believe their intention is to drop the quality of education.

This was a great discussion issue at the first pedagogical meeting with the teachers at Aquarela School at the beginning of the year 2015. At this point, we could observe that the teachers considered that there was a gap between the school team’s objective to keep the school’s teaching quality and the aims presented at the new *Proposal*.

The *Curricular Proposal* presented the learning rights divided by knowledge areas, and these were organized in general rights, learning rights by grade and axes, into each specific subject area.

Expanding the idea of “learning rights” to all school subjects had been influenced by the guiding document released by the Ministry of Education and the Secretariat staff complied with it. However, it is not possible to assert that the teachers at the municipal schools were willing to do so, or even that they were all in favor of this curriculum perspective. In our research, most interviewed teachers declared their interest in having been provided with a clear

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13 A fictitious name.

14 A fictitious name given to the school where part of the research was conducted. It is a school that is part of the public municipal system, and it has around eight hundred students (from 1st to 9th grades) and fourteen teachers who teach 1st to 5th grades.
contents list to be worked on each grade. They said that this need is something that emerges on the daily practice in the classrooms.

The elaboration of the learning rights for each school subject and the approach designed for each grade supposedly organized the knowledge content in the Proposal. In the teachers’ opinions, some of these rights were unclear in regard to the content to be worked with the students. They also pointed out that some of the rights that are only fully integrated in the 5th grade could have been presented before. Ball (1994) affirms that political texts are not necessarily concise, but they might comprehend many different meanings in the text, being even contradictory. Some terms may be used in diverse ways, some pieces of information may generate more questions than answers.

The presentation of a curricular text under the learning rights mode tried not to attain itself to a contents list to be worked during the school year. To the teachers, the task of having to define the knowledge to be taught according to the reality of their pupils and the class profile is not as easy as it might sound.

In the Proposal, an introductory section written by the Secretariat staff has not been included, which would have avoided misunderstandings. If there had been such introduction, the teachers might have understood the Secretariat's intention in preparing the Curricular Proposal, its aims, objectives and methodology. For instance, the lack of such information led the Aquarela School team to organize their own directives to guide the teachers that work from 1st to 5th grades. There were two meetings with the school team during the first week of February aiming to study and evaluate the Proposal. At first, the teachers tried to adjust the learning rights approach by grades to their classrooms realities. Later, they listed contents they believed should be worked with the students by bimester, in accordance with the ones presented in the official document. Bowe, Ball e Gold (1992) assert that the political text is not simply received and interpreted by the subjects that are to act based on it, but that it can be reinterpreted and re-created, considerably influenced by the implementation process of the public policy.

The Curricular Proposal got to a school where its teachers have mature concepts about the teaching and learning process, and they were not expecting for external directives to guide their actions. In this school, there were previous proposals, which had been built on a collective basis of educational practice, consolidated by the lived experiences of those responsible for the educational process. In this sense, Ball (1994) argues that the text production context does not involve just the curricular policy itself, but also other texts that are produced according to it, as well as texts present in the school environment with which the policy talks or is even opposed to.

Conclusions

By using the information gathered along the field research and our theoretical basis, we have presented an analysis of the elaboration and implementation processes of a new curricular proposal for a public municipal system of education in a town in Brazil. Such system is formed by one hundred schools that cater for the initial years of basic education (1st to 5th grades). Consequently, we are aware that by observing only one of these schools cannot be considered representative of the whole process. Nevertheless, our research provides clues as to

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15 The school year in Brazil usually begins in February and ends in December.
what may be happening in the other schools as well. Thus, the considerations presented here may be understood as a starting point to new researches and questionings.

To present and implement a new curricular proposal is not just a matter of releasing a document and delivering it to the schools, so that they may re-organize their lessons plans. It is essential that the educational staff in charge of the school discusses its text and organizes the plans, the strategies to its implementation, aims and objectives with the teachers. From this moment on, the educational professionals involved make their own planning, activities and projects to be developed, which should be followed by the educational team of the school, like the coordinators. This follow-up should not aim to control the teachers’ work, but in a partnership sense that is created by the mediation between teaching and the school administrators. This follow-up involves assessment, suggestion and re-planning. Thus, the context of people administration takes place, helping to create an atmosphere of understanding, implementation, better practices and learning, and good results.

As far as the data is concerned, we conclude that the document Curricular Proposal, even though it has already been released in its final version, is still source of discussions and debate in the public municipal schools of Petrópolis, facing resistance, criticism and running the big risk of having its implementation doomed to failure.

It is possible that the educational changes have lost their innovative sense since they have been stifled by the imposition character of national policies. Dealing with different paradigms may be hard for the teachers. Maybe it is not that easy for them to de-construct an identity that has already been forged from a sequential and ordered kind of curriculum. Most of the times, teachers are led to incorporate the realization of pre-determined rituals, which may be confronted by policies like school cycles (and not “grades”) and directives that assure the learning rights of students.

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Federal Universities Restructuring and Expansion Program (REUNI)

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The Program of Restructuring and Expanding the Federal Universities (REUNI) was implemented in Brazil by the federal government in 2007, with the objective of increasing the number of enrollments in Brazilian public higher education. So, it increased the numbers of graduated individuals. REUNI allowed the development of academic mobility programs between the federal universities that joined it; the articulation between undergraduate and graduate; proportional relationship of one university professor for each eighteen students; hiring new workers and university professors to work in the federal universities that have joined the REUNI, especially in those who were created concomitantly with REUNI; the inclusion policy for people with special needs in the university and curriculum restructuring. REUNI follows the internalization logic of Brazilian Universities, i.e. the New Universities are created mostly in remote areas of large urban centers, allowing the socioeconomic development of certain Brazilian region. New universities have their pedagogical approach, based on curricular flexibility in the exchange of knowledge among university students in the same institution or with other institutions. For the students to join the top Brazilian public education in federal universities that have joined the REUNI, they have to take the National High School Exam (ENEM) and to achieve the required score to the chosen course, make its entry in the Unified Selection System (SISU), by which the federal universities proffer their vacancies. To perform this article the systematic review of the literature was used, based in the master's thesis which will be presented by the author at the State University of Campinas (Unicamp). In this sense the data presented are part of a consolidated research.

Introduction

This article is the result of the master's research, titled "REUNI: here comes the story ...", held at the State University of Campinas (Unicamp), Campinas-São Paulo, under the guidance of Professor Deborah Mazza, having
REUNI as the subject of this research and the proposals raised in this article are part of the masters’ research in progress.

For the realization of this article, there was a data collection in electronic sites of Brazilian Federal Universities and the Ministry of Education and Culture. There was the use of ArcGiz platform for making the illustrative map of universities that have joined REUNI. In this article, there is a brief analysis of what REUNI is, unable to deepen the discussion at this moment.

REUNI

In 2003, with the rise of the Workers Party (PT), represented by the President elected Luiz Inácio Lula da Silva, the access to higher education is no longer exclusive to the affluent ones, due to the enactment of Project Laws, Laws, Decrees and Educational programs by the federal government that facilitated the access to the lower classes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year \ decree \ law</th>
<th>Legislation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Decree of October 20, 2003</td>
<td>Interministerial Working Groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decree No. 4875 of November 11, 2003</td>
<td>Establishes the &quot;Milton Santos Project&quot; for Access to Education, the Ministry of Education (Promisaes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law No. 10.861, of April 14, 2004</td>
<td>National System of Higher Education Assessment (Sinaes)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Law No. 10973 of December 2, 2004</td>
<td>Technological Innovation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Law No. 11079 of December 30, 2004</td>
<td>Public-Private Partnership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrees 5.296 / 2004 and No. 5.626 / 2005</td>
<td>establishes the Inclusion Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law No. 11.096 / 2005</td>
<td>University for All Program (PROUNI)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bill No. 7200 2006</td>
<td>Reform of Higher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presidential Decree nº6096 2007</td>
<td>Program of Support to the Restructuring and Expansion of Federal Universities (REUNI)</td>
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<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Education Development Plan (PDE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law No. 10801 of April 14, 2009</td>
<td>National System of Higher Education Assessment (SINAES)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decree No. 7234 of July 19, 2010</td>
<td>Establishes National Plan for Student Assistance (PNAES)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12: Decrees, Laws, Bills.
Source: Prepared by the author from data collected between October and November, 2014
In the first President Lula's term, there had been the convening of an Inter-Ministerial Working Group (IWG), in 2003, to point out the needs of the Brazilian higher education.

The Decree of October 20, 2003, establishes the IWG, in order to ascertain the current situation and to outline a plan of action, to restructure, develop and democratize the Federal Establishments of Higher Education (IFES).

The final report produced by the group showed the need to expand the teaching staff and the places for students, to implement distance education, university funding and the intensification of university autonomy.

The interventions proposed by the Inter-ministerial Working Group were:

   a. to formulate and implement guidelines of an emergency plan in confronting and overcoming the progressive debt with suppliers, combined with the increase in resources for operational costs.

   b. open contests for filling vacancies of faculties and public workers, caused by layoffs, retirements and dismissals, unfilled over the past ten years, and to replace professors hired on a temporary basis for effective ones. Ensure further funds to cover deficits in maintenance and investment.

   c. grant autonomy to ensure the federal universities a more rational use of resources, greater efficiency in its management and freedom to capture and apply extrabudgetary funds, as well as didactical-pedagogical autonomy.

   d. ensure new jobs: (i) guaranteeing useful regionalization grants for hiring doctors who wish to devote to teaching, especially in degrees such as physics, mathematics, biology, chemistry, giving emphasis to the places lacking personnel with higher education, (ii) adopting regionalization and internalization criteria in the policy of opening places for new contests, along with an aid for implantation of new lines of research for these new hires, and (iii) reintegrating retired professionals to the activities of federal universities, through the implementation of a special program of research excellence. (BRASIL, 2003)

In this sense, to contemplate analyzes arising from the IWG, it was established in 2007 the Program of Support to the Restructuring and Expansion of Federal Universities (REUNI), through Presidential Decree no. 6096, 2007.

This program was restricted only to Federal Universities.

The Restructuring and Expansion Program of the Brazilian Federal Universities (REUNI), established by the 2007 Presidential Decree no. 6096, aims to "[...] create conditions for the expansion of access and permanence in higher education, at the undergraduate level, and for better use of physical structure and human resources existing in the federal universities" (BRASIL, 2007).

Federal Institutions of Higher Education (IFES) that joined REUNI have received funding by submitting restructuring plans. These features are to enable the expansion in general, as outlined in Article 3\textsuperscript{rd} of the Presidential Decree:

   I - construction and readjustment of infrastructure and equipment necessary to achieve the program's objectives;

   II - purchase of goods and services required for the functioning of the new academic regimes; and

   III - personnel and operating expenses associated with the expansion of the activities resulting from the restructuring plan(BRASIL, 2007).
But from the enactment of the new 2007 Presidential Decree no. 6096 new IFES were created to respond to the characteristics presented by the final report of the IWG. Public universities, newly created exceed 40 universities, being named New Universities for bringing in their curriculum an innovation, the interdisciplinarity, through the Interdisciplinary Bachelor's Degrees that contemplates the general formation.

Recently, it has a membership of 72 universities, divided into Federal Higher Education Establishments, including the newly created and the existing ones. These pieces of information was obtained from REUNI website on the Internet, linked to the website of the Ministry of Education and Culture. The following map is for the identification of proportionality of REUNI memberships.

![Map of Brazil showing REUNI memberships](image)

Map 1: Adherence to REUNI - visual proportions.
Source: Prepared by the author from data collected between January and March, 2015.

REUNI made it possible to increase enrollment in public universities with the creation of new federal universities; facilitated the internationalization process of Brazilian higher education through the curriculum similarities with the Bologna Process - which established in the current European Higher Education Scenario the generalist education at higher education and contributed indirectly to the expansion of Brazilian Universities in the private-commodity dependence.

There are other federal programs that offer vacancies with scholarship grants in private establishments, such as the University for All Program (PROUNI) and Student Financing Program (FIES).

Admission into the Brazilian Federal Universities who have joined the REUNI is through the realization and approval in the National Secondary Education Examination (ENEM).

Each course offered in IFES requires a minimum score to apply for positions through the Unified Selection System (SISU), which registers scores of candidates and the positions offered by the Federal Universities.
The survey results show that the pedagogical proposals embedded in REUNI do not present a curricular innovation, since this proposal appeared in three different times with different settings in the history of Brazilian higher education, that are the Technological Institute Aeronautics, in the decade of 1947; in the preparation of the University of Brasilia, in 1961 Project done by Darcy Ribeiro; and Design of the University of Campinas in 1961, prepared by Fausto Castilho.

In addition to this historical perception, it can be concluded that there was an increase of 73% in enrollment in private higher education profiting establishments in the period from 2003 to 2008, compared with growth of 12.10% in the public dependency in the same period.

Given the above, it is noteworthy that REUNI provided young people with the entry to higher education, but it permitted the commercialization of higher education in private dependency.

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Integral Education Curriculum in Brazil: opportunities and challenges16

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Integral Education in Brazil has been induced by a series of government initiatives, among which the More Education Program stands out. Since 2007, it aims at extending the length of stay and the learning opportunities of public school students who have a low success rate in Basic Educational Development Index (IDEB). This program understands Integral Education not only as an increase in study time, but also as the integration between school knowledge and local knowledge stemming from students reality, which directly impacts the idea of a traditional curriculum still present in many schools. In this perspective, Integral Education requires a significant change in concepts, and even in paradigm, related to many traditional practices and spaces still existing in the Brazilian public education. Besides being focused on serving the working-class children – which has become a reality in the country –, the Program More Education proposes hiring college students and regular community people to work after school. Thus, this scenario creates problems for the teaching profession and the relationship between school and local knowledge, questioning the hierarchies, including social classes, established in these spaces. In this sense, this paper presents the concept of curriculum used in the guiding documents for the program, conceiving it

16 This paper was supported by CAPES, Training Coordination Higher Education Personnel – Brazil.
as an opportunity to improve the ways of learning that have been present for a long time in the school. These findings are illustrated by the analyses made based on the state of knowledge (Morosini & Fernandes, 2014) of 54 abstracts of theses and dissertations written between 2011 and 2012. These abstracts are available in the CAPES Theses Portal (Training Coordination Higher Education Personnel) and they refer to the challenges and implementation experiences resulting from school time extension in different regions of Brazil. The results of theses and dissertations analyses, after content analysis (Bardin, 2009), converged to the fact that Integral Education Policy at this moment does not bring significant changes when it comes to the organization of school curricula. The curriculum integration occurs in an unsystematic way, and time and space are not so different from those used by mainstream regular time schools, having as a differential only the time spent inside school. Thus, according to publications, differently from what is expected, there has been a doubling of the formal curriculum of the regular shift, what makes the other shift a moment of "more of the same". It is possible to conclude that this issue is directly related to teacher education, because there is a need for more dialogue about integrated proposals between teachers and monitors as well as to also consider students' knowledge.

**Keywords:** Curriculum; Integral Education; Teacher education; Brazil

**1 Introduction**

The current public policies for social inclusion, which reverberated in school inclusion policies, have been creating opportunities for a lot more people to have access to spaces that until then were only occupied by a few people. The recent Government initiatives are geared towards caring for individuals who need the support of the State in order for their basic needs to be met, including access to education. In this sense, many parents are now having the opportunity to go to work and leave their children in Elementary schools when small or keep children full time in middle school getting three meals a day. These practical issues, like where to leave their child in safety and how to have them fed, are part of the planning of these government initiatives, which serve as a basis for criticism as to its social services character.

Nevertheless, under the education sector, public school has been affirming its position as the nucleus of implementation of these policies, since its accessed by people of different social classes and with different knowledge, which, increasingly, are also questioning the education conceptions constituted since the invention of this institution. Many of the historically transmitted knowledge in school spaces exclude discussions or disregard real life experiences, not considering them valid, what impacts the learning of these children, since they don't see the relationship between their reality and school world. In this direction, following these school inclusion policies, are initiatives to question/discuss what will then be understood as school curriculum, so that not only school access is taken into consideration, but also meaningful learning, which would require that there be a dialogue between school knowledge and knowledge acquired from real life experiences.

Following this train of thought, this work presents the conceptions of curriculum used as a guide in the "More Education Program", which can be understood as the opportunity to improve the ways that have existed for a long time in educational institutions. The curricular integration proposed by these documents will be confronted with reports of experiences of implementation of the program in different regions of the country from the analysis of 54
abstracts of theses and dissertations of the years 2011 and 2012 available at the CAPES Theses Portal (Training Coordination Higher Education Personnel), performed through of the state of knowledge (Morosini & Fernandes, 2014), which focused on the challenges present in this process.

2 The current policy of Integral Education in Brazil

At various times in Brazil’s history was always present, the idea to extend school hours as a possibility to give social support to economically underprivileged children or as a way to broaden their knowledge, as a curricular enrichment activity after school, like music lessons, sports, languages, which is already part of financially privileged children’s routine. These initiatives gave great visibility to Brazilian educators, such as Anísio Teixeira, Darcy Ribeiro for presenting concrete integral specialized education projects (Park School and CIEPS) in public schools.

Twenty years after this last initiative, (res)arise in the year 2007, in a context of various governmental interventions in a quest for social equity through redistributive policies to combat poverty, the idea of investing in a single project at a national level to consider these pioneering ideas about Integral education in Brazil, as well as more recent local and regional projects successful in this field.

It is therefore introduced by the Interministerial Normative Instruction nº 17/2007, the "More Education Program", which seeks to dialogue the possibility of Integral education extending the length of time children stay in school (minimum 7 hours per day) with an understanding that these hours must be used to work knowledge that promotes integral training, such as learning physical, artistic, sports and cultural activities. The socio-political base of the "More Education Program" understands that

the articulation between education, Social Assistance, culture and sports, among other public policies may arise as an important intervention for social protection, preventing the situations of the violation of rights of children and adolescents, and also for improving school performance and permanence in school, especially in the most vulnerable territories (Brasil, 2009, p. 25).

In addition, this program, as stated, understands Integral education as not only the increase in daily study hours, but also as an integration between school knowledge and students real life experiences, which directly impacts on the idea of a traditional curriculum still present in many schools. Integral education, therefore requires a significant change of conceptions, and even paradigm, in relation to many of the traditional spaces and practices still prevailing in the Brazilian public education. In addition to being devoted to caring for children of popular classes – which has become a reality in the country –, proposes hiring students still attending university and regular people from the community to work on school shifts after hours, impacting professional teaching and the relationships between school knowledge and real life experiences, and questioning the hierarchies, including social classes, established in these spaces.

3 The Integral Education Curriculum

The curriculum is not an innocent element and a neutral, disinterested transmission of social knowledge. The curriculum is implicated in power relationships, transmitting private interest social visions and producing particular individual and social identities. The curriculum is not a transcendent and timeless element – it has a history, linked
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to specific forms of organization of society and education (Moreira & Silva, 2011). Understanding, then, that there is an intrinsic relationship between the socio-historical contexts and curricula, it is possible to affirm that, currently, there are three different educational models fighting for territory: a traditional model (19th century), a neoliberal model (20th century) and an emerging model (21st century).

Between the questioning of school as being the nucleus of social reproduction and the concern of an efficiency-driven education is the ticket to great population contingent in school spaces. In this sense, there is pressure coming from a traditional context, that seeks to imprint practices, beliefs and traditional values in basic school. The defense that school isn't for everyone (elitist) needs to convey knowledge in a disciplinary perspective, classify, select and exclude (positivist), working as a nucleus of cultural reproduction and maintaining social mobility, conflicts with key concepts in current policies, such as citizenship and educational equity.

In a neoliberal context, in which Brazil is under the tutelage of the international regulation of quality indicators, education suffers the effects of internationalization of educational policies, which have a base in the privatization of the public on meritocracy, on productivity, on efficiency.

The idea of Integral education, here analyzed through the More Education Program, is in line with those new contents of an emerging model, which are related to environmental sustainability, human rights, respect, appreciation of differences and the complexity of the relationship between school and society. In this sense, it is considered as necessary a dialogue between school knowledge and community knowledge.

School knowledge, in this perspective, is organized into disciplines (English, Portuguese, Mathematics, Geography, History, Science, Arts and Physical Education) establishing the Division of school knowledge by areas that, when put together, share the same study object. These areas are organized as follows: Languages, codes and their technologies (Portuguese Foreign, Arts, Computers, Physical education and Literature), Natural Sciences and Mathematics (Mathematics and Science) and Society and Citizenship (Philosophy, Humanities, History and Geography) (Brasil, 2008).

In the after hours school shift workshops are developed within the framework of the various areas of knowledge of the More Education Program: Pedagogical Accompaniment; Environmental Education; Sports and leisure; Human rights and citizenship; Culture and arts; Digital inclusion, communication and media usage; Health promotion, nutrition and prevention; Research in the area of Natural Sciences and Economic Education (Brasil, 2009), which are taught by undergraduate students or regular people from the community who undertake this work voluntarily.

Outside the school walls is that so-called community knowledge which seeks to identify general aspects that can be applied to various contexts, since it is linked to social reality areas and the Brazilian cultural structure. In this sense, there are eleven different areas of knowledge: Housing; Clothing; Nutrition; Playtime; Political Organization; Environmental conditions; Job World; Cures and prayers; Artistic expressions; Local narratives; Local calendar. The intention is that the inclusion of this community knowledge and the establishment of dialogue about this knowledge in educational spaces can value the local cultural universe, that is, everything that our students bring to school, regardless of their social conditions. This knowledge is the vehicle for conceptual learning: we want for students to learn through the relationship can be built between the different knowledge. Students must, therefore, be encouraged to use their knowledge and ideas in order to formulate school knowledge (Brasil, 2008, p. 37).
The curricular proposal put forward by the More Education Program originates from the construction of a knowledge Mandala, which works as a tool to aid the construction of pedagogical strategies for integral education capable of promoting conditions of exchange between different knowledge” (Brasil, 2008, p. 23).

![Mandala of knowledge More Education Program](image)

**Figure 4: Mandala of knowledge More Education Program**
**Source:** Brasil (2008)

This Mandala wants to show that there is an asymmetric relationship between school and community: “donor (school) x recipient (community); knowledge (school) x ignorance (community); teaching/learning; think/Act; recommend/follow; draw/implement” (Brasil, 2008, p. 46).

The Mandala of Knowledge brings together the main elements which should integrate the development of educational projects in schools with a view to integral development of the child. To observe how this curricular proposal is being put into practice and/or reassigned in educational spaces from different regions of Brazil, the following research is presented.

**4 Methodological choices: the State of Knowledge**

Parting from research conducted on state of knowledge in publications related to the Integral education in Brazil, 54 abstracts of theses and dissertations from 2011 and 2012 available at the CAPES Theses Portal were read in search of implementation challenges faced when extending school time in different regions of the country specifically in relation to curriculum integration.

A state of knowledge aims to recognize the guiding themes of research being produced, from the perspective of identifying research issues, key objectives, methodologies and tools for collecting data used, in addition to checking preliminary and final results of what is produced on the subject being investigated.

The present analysis was done in this manner and following these steps. First data were collected, then its reading and organization, followed by identifying the excerpts of abstracts of theses and dissertations that were closer to the research objective, therefore, staying on the subject of Integral education. After the objectives, methodologies and results of such researches were found, the information was grouped into categories, which were then classified as being in the data sorting process. Once the categories were defined and the material identified, the search text
was written, crossing and interpreting the information/results of research available on the CAPES Theses Portal with publications on the study area and with information obtained from the Ministry of education (MEC) documents on the Program More Education and other publications on the subject.

As stated, we analyzed the publications from the CAPES Theses Portal that related to extending the school day and/or Integral education in 2011 and 2012. During the two years of theses and dissertations available on the Portal analyzed, 6460 occurrences were found matching the keywords used “More Education Program”. Discarding this number, due to the impossibility of reading so many studies, a new search was carried out, this time using the keywords “Integral education”, for which 534 occurrences were found, not necessarily referring to the More Education Program, but many other projects/programs/experiences pertaining to extending the school day.

After the content analysis of all abstract titles for these theses and dissertations, a methodological decision was made to discard research originating from specific subjects/workshop reports, privileging program analyses as educational policy and its implementation processes/impact/interpretation in schools. In this way, was constituted as a corpus of analysis the study of 54 abstracts of theses and dissertations about Integral education, which amount to 10% of the total found, and were thus organized:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base Year</th>
<th>Number of theses/dissertations</th>
<th>Theses</th>
<th>Dissertations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13: Distribution of theses/dissertations for Base Year
Source: Table prepared by the authors

The main focus of the analysis was related to the recurrences in relation to the emphasis on the approach to the topic being studied. The data obtained points to a predominance in relation to the focus of the research on the evaluation of experiences of implementation of Integral education in schools from different regions of the country, 43 matching works from the 54 analyzed are found matching this perspective such finding was also presented and discussed in previous research, resulting from a survey of publications on this issue in recent years of publications from the National Association of Postgraduate Studies and Research in Education (ANPEd). The other work, totaling 11 theses and dissertations focused on the relationship between the Integral education and its impact on school performance of the students who attend extended school days. In this way, the 54 theses and dissertations about Integral education selected from the CAPES Theses Portal were categorized into two units of analysis, denominated: Evaluation of the implementation and Evaluation of the impact.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Theses/dissertations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation of the implementation</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation of the impact</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14: Distribution of theses/dissertations by analytical categories
Source: Table prepared by the authors
In this paper, considering the total abstracts of the theses/dissertations, it will only be presented as the main analytical discussions focused on school time extension projects, school spaces and knowledge, looking to unveil the possibilities and challenges of its implementation as a new educational model aimed at students integral development.

5 Curricular Integration: one of the school challenges

Outlining this panorama, were the results of theses and dissertations, after the content analysis (Bardin, 2009), a theory which includes explicit, systematic initiatives and expression of the content of messages, in order to make logical deductions and justify the origin of these messages, converged for the fact that the Integral Education policy, at this point, has not yet brought significant changes in school curriculum organization.

One of the main challenges that Integral Education schools from different regions of the country face is working with the idea of curriculum diversity, combining real life knowledge with school knowledge, since there is still "a long distance between what was proposed by the curriculum guidelines of the project and what is experienced in schools" (Necyk, 2012). Part of this responsibility points to "a great resistance and ignorance from the Group of teachers in relation to the More Education Program and the existing distance between regular school and extended school time activities" (Marinho, 2012).

Thus, it is possible to affirm that a traditional educational model still has a lot of strength in many Brazilian schools and, allied to a neoliberal model of internationalization of educational policies (Akkari, 2011) based on a number of external evaluations and in the control of productivity and of the students' learning, ultimately impede and limit arising democratic actions that seek to enhance other knowledge, other subjects, other values.

In this direction, the Ministry of Education document believes that only an integrated and convergent action focused on differentiated formation of individuals and their recognition as citizens, can contribute to overcoming social inequality in our country [...] To achieve these goals, the school needs to be opened to local knowledge, in order to transform education in a community practice. For this it is necessary to bring together social actors and extend it to different spaces of the city where the school is located (Brasil, 2008, p. 89).

However, as stated, by virtue of a monitoring system of quality indicators, such as School Census, the Basic Education Evaluation System (SAEB) and the Basic Education Development Index (IDEB), school learning ends up turning to performance assessment skills expressed in the field of the English language and Mathematics. Therefore, this knowledge ends up being overrated to the detriment of the other, what causes also an overvaluation of Pedagogical accompaniment, leaving in the background sports and cultural activities, which "has generated over schooling processes, which do not have the desired results" (Brasil, 2009, p. 36).

Saboya (2012) states that "the professionals responsible for the context of the practice have limited knowledge of the conceptions of integrated education and curriculum brought by the More Education Program". For this reason, many volunteer monitors eventually reproduce pedagogical practices known to them and, often, similar to those they had contact with during their own schooling, not complementing the formal curriculum. This conduct goes against what the official documents point out, i.e. "a curriculum organized with increased disciplines and the
incorporation of new spaces, such as recreational parks, laboratories, auditoriums, IE [...] culture, arts and sports should be components of the school curriculum" (Santos, 2013).

Another observation is the little or non-existent dialogue between the teachers responsible for the regular shift proposals and those responsible for the workshops that take place in the reverse shift, which leads them to "not incorporate integral education, in infrastructural and educational dimensions, or in its political-administrative aspect" (Mecca, 2012).

Rocha (2012) points as strong factors in this situation, the lack of a specific curriculum for integral education students, theoretical disagreements between the Pedagogic School Project and the Local Curriculum Guidelines, as well as similar methodology for children who attend school full-time and part time. In this same direction, Nunes (2011) shows "disparities between the concepts and practices in the Integral education school environment, as the inadequate use of time, the lack of space outside of school and the improper articulation of the curriculum with current reality".

Hatakeyama (2012), from the data analyzed in his research, corroborates the idea that school has competent and committed teachers, despite not having clarity about the Political-pedagogical Proposal based on Integral education, making the teaching-learning process and implementation of pedagogical principles that guarantee Integral human development difficult.

From these studies, it can be concluded then that the curricular integration is occurring in an unsystematic manner, time and space distance themselves very little from those used by regular schools, having as differential only the time spent inside the school.

On the other hand, fairly sporadic, a few successful reports were found that point to the conditions of the possibility that this proposal for Integral Education,

    despite still being a recent educational policy, [contributing] to the improvement of educational practice, to the extent that the educational opportunities were expanded with the implementation of the full time schedule through learning workshops, sports, culture, computers, among other educational experiments carried out within the school or partner environments in surrounding communities (Assis, 2012).

In terms of progress, it was verified as well, the improvement of students' self-esteem, of students' interest and results; working with teachers and monitors differentiated knowledge; the beginning of dialogue between educators of the two shifts; and the initial training of teachers and Educational Monitors (Matos, 2011).

Only eight of the 54 theses/dissertations on analysis found a positive impact in the extension of time experiences and the educational experiences, whether in the curricular integration aspect or in school performance, which shows the need for continued investment in the "development of a pedagogical proposal that reflects the integration of the various components" (Bezerra, 2011) as a way to recognize the different modes to exist and to allow a practice truly based on equity.
6 Conclusion

According to the publications available in the CAPES Theses Portal, for the years 2011 and 2012, differing from what the official documents propose, there is a duplication of the formal regular school time curriculum, making the extended time a moment of "more of the same". It is concluded that this issue is directly related to a traditional curriculum model that is part of teacher training, thus not allowing a greater dialogue between teachers and monitors to jointly think about integrating proposals that also consider students' knowledge.

The results showed that there is still no impact on the improvement of student academic achievement who are attending extended time school, not even in external evaluations, which points to the need to think of more effective ways of dialogue between knowledge worked during regular school time and those proposed by the reverse shift workshops.

The connection between the curricular knowledge (regular time and extended time) and real life knowledge involves the provision of teachers who are already in school to establish dialogues with the monitors and often have to revise their views on the curriculum.

The challenge, in the context of Integral education is favoring certain values and knowledge in the midst of a capitalist system, exclusive and uneven, and administer the difficulty of offering an educational model of emancipating character in confrontation with the hierarchy of knowledge, the fragmentation of knowledge and competitiveness resulting from an education, increasingly regarded as a commodity.

References


The competence approach in the hands of the Education Authority

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The term “basic competencies” spearheads a movement that over the last few years has been calling for the need to review the school curriculum in the light of the changes and challenges posed by the knowledge and information society and by globalisation. In fact, it has become a central concern for the OECD, picked up on by the UNESCO and expressed in the European Competence Framework as key for lifelong learning.

Under this influence, many countries have made basic competencies the core of their education policies. In Spain, the State included basic competencies through the Organic Law of Education (LOE), entrusting their specification to the autonomous communities, as well as the coordination of measures and resources to train teaching staff.
Our research aims to understand and describe the repercussions of the administrative decisions adopted concerning this issue in the period between 2009 and 2012, their consequences in educational establishments, along with the assessments advisers make regarding the training model proposed. Specifically, the study focuses on the following questions:

- How does the education authority approach in-school training on basic competencies?
- What is the starting point of advisers to address in-school training?
- How do advisers carry out the administration’s assignment in educational establishments?
- How does the group of advisers value the reception of the basic competency model in our autonomous community?

Methodology

A qualitative design was chosen, combining the use of two instruments: an in-depth interview, to gather the views of the training advisers; and discussion groups, to collect the exchange of opinions and perceptions of the teaching staff involved.

Results

The study provides relevant information regarding how our Administration carried out the task of informing, sensitising and activating the educational community. Among the main results of the research, the following stand out:

- The administration opted for two rather disparate training models; going from one model that unified and applied a single proposal throughout all educational establishments, to another that enabled diverse, heterogeneous pathways and tasks to be carried out. In both models the responsibility for the whole process was delegated to the advisory teams affiliated to the teachers’ centres.
- The advisers found themselves simultaneously involved in two different processes: their own training and their leadership in the training actions that they were conducting in the educational establishments, entering into contradiction with their own personal beliefs.
- Upon assessing the proposal followed by the educational authority, the advisers detect diverse errors and contradictions, which reveal certain hastiness in the decision-making, a lack of coherence between the different services and agents involved, as well as the absence of a final assessment.
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2. The advisers found themselves simultaneously involved in two different processes: their own training and their leadership in the training actions that they were conducting in the educational establishments.
3. A certain hastiness in the decision-making, a lack of coherence between the different services and agents involved, as well as the absence of a final assessment.

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Accountability
School evaluation and the improvement of curricular processes: which relations?

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The past 20 years have been prolific in educational guidelines related with school education in Europe (Commission of the European Communities, 2007). Associated with these, many European bodies have produced documents containing recommendations for nations to ensure the quality of curricular practices, most of them advocating for a different curricular approaches and diversified pedagogical practices (OECD, 2010; European Commission, 2012; European Union Council, 2011; 2013).

These guidelines led to the establishment of quality standards to be fulfilled by educational systems, and led many European nations to establish accountability systems as a means to ensure the standards fulfilment, being the most common of all the school evaluation (SE) processes (Faubert, 2009). SE is considered as a good asset to obtain valuable knowledge on the work developed in schools, and a valid starting point for the implementation of improvement measures and solving the problems identified (Commission of the European Communities, 2001; Devos & Verhoeven, 2003; Hofman, Dijkstra & Hofman, 2009; OECD, 2012; 2013; Schildkamp et al, 2012). It was in this sense that Portugal adopted SE, having launched in 2006 a school external evaluation (SEE) process.

This presentation addresses the issue of whether Portuguese schools effectively use the information provided by SEE to act upon curricular processes and develop a better teaching and learning process.

Data was collected in 10 Portuguese schools through semi-structured interviews (Bogdan & Biklen, 1994) with school headmasters, and focus group interviews (Greenbaum, 1998) with the self-evaluation teams and department coordinators. Also, schools’ structural documents, such as the educational project, the improvement plan and also the SEE report were analysed.

The analysis revealed that schools do use the results from SEE to perform some improvements, but these interventions seem to just stay at the surface of the question. That is, the actions taken based on the SEE results are mostly at a documental level, in terms of the production of plans, reports and other documents to register the work that is being planned and developed in schools; and at an organizational level, in terms of a certain change in planning meetings and peer work, in a more formal way as a means to legitimate the already established informal practices. There are also some traces of actions at the curricular processes level, corresponding mostly to curriculum articulation practices between different subjects and different school years.

Introduction

The debate about quality is not a new one in the field of education. Since the end of the 20th century that many researchers, policy makers and practitioners have been discussing and defending the need to ensure that educational systems worldwide provide schooling of excellence and, therefore meet quality standards.
This discussion is the result of a series of political and social changes, which seem to have started with the major phenomenon of globalisation, as well as changes in the modes school governance, namely with the decentralisation of power and more autonomy granted to educational institutions.

On the one hand the globalisation, with free circulation of information, made nations aware of their surroundings and as result, aware of their place in the world. On the other hand, this awareness made comparison possible and revealed that some countries seemed to be far behind others in many different matters, education included. Alongside, the establishment of what is call by “knowledge society”, made countries struggle to reach the best levels possible in their educational systems. And this all culminated in greater competition and, therefore, led nations to develop and adopt new strategies to overcome this situation. Amongst the measures taken is possible to find some regarding quality assurance, seen here as a means to boost the development and improvement of educational systems.

The changes in school governance raised other type of concerns, namely with the quality of education in less regulated system. In their turn, these concerns encourage the adoption of new modes of regulation, such as, again, quality assurance processes. One of the most common quality assurance system adopted in Europe is school evaluation (SE). Some countries opted for a system of external evaluation, others preferred to internal evaluation processes through self-evaluation, and some opted for a mixed approach, combining both external evaluation and self-evaluation, which is the case of Portugal. Despite the type of evaluation adopted, they all seem to aim in the same direction, to improve the quality of the educational service provided and to promote their development and results of school education.

Although it is not yet complete clear what is meant by quality when the issue is education, there is undeniable that it applies to school's performance, which relegates to attention paid to students achievement rates; to the provision of educational service, which entails teachers’ pedagogical practices in and out of classroom, and to school management processes and school leadership. Meaning that whichever quality assurance mechanism is in place, it needs to address these matters, school evaluation included.

It is, therefore, expectable that SE systems cover the whole range of key aspects in education with, maybe, particular emphasis on the issues related to the teaching and learning, i.e., the curricular practices. This processes are of great relevance to the success of education, since is through them that students develop and acquire the knowledge and skills necessary. The curriculum and the practices associated with its development constitute a major part of school education. They comprise not only the content to be taught in each discipline, but a set of pedagogical approaches – curricular practices – used to teach the contents. Being so, school evaluation process should take the curricular part of school education into careful account, as it craves to promote the best quality possible.

Assuming all of this is true, it seem rather important to understand the relationship, if any, between the SE and the improvement of curricular processes, particularly in the perspective of school members. This is the question addressed in this paper, parting from the case of Portugal and focusing particularly on the school external evaluation process.
Theoretical considerations between curricular processes and SEE

It is already been said that school external evaluation processes and curricular processes share a bond. This section tries to explore the two processes are connected with each other.

A first consideration to be made is about what is currently perceived as the curriculum. The concept of curriculum, as to many other concepts, evolved throughout time. The curriculum was firstly conceive as a structured programme setting the disciplinary contents, learning goals and teaching methods, an idea that evolved into perceiving the curriculum as more flexible and comprehensive, taking into consideration the learning experiences, the contexts and the students (Miller and Seller, 1985; Doyle, 1992; Pacheco, 1996; Leite, 2002; Fernandes, 2011; Biesta, Priestley and Robinson, 2014). Nowadays it is possible to say that the curriculum is an open project congregating the basic disciplinary contents defined as essential for learning, but going beyond them. It contemplates also room for the adaptation and contextualization of the curricular contents regarding contextual factors (Fernandes et al, 2012). It is this conception that this paper addresses the issue of curricular practices, which are an organic part of the teaching and learning process. And being so, playing such an important role in school education, the curricular practices have experienced a number of changes and challenges. These are the result of the own political and social changes that transformed education as a whole. Societies are dynamic and go through a constant process of evolution and change. As a result, all social services and elements that constitute any society, are also target of changes. School education is bound to be influenced by the cultural and political discourses and orientations, and to adapt to them in the best possible way. In recent years there have been many debates around school education, mostly focusing on its quality and on the need to ensure the best educational service possible to meet the social demands and needs (The Economic and Social Committee, 2000; European Union Council, 2009; Faubert, 2009; European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015). And as a result there can be found a number of recommendations for improving and transforming curricular practices to: 1) prepare students for an active life in society, and to provide the conditions to develop a the necessary skills and competencies (European Parliament and Council, 2001; European Parliament and Council, 2006; Commission of the European Communities, 2007); 2) ensure that students have the necessary characteristics to meet the labour market demands (Toner, 2011; European Commission, 2012); and 3) ensure that contents are taught in a meaningful way so that all students can learn at their own pace (OECD, 2010; European Union Council, 2011; European Commission, 2012b; European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2012; Kärkkäinen, 2012; European Council, 2013).

It is in this context that the connection with school evaluation can be found.

Evaluation, much like the curriculum, has also experienced an evolution during time in both its meaning as well as in its form. If a first approach to evaluation, in education, was limited to assess students’ knowledge and mastery of curricular contents and, therefore, related to performativity, throughout time this vision became obsolete. The process of evaluation was expanded to evaluate teachers, headteachers and the institution itself. The progression in terms of educational evaluation is due to a number of political, social and economic reasons. Nonetheless, according to the literature, the main reason to evaluate schools is related to quality assurance. And this quality is perceived in all aspects of school functioning, from academic results to curricular practices and school management. It is believed that SE has the potential to ensure and promote this quality, and can be a strong ally for individuals and institutions (Guba and Lincoln, 1989; Leite, Rodrigues and Fernandes, 2006). At the same time, school evaluation constitutes also a counterpart of some specific changes in the modes of school governance, such as the decentralisation of powers and schools autonomy. In this scenario SE becomes a tool for assuring a
good use of the new powers given to schools and its adequacy to the goals set for education (Reezigt and Creemers, 2005; Plowright, 2007; Sun, Creemers and Hong, 2007; Campbell and Levin, 2009; Coe, 2009; Hofman, Dijkstra and Hofman, 2009). It is also believed that the research component of evaluation can provide valuable information for everyone involved and interested in school education, and can inform possible interventions towards improvement. Moreover, this feature of SE can help to identify the main aspects, both positive and negative, to understand what is not being achieved and why, and more importantly, to find alternatives for solving the problems (Reezigt & Creemers, 2005; Coe, 2009). For this reason, SE seems to create the basic conditions for action (Reezigt and Creemers, 2005; Plowright, 2007; Sun, Creemers and Hong, 2007; Campbell and Levin, 2009; Coe, 2009; Hofman, Dijkstra and Hofman, 2009). It is precisely at this point that SE and the curricular processes are related. On the one hand, there are demands concerning these processes in how they should be conceived and developed and what should be achieved; on the other hand, ideally school evaluation gathers information that allows to ensure that the demands are being considered and if not, why and how to overcome it.

**The curricular processes in the school external evaluation, in Portugal**

Throughout the previous section we’ve argued that school evaluation processes should contemplate the totality of school’s reality, including attention paid to curricular practices. Accepting that, and considering that this paper focuses on the case of Portugal, it seems logical to present some details on this matter.

A first aspect to be addressed relates to the main aim of SEE, in Portugal. According to the official information provided in the General Inspectorate of Education and Science website17, SEE aims at promoting the progress of students’ learning and students’ results, through the identification of strong features and areas of priority intervention in school’s work.

The Portuguese process of schools external evaluation combines a set of different techniques to collect and analyse information. A first step is dedicated to statistical analysis of pupils’ academic results. A second step is the analysis of key documents provided by the school clusters, such as the educational project, the statutes, the presentation document, the self-evaluation report, and other relevant documents. The third step is a visit to the school cluster, lasting an average of 3 days, during which the evaluation team gathers information directly with the community and observes the infrastructures. Most of the time of the visit is dedicated to conducting interviews in panels with different school actors, grouped by the role they play in school functioning. The interviews cover a range of aspects outlined in the evaluation framework.

The framework serves as a guide for the process of evaluation, to be followed by the teams. In this document are stated the domains, indicators and items to address and answer to through the SEE. It is the framework that allows the team to develop the evaluation process, focusing on what is considered to be essential in schools’ functioning. The framework covers three main aspects: 1) results; 2) provision of the educational service; and 3) leadership and management. This is particularly evident in the domain *Provision of the educational service*, has represented in figure 5.

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There are other important aspects under attention during the SEE, which are not of curricular nature, but for the purposes of this paper we are only focusing on the ones that relegate to curricular practices.

By the end of the evaluation process, the team produces a report in which are presented the conclusion of the above described activities and a classification is given to each of the three domains. Also, some recommendations are made through the identification of strong features and improvement areas. The final phase is of the responsibility of schools, which have to produce an improvement plan, addressing the problematic areas and planning the actions to solve the problems identified in the SEE.

Based solely on the process and the framework, and bearing in mind the primary goal of SEE in Portugal, it seems possible to assume that the evaluation also aims at promoting the improvement and progress of curricular practices. Nonetheless, this relationship may not be that clear, and impact of SEE in the development of improvement measures seems yet to be fully understood. Here lies the justification for this study, which intends to identify the actual measures taken, if any, in schools as a result of school external evaluation, from the point of view of the educational institutions.

**Methodological procedure**

The methodological approach followed a qualitative orientation for gathering and analysing the data. The data was collected in 7 school clusters in the Portuguese continental territory, chosen according to pre-established criteria. In these school clusters the data collection had two phases: one of field work, through interviews and focus groups with key informants from school clusters selected for this study; one dedicated to documental analysis.
Field work

Selection of school clusters and key informants

Having the main intention of understanding relationship between the SEE processes and the improvements made in curricular processes, a first criterion for schools’ selection was that they were target of external evaluation in both SEE cycles. A second one was to identify schools which have improved and schools which have worsened or maintained their classifications, from the first SEE cycle to the second SEE cycle. This criterion could reveal the impact of SEE in the improvements made or, otherwise, not made.

The process of selection started with a search on the General Inspectorate of Education and Science website of all the schools that were evaluated in both SEE cycles. This resulted in the selection of 53 school clusters, 37 which have improved and 16 that either maintained the classifications or had lower classifications from the 1st to the 2nd SEE cycle.

From these 53 school clusters a new search was made focusing on the ones that had the biggest increase in the SEE classifications and the schools that had the biggest decrease in the classifications. This process resulted in the selection of 11 schools, which were invited to be part of this study. From the 11 schools selected, only 7 accepted the invitation, 4 which showed an improvement in the SEE classifications and 3 that lowered the classifications.

Regarding the key informants, and recalling the aim of the study, it seemed that the best option was to hear members of the school staff that had: 1) experienced school external evaluation; 2) a prominent place in school organisation and, therefore, play a part in the definition and implementation of any improvement strategies. It was considered that the school members who better suited these criteria were school Head teachers and school Heads of Department.

Gathering and analysing the data

The data was gathered through semi structured interviews with the Headteachers and through focus group interviews with the group of Heads of Department of each of the 7 school clusters.

The interviews, though semi structured, as well as the discussion in the focus groups, followed a pre-determined script which covered a range of different aspects related to SEE and its effects in the implementation of improvement measures. In general, the scripts developed around 1) the overall perception on the school evaluation policies and processes; 2) the main effects, positive or negative, that school evaluation brought to schools; 3) the advantages and disadvantages of school evaluation. A note should be made that the scripts, although pre-determined, were not closed to changes. In many occasions the flow of the conversation brought other aspects to the interviews (Bogdan & Biklen, 1994) and focus groups (Greenbaum, 1998).

The interviews were conducted in the school clusters’ headquarters, place familiar and comfortable for the interviewees, aiming to establish a friendly environment for the conversation to occur. The audio of the interviews was recorded, and later transcribed to text for analysis purposes.
The analysis was made through a process of content analysis Krippendorff (2003), using the software NVivo 10. An analysis framework was developed for this process, accordingly with the interview scripts. Nonetheless, the framework was open to adjustments, which was made to meet the nature of the data and information gathered. In this paper the focus is on the data regarding the changes resulting from SEE at curricular levels.

**Documental analysis**

The field work was complemented by a process of documental analysis. This process enabled the identification of some specific measures undertaken or to be implemented in the school clusters, as a result of SEE. The documents chosen are the ones which are a direct consequence of SEE processes, namely, the improvement plans. The analysis focused on the strategies related to curricular practices. Also, attention was paid to the SEE reports in order to identify what was recommended in terms of the curricular processes.

The results of this study are presented and discussed in the following section.

**Data presentation and discussion**

By the end of the analysis it was possible to draw some conclusions on the relation between the school external evaluation processes experienced by the schools in this study and the improvement measures in terms of curricular practices. The data from the different sources are very consistent and in line with each other as the following subsections will demonstrate.

A first aspect to address in this section regards to the recommendation for curricular practices, present in the SEE reports. The reports from the 1st SEE cycle covered, in terms of the curricular practices, areas such as the curricular articulation between disciplines and school levels; the processes of classroom supervision and monitoring; and experimental teaching and learning strategies:

«The inexistence of an articulated curricular management process between all school levels» (AGE 10_1SEE Report)

«The diminished articulation between departments and school levels» (AGE 2_1SEE Report)

«The weak interdepartmental articulation» (AGE 3_1SEE Report)

«The fragile curricular articulation between the different school levels» (AGE6_1SEE Report)

«The inexistence of a structured, systematic and intentional process of classroom supervision» (AGE 3_1SEE Report)

«The inexistence of monitoring for the classroom practices, which does not contribute to knowledge and the development of practices able to help students at risk» (AGE7_1SEE Report)

«The inexistence of direct supervision and observation of classroom practices» (AGE5_1SEE Report)

«The lack of classroom supervision and monitoring» (AGE6_1SEE Report)

«The insufficient experimental teaching in sciences…» (AGE 2_1SEE Report)
Regarding the second cycle of SEE, there is a generalised trend in the reports’ recommendations, which is related to the classroom supervision practices. All reports from the 7 schools emphasised schools’ need to create, implement or, in only two cases, the consolidation of supervision processes.

«The monitoring and classroom supervision as a strategy for teachers’ professional development» (AGE4_2SEE Report)

«Monitoring and supervising the classroom practices, hence promoting and improving the professional development [of teachers]» (AGE5_2SEE Report)

«The implementation of generalised classroom supervision mechanisms, able to identify and disseminate good practices and the systematic reflexion about the implemented strategies» (AGE6_2SEE Report)

«The promotion of planned and systematic classroom supervision procedures, as a strategy for professional development, for improving the quality of planning and for dissemination of good practices» (AGE7_2SEE Report)

«The consolidation of classroom supervision dynamics as a means for [teachers’] professional development» (AGE2_2SEE Report)

«The monitoring and classroom supervision practices, as a means of sharing knowledge and experiences, of generalising the best practices and, consequently, contribute to [teachers’] professional development» (AGE3_2SEE Report)

«The generalisation of the observation of teaching and learning activities as a means for improving the educative action and [teachers’] professional development» (AGE10_2SEE Report)

There were no significant differences between school clusters which improved from the 1st to the 2nd cycle of SEE and schools that had lower classifications in the second external evaluation. However, in the first cycle, only four schools were advised to develop such processes. Which led to two questions: 1) is the classroom supervision a generalised flaw in schools functioning?; or 2) is it a somewhat renewed concern to which evaluation agencies and politicians are now paying extra attention and, therefore pressure schools to do it?; and even, 3) and if it was already a problem for some schools in the 1st SEE, why did it remained in the 2nd cycle? Nonetheless, all of the schools in this study seem to have failed or, at least, to not have achieved the desired level, according to the SEE conclusions.

The other recommendations cover different aspects of curricular practices, such as the adoption of experimental practices and project/research based methodologies and the curricular articulation.

«Use, in a more systematic way, active and experimental teaching and learning methodologies, aiming to create more stimulation and meaningful learning opportunities» (AGE 4_2SEE Report)

«The adoption and generalisation of active methodologies and project methodology as a means to value the teaching and learning processes» (AGE5_2SEE Report)

«To consolidate and reinforce the curriculum articulation practices... in order to support learning and improve results» (AGE10_2SEE Report)
Looking at the information on SEE reports, it is interesting to notice that few, if not none, recommendations are made towards the actual teaching and learning practices inside classrooms. The only evident concern regards to experimental approaches. So a question arises on how deep is the evaluation in terms of classroom practices? And, consequently, how can it help to improve them?

The relationship according to the documents

It was previously mentioned that schools are obliged to produce an improvement plan as a consequence of the SEE and to respond to the school external evaluation report. It was, therefore, expectable to find explicit links between what is stated in these documents and the SEE reports. A note should be made here that, since the improvements plans are an obligation only in the 2nd SEE cycle, it was not expected to find references to aspects from the 1st SEE report.

For the 7 schools in this study, improvement plans revealed two main aspects to be improved, regarding mostly the organisation of teachers’ work. These aspects are related to improving the articulation between school years, departments and disciplines, and with the processes of classroom supervision. There are also some actions planned regarding classroom activities which are mostly dedicated to increase the experimental classroom practices.

There were two actions regarding the experimental activities and project based methodologies from two school clusters:

«Action 2 active and experimental teaching and learning processes» (AGE4)
«Priority 2 to expand the use of experimental and active teaching and learning practices and project driven activities» (AGE5)

Two schools included actions towards curricular articulation:

«Action 3 the integrated [articulated] development of the teaching and learning process and systematisation of class workplans» (AGE6)
«Priority 2 to improve the vertical articulation between the different learning cycles, mostly regarding the disciplines of Portuguese and Mathematics» (AGE7)

The supervision of classroom practices is the most common theme in the improvement plans:

«Priority 3 to promote practices of classroom supervision in students’ assessment» (AGE5)
«Action 3 classroom supervision practices» (AGE4)
«Action 4 teaching and learning supervision» (AGE3)
«Action 4 to implement measures for supervising teaching and learning in classroom» (AGE6)
«Priority 4 classroom supervision – to improve pedagogical practices» (AGE7)
However, it is interesting to notice that, despite the fact that classroom supervision was identified as a problem in all schools, only 5 schools included actions addressing this matter, in their improvement plans. A question arises from this on the whether schools are resisting supervision, and why is that.

What the data shows, regarding the documents, is that there is a strong relationship between what is expressed in school external evaluation reports and what is included in the improvement plans. Nevertheless, these plans also reveal some kind of restraint, from schools, to address a pressing matter, the one of classroom supervision.

The relationship according to the Headmasters

When asked to identify some changes and improvements made in the curricular processes, as a result of SEE, the Headmasters discourse is in line with one from the documents. Headmasters identify as main improvements matter of classroom supervision practices, which started to be implemented or are planned to be started in a near future, very much like the recommendations in the SEE reports.

«... regarding classroom supervision we are trying. Almost all our classes have two teachers...» (H_AGE4)

«There is a weakness, nationally, regarding classroom supervision. And we are trying to do something about it in our improvement plan...» (H_AGE7)

«The main weakness is classroom supervision. We have not done much about this yet... but next year I'll be starting the process again» (H_AGE6)

However, all of these schools – AGE 4, AGE 6 and AGE 7 – are still trying and experimenting classroom supervision. This, again, reinforces the question of why supervision is such a delicate matter and why are schools resisting or delaying it.

Headteachers also referred some changes in teaching practices and classroom approaches per se, but these seem to be much less deep and less emphasised.

«... the articulation between departments and cycles... teachers collaboration practices it all resulted from the SEE...» (H_AGE3)

«There are four actions... what we are working is, mainly, active teaching and learning methodologies...» (H_AGE5)

«We had our curriculum, our curricular adaptations, however there was no official document framing our curriculum. Now we do have it» (H_AGE6).

A look upon the Headteachers discourse led to conclude that the main improvements made are in terms of the organisation of teachers work, in more of a formalisation of the practices. This raises the question of whether the SEE is, in fact, helping to improvement teaching and learning processes and, consequently, curricular processes. It also raises if the impact of SEE is merely at a formal level.
The relationship according to the Heads of Department

Before the same question, the Heads of Department emphasised the same aspects already referred by Headmasters and present in the documents. Mostly, they identify the improvement in articulation processes and classroom supervision practices. In addition, they also identify the improvement in the collaborative work between teachers, the sharing of experiences, materials, etc..

«The articulation between cycles is also better» (HeadDep2_AGE7)

«The work in terms of the articulation between cycles increased, meaning that there is a better communication network than before» (HeadDep3_AGE2)

«the articulation between cycles started to be more systematic and more formal» (HeadDep2_AGE4).

«… [according to the SEE] we should go and supervise lessons which gave place to a project…» (HeadDep3_AGE5)

«… another indicator was the issue of classroom supervision … We tried to establish this process in a very informal way…» (HeadDep5_AGE10).

«… [teachers] share more than before, because we did not used to do it… there is a better connection between everyone. Collaborative work increased» (HeadDep3_AGE6)

«The school is making efforts to increase collaborative work practices…» (HeadDep3_AGE3)

It is interesting to notice that the Heads of Department give more emphasis to the articulation between cycles, disciplines and departments than to the supervision, when identifying what has changed as a result of SEE. Again, supervision seems not to be a major change in schools’ dynamics, despite its centrality in SEE reports. And, again, regarding the classroom activities, the discourse reveals somewhat superficial changes made:

«…one weakness was the lack of experimental activities and this gave place to projects (HeadDep1_AGE2)

«The creation of study groups which was great for students» (HeadDep2_AGE4).

This data reinforces the doubt concerning the actual contribute of SEE to improve teaching and learning within classrooms.

Final remarks

The data revealed 5 main aspects which improved as a result of school external evaluation and the information provided.

The main improvement happened in the processes of curriculum articulation. Each school revealed that efforts were made in developing more articulated curricular processes, both within the different levels of school education as well as within different disciplines. These are particularly emphasised by the Heads of Department. Another aspect identified by them was the collaborative work between teachers, sharing experiences, materials and working together as a team.
The classroom supervision processes are a major aspect contemplated in SEE reports and improvement plans, but not so much in the discourse of Headteachers and Heads of Department. According to the interviewees this is an aspect that is currently changing and seems to be the one schools delayed the most but were, in the end, forced to address. Nonetheless, it is a recurring issue schools seem to be failing at, which in turn raises questions such as: why? Are schools resisting it? Are schools struggling to overcome it? If so, isn’t SEE supposed to be supporting the change?

And finally, there is the matter of the actual pedagogical practices and initiatives such as the development of projects and other classroom actions. These seem to be almost absent of the discourses, of both documents and interviewees, which is a concern given the SEE intention of promoting the quality of education, which entails deeply and greatly the curricular practices.

It is also interesting to notice that there was no significant differences in the discourse of the schools which are evolved from the 1st to the 2nd SEE cycle. All schools seem to have experienced the same changes and seem to be facing similar problems. What does this mean, then? Are all schools at the same level in terms of the curricular practices?

Other questions seem to arise from this study and need to be further addressed: 1) Is it possible for SEE to improve actual curricular practices in classroom environment?; 2) Are the actions within the improvement plans being effectively implemented?

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External School Evaluation: Teachers’ perspectives – two case studies from Northern Portugal

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The external evaluation of non-higher education schools in Portugal has been developed by the General Inspectorate of Education since 2006. A first cycle of evaluation was completed, covering all educational units in continental Portugal up to 2011. The model of evaluation has since been subject to alterations, and a second cycle of evaluation is now coming to an end. The current model of evaluation is based on documental analysis, analysis of students’ results, and panel interviews with a variety of representatives of the school community, and addresses three domains: results, provision of educational service and management.

This paper is part of an ongoing research project, developed by 6 universities and supported by the Portuguese Foundation for Science and Technology (PTDC/CPE-CED/116674/2010) which intends to analyse the impacts and effects this process of external evaluation has had on Portuguese schools. This project includes a variety of perspectives and methodologies.

In particular, we will focus on two case studies undertaken in two schools from the northern region of Portugal, and more specifically on the perspectives expressed by the teachers of those schools. These particular schools were chosen because they have been evaluated twice and represent different educational levels (basic and secondary), contexts and results. These case studies included the analysis of documental data, interviews to key informants and a questionnaire directed to teachers (n = 141) – the latter will be the main focus of this paper.

Teachers are essential elements of the school community when considering the impacts of external evaluation, as any changes directed at teaching practices, student evaluation, among others are only possible through their direct action and implication. Therefore, their perceptions on the process and its impacts are crucial to the understanding of what does and does not change in schools as a consequence of external evaluation.

Although teachers’ opinions are not homogenous and each school reveals a number of differences when it comes to teachers’ perceptions of School Evaluation, it was possible to stress some areas as the most and as the least consensual. Teachers in both schools agree External School Evaluation (ESE) is useful for the identification of the schools’ strengths and weaknesses, values students’ external evaluation results, imposes a model for schools internal evaluation (and in fact contributes to the very existence of internal evaluation practices), and contributes to schools improvement. However teachers in both schools do not believe ESE contributes to teachers’ autonomy produces changes in how curriculum is managed, or leads to innovative teaching practices.

These results point to a greater emphasis on change at the levels of school management, self-evaluation and particularly internal evaluation, but little impact on the teaching practices. We believe the classroom is at the core of school practices and teaching processes are essential to any measure of school quality and to their impacts on student learning.
Introduction

The External Evaluation of non-Higher Education Schools (ESE) in Portugal has been developed by the General Inspectorate of Education since 2006. Its first cycle was concluded in 2011 and encompassed all the educational units (schools and school clusters) of mainland Portugal. The evaluation model that underlies this process has undergone some changes, and currently the second cycle of ESE is approaching its end.

The current ESE model is based on documental analysis, analysis of the students' academic achievement, and panel interviews with representatives of the school community. It focuses on three domains: results, provision of the educational service and educational management.

This chapter is a part of a recently concluded research project, which was developed by six Portuguese universities and was supported by the National Foundation for Science and Technology (PTDC/CPE-CED 116674/2010). This project analyzed the impacts and effects brought about by the ESE process in Portuguese schools, and to that effect a variety of perspectives and methodologies were used.

This chapter is centered on two case studies that took place in two very different schools from Northern Portugal, and in particular on the perspectives of the teachers who work at those schools. These particular schools were chosen because they have been subject to ESE twice, because they were schools of different levels (basic and secondary), because they were situated in different contexts and taking into consideration the results obtained when subject to ESE. The case studies included the analysis of documental data, interviews with key informants and a questionnaire aimed at the schools’ teachers (n=141) – the latter will be the focus of our present analysis.

1. External School Evaluation in Portugal

In most contemporary, complex plural societies, with a variety of institutions, evaluation and assessment have been recognized as essential mechanisms both internally – allowing the structures to self-assess, look into themselves and become aware of their modes of functioning – and externally – contributing, in this case to scrutinize the internal evaluation and assess the impact and effects those organizations produce in the context they are part of.

This acknowledgement of the potentials of evaluation has been reinforced by the fact that many countries are experiencing processes of democratic consolidation which lead to the questioning of the functions and performances of public organizations and workers, associated with accountability. This has become an inevitable practice and is common in many countries (Pais, 2002). This may help to justify the great emphasis on evaluation which is currently taking place and is present in discourses which repeatedly state the need for the development of evaluation and self-evaluation cultures. This may be a positive aspiration, if it leads to the production of insights which help people and organizations become more aware of their potentials and their deficits, stimulate people’s personal and professional development, (re)contextualize work processes and improve the services or products which are offered.

In Portugal, ESE can be framed in the perspective which we described. After a period during which school autonomy was given a lot of importance, school accountability and responsibilization before society have gained momentum. ESE was designed in order to answer those goals.
Yet, along with these potentials, ESE presupposes risks which were framed largely in what was described by Ball (2004) as a performativity culture, in which the control logic is more prevalent than intentions for change and to the construction of autonomy. In this sense, the educational actors’ concerns tend to become focused on external behaviors which can be measured and are subject to evaluation, rather than on less visible procedures which are as important, or even more so, to the school’s mission.

The OECD adds a different perspective to add complexity to this analysis when stating the effects of ESE are not homogenous, instead, they have “differing impact on schools and that certain conditions are associated with schools accepting and acting on feedback from external school evaluation” (OECD, 2013, p. 288; Pacheco, Seabra & Morgado, 2014). Paying attention to the different ways in which schools respond to this process, several potential effects can be described, including: i) discursive or procedural effect; ii) partial or structural effect; iii) exogenous or endogenous effect; iv) positive or negative effect; v) intended or collateral effect (Ehren, Altrichter, McNamara & O’Hara, 2012; Pacheco, Seabra & Morgado, 2014). This perspective cautions against simplistic interpretations of the effects of ESE.

As we mentioned earlier, ESE in its current form began in 2006 (CNE, 2010), and the Ministry of Education (ME, later Ministry of Education and Science, MES), through the General Inspectorate of Education (GIE, later General Inspectorate of Education and Science, GIES) have managed and conducted the process. The ME justified this decision stressing aspects related to the quality of practices and academic achievement, the need to stimulate and evaluate the schools’ self-evaluation culture, the schools’ capacity to assume their autonomy, the need to regulate the functioning of the educational system, accountability before society and the participation of the educational community in school matters. Thus, ESE assumed as main goals:

- To promote in schools a systematic questioning on the quality of their practices and results;
- To articulate the contributions of external evaluation with the schools’ self-evaluation culture and practices;
- To reinforce the schools’ capacity to develop their autonomy;
- To concur to the regulation of the educational system’s functioning;
- To contribute to a better knowledge of schools and the public educational service, contributing to increase the social participation in the lives of schools (GIE, 2009:7).

Nine years after the beginning of this process, which is now approaching the end of the 2nd cycle, a great deal of its goals seem to have been fulfilled, creating a number of changes within schools as some of the studies under this project have revealed. Those changes were most notable at the levels of school self-evaluation, educational service and elaboration of plans for improvement. We now intend to look into the teachers’ perspectives on the process and the changes it has promoted. Teachers are privileged interpreters for any change and improvement to take place in the schools, as they are directly involved in some of the most crucial processes.

It was based on these purposes that the research team undertook a number of case studies, two of which we will present. Besides helping to cross-validate some data previously gathered from other sources and methods at a wider scale, they allow us to listen to voices of teachers and to question to what extent the ESE process has contributed to consolidate their autonomy, or if by the contrary, it has led to processes of control and performativity. These studies also helped us to understand which changes teachers perceive as most relevant at the curricular,
pedagogical and organizational levels as a consequence of their schools’ external evaluation and to look at those impacts within specific contexts.

2. Methodology

The results presented were obtained through a questionnaire answered by teachers from both case studies. As we have mentioned earlier, teachers are a privileged group of agents in any school as they are key elements in evaluative processes, in which they take part both as subjects and as objects.

The questionnaire includes 5 blocks of questions, comprising 6 items each, and answers were expressed in a 5 levels Likert scale. The blocks of items focused on different areas which might be affected by ESE, namely changes at the school, changes in curriculum, changes in the classroom, changes in self-evaluation, and changes in the community. A final question was included, allowing teachers to express their opinion on the current model of ESE as a whole (Morgado & Seabra, 2015).

Data were gathered anonymously, in order to preserve the rights of participants. Ethical procedures were taken into account, including informed consent, voluntary participation, and anonymity. Data were statistically treated and are only presented in aggregated form (Lima, 2006; SPCE, 2014).

2.1. Participants

In the first school (Case Study 1/ CS 1) 55 teachers answered the questionnaire. A significant majority were female (76%), about half were between the 41 and 50 years old (46%) and had between 20 and 30 years teaching experience (45%), which allows us to conclude this school has a stable teaching body.

Most participants have an undergraduate degree (68%), although a significant number have a master’s degree or another postgraduate degree (30%). Only 2% have bachelor’s degrees.

Most the respondents are currently or were once in charge of offices at the school, most frequently offices as class director, curricular department coordinator, and member of the general council. Most teachers were interviewed during the ESE visits, in the first (54%7%) and second (56,8%) cycles of evaluation.

In the second school (Case Study 2/CS 2), 86 teachers answered the questionnaire, a slight majority of whom of the female gender (56%). The majority of the respondents were between ages 41 and 50 (56,5%) and had between 20 and 30 years teaching experience (66,7%), revealing a very stable teaching board.

The majority of participants hold undergraduate degrees (66,3%), and 32,5% hold post-graduate degrees.

All the respondents teach secondary level classes (grades 10th through 12th) as this is a secondary school. The vast majority of participants hold or have held offices at the school between 2006 and 2014 (98,9%). Also, a majority were part of the interviews that took place during the first (54,7%) and second (56,8%) cycles of ESE.
2.2 Contexts

CS1 is a cluster of schools situated in the district of Viana do Castelo, in the North coastal region of Portugal. It has a broad educational offer, ranging from preschool education (age 3) to the term of basic education (age 15 and plus). The cluster includes 4 preschools (ages 3 to 6), 4 1st cycle schools (ages 6 to 10) and one basic school of the 2nd and 3rd cycles (ages 10 to 15 and plus).

Considering the social context of this school, only 2% of parents had higher education degrees and 9% secondary or higher education. Over 50% of the students are beneficiaries of social support.

The school has about 1000 students, approximately 100 teachers, 30 technical assistants, and 50 operational assistants.

In the 1st cycle of ESE the school was appraised at the levels of sufficient in 4 domains (Results, Educational Service, School Management and Organization and Capacity for Self-regulation and Improvement) and good in one domain (Leadership). They presented a contradictory report, disagreeing with opinions expressed in the ESE report.

In the 2nd cycle of ESE, it was accredited with the mentions of Good in 2 domains (Educational Service and Results) and Very Good in one domain (Leadership and Management). The cluster presented a contradictory, as they disagreed with the mention attributed to the domain of Results (Rodrigues, et al, 2015).

CS2 is a secondary level school, located in the district of Braga, Northern Portugal. It has an autonomy contract and its educational offer is at the secondary level, including scientific-humanistic courses (the majority of the school’s students), professional courses and adult education courses.

Considering the social context, 3% have higher education and 15% secondary or higher education. Slightly less than half of the students benefit from social supports.

The school had over 1200 students, 130 teachers, and 30 operational and technical assistants at the moment of the later evaluation.

In the 1st cycle of ESE the school was appraised as Good in 4 domains (Results, Educational Service, School Management and Organization and Leadership) and Very Good in one domain (Capacity for Self-regulation and Improvement). They presented a contradictory report, not based on substantial divergences but rather suggestions of improvement.

In the 2nd cycle of ESE they were given the classification of Very Good in all three domains (Results, Educational Service and Leadership and Management), and presented a contradictory report focusing on the time constraints of the ESE process and disagreeing with specific facts (Idem).

3. Teachers’ perspectives on the impacts of ESE

The participants’ responses were organized according to the structuring dimensions defined when constructing the data gathering instrument: changes at the school level, changes in curriculum, changes in the classroom, changes in self-evaluation, changes in the relation with the community, and agreement with the ESE model.
3.1. Changes at the school level

Data concerning this dimension and CS 1 are presented in graphic 1. The analysis of those results allows us to conclude that, when inquired on the changes produced by ESE at the school level, the majority of the respondents (63%) agreed it has allowed the school to acknowledge its strengths and weaknesses. This may eventually be a first step towards improvement of the school’s quality (53.7% of respondents agree with ESE’s impact, at this level).

![Graphic 1](image)

Graphic 1 – CS 1 teachers’ opinions concerning changes in the school brought about by ESE

However, their opinions are not as positive when addressing ESE’s impact on the construction of the school’s identity (49.1% disagree), or the promotion of teachers’ involvement with the school’s projects (49.1% disagree). There is a rather divided opinion concerning ESE’s impacts on the way in which the school is managed, since a large percentage of teachers disagree (40.4%) but a still considerable percentage (35.6%) agree.

In short, data reveal a certain ambiguity in the positions assumed by the teachers and we can infer that at the school level, the changes teachers recognize more clearly as effects of ESE concerned the acknowledgment of the school’s strengths and weaknesses. Contributions to the consolidation of the school’s identity, teacher involvement and changes in the way the school is managed were not clearly recognized.

Data expressing the changes perceived to be a result of the ESE process at the school level, by teachers of CS 2 are presented in graphic 2.
Graphic 2 – CS 2 teachers’ opinions concerning changes in the school brought about by ESE

The analysis of the graphic allows us to verify there are positive perceptions concerning ESE’s impact on the identification of strengths and weaknesses (74.4%), the improvement of quality (59.5%) and the construction of the school’s identity (53.5%).

However opinions were very divided in relation to ESE’s impact on the promotion of teachers’ involvement in school projects, the involvement of teachers in the process and the promotion of changes in terms of school management. In fact, a considerable percentage of teachers consider ESE did not involve teachers (43.4%) which may negatively influence teachers’ perceptions of the process’s impact on the work of teachers and managers.

3.2. Curriculum Changes

The teachers’ positions are stronger, and more negative, when asked about the changes ESE brought about at the curricular level.

Data gathered in CS1 (as shown on graphic 3) reveals most teachers consider ESE did not contribute to stimulate collaborative work among teachers, improve their teaching practices, including planning and evaluation and assessment. They also don’t recognize an impact on how the curriculum is managed within the school.

The same is the case for curricular autonomy, since a wide majority of respondents consider ESE did not take into account the autonomy they possess (or should possess) concerning curriculum development, and didn’t contribute to the widening of such an autonomy.

Curriculum articulation is the only aspect which escapes this negative view on the impacts of ESE on curriculum, although opinions are divided among those who consider ESE has contributed to improve articulation between teaching levels and cycles (42.6%) and those who disagree (46.3%).
CS2 teachers (Graphic 4) also manifest a degree of disagreement with the assertions which constitute this category. However, besides impacts on the articulation between levels/cycles (37.7% disagree and 32.9% agree), some impacts at the level of collaborative curricular practices are recognized (33.4% disagree, while 34.5% agree), as teachers’ opinions are clearly divided on these two subjects.

Nevertheless, similarly to what was noted in CS1, the majority of teachers disagree that ESE has contributed to teachers’ curricular autonomy (55.8%) or indeed recognized it (41.2% disagree and only 23.5% agree); relevant percentages also disagree ESE has had an impact on curriculum management (46.6%), or teachers’ curricular practices (48.2%).

CS2 teachers also expressed a lot of indecision when assessing these issues, with percentages of indecision ranging from 23.5% to 35.3%.

Graphic 3 – CS 1 teachers’ opinions concerning changes in curriculum brought about by ESE
In general, teachers are rather pessimistic when considering the impacts of ESE on curriculum matters, although there are notable exceptions, focused mainly on articulation practices.

### 3.3. Pedagogical changes

The third category concerned changes in the classroom practices as a consequence of ESE.

In CS1 (Graphic 5), the majority of teachers agreed ESE contributed to placing greater value on external evaluation of students’ learning (64,1%). Other aspects concerning evaluation caused a division of opinions, namely placing greater value on summative rather that formative evaluation (38,9% agree, and 31,5% disagree), and the standardizing (40,8% agree and 31,5% disagree). These levels of agreement were not mirrored in any other of the items: teachers disagree ESE has contributed to the improvement of teacher practices (57,4%), to the collaborative elaboration of tests (55,5%), or to the implementation of innovative teaching and learning processes (61,1%).

![Graphic 4 – CS 2 teachers’ opinions concerning changes in curriculum brought about by ESE](image-url)
CS2 teachers (Graphic 6), like their CS1 counterparts, agree expressively (69.8%) that ESE has impacted the valuing of students’ external evaluation. A relevant percentage (44.2%) also agreed it contributed to the valuing of summative rather than formative evaluation of students’ learning. Once again, teachers consider that the emphasis on students’ evaluation, mainly summative and external, has been the main change brought about by ESE at the pedagogical level.

The focus on external evaluation of students’ learning, rather than teaching practices may be a clue to teachers’ perception that ESE places greater value on accountability than change and improvement. Despite political and ideological motivations which may be related to an overvaluing of students’ results, Quintas and Vitorino (2013, p. 13) consider this tendency stems mostly from the fact that the seconds cycle of ESE is oriented towards “the analysis of academic achievement and of the factors which, depending on the school, contribute to that achievement”. In fact, whereas in the first cycle of ESE there was an attempt to enable schools to know themselves “in a logic of reinforcement of self-evaluation practices that were to be consolidated” (Quintas & Vitorino, 2013, p. 13), the second cycle (re)centered the process on students’ learning, sometimes relegating to a second plane crucial aspects for the schools’ improvement and change.
Teachers have also drawn a negative picture concerning the impacts of ESE on other aspects of pedagogical practice, such as implementing innovative teaching practices (48.2% disagree and 21.2% agree), the improvement of teaching practices in general (46.4% disagree and 25.0% agree); doing tests with colleagues (44.2% disagree and 29.1% agree) or the joint definition of criteria for assessment (44.2% disagree and 29.1% agree).

We may summarize the results, concluding the aspects of teachers’ practice more closely related to teaching and learning as well as improvement were the ones where teachers recognized less of an impact from ESE. Considering one of ESE’s main objectives is precisely to contribute to the improvement of schools’ work, and considering pedagogical practices are at the heart of such work, this is an aspect which calls for particular reflection.

These results may lead us to pose a controversial question: is the relative immutability of teaching practices a reflex of the lack of teaching practice observation? Aspects related to the accompaniment of in-class teaching practices have been identified as a weakness or area for improvement in many schools, on ESE reports.

### 3.4. Changes in Self-Evaluation

A global analysis of CS1’s teachers’ perspectives allows us to conclude that school self-evaluation is the one area where the impact of ESE is more strongly recognized (Graphic 4). In fact, most teachers consider ESE has contributes to the very existence of the school’s self-evaluation (62.3%), having even “imposed” a given model of self-evaluation (66.1%).
Teachers also consider that, in addition to valuing the work of the school’s self-evaluation team (49%), ESE contributed to the elaboration of a plan for school improvement (75.9%) and to continuously implement such a plan (61.1%).

Only one item included in this block of questions was met with divergent opinions – the one concerning parallel relation between self-evaluation and external evaluation (35.2% agree and 31.5% disagree).

CS2 teachers express similar tendencies, although there are much higher levels of indecisiveness, reaching 50% of all answers.

Nevertheless, some effects of ESE on self-evaluation are expressively recognized, including the elaboration of a plan for improvement (71.8%), and the very existence of a self-evaluation process in the school (65.4%). Most teachers also agree ESE has imposed a particular model of self-evaluation on the school (59.5%) and that it contributes to the continuous nature of the school’s improvement plan (54.1%).
However, and similarly to what was expressed by CS1 teachers, they were very divided concerning the parallel relation between ESE and the school’s self-evaluation process (41.2% indecisive and 36.5% agree). Unlike their CS1 counterparts, they were also unsure of how much ESE valued the work of the self-evaluation team (50% indecisive and 31.0% agree).

Taking into account the systematization proposed by Alvik (1997, In. Quintas & Vitorino, 2013) concerning the different formats that the relation between self-evaluation and ESE may assume, we believe in the present case self-evaluation was mostly parallel to ESE, as both processes concur to the schools’ improvement plans.

To summarize, in the teachers’ opinions ESE seems to have had a clear influence on the existence of a self-evaluation process in both schools, as well as for the model which was implemented, and the existence and continuity of a plan for improvement.

3.5. Changes in the relation with the community

The fifth group of questions asked teachers to position themselves about potential changes in the relation between the school and the community it is part of, in consequence of the ESE process (Graphic 9).

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18 The author identifies three formats for this relation: 1) parallel relation – when both the external entity and the school conduct their respective evaluations, and may later share and compare their conclusions; b) sequential relation – when the school produces its self-evaluation and external evaluation happens afterward and is based on it (this may lead the external entity to give the school feedback and conclusions upon which it may elaborate); 3) cooperative relation – when both parties discuss and negotiate the process, taking into account different interests and points of view.
Data reveals some changes have been recognized in the relation between CS1 and the surrounding community. Teachers consider ESE has made information available to parents about the strengths and weaknesses of the school (46,3%) and has contributed to reveal some collaboration practices with the community (42,6%).

Results also show that teachers recognize that within their institution marketing strategies were developed aiming to promote the school in the context that surrounds it (42,6%), although a considerable number consider ESE has not promoted an effective relation between the school and the community (46,3%). This may be explained, when considering other data from the case studies (Rodrigues et al., 2015) that this interaction preceded ESE and was not an effect thereof, as some of the interviewees expressed. That may also help to explain why a considerable number of teachers (38,9%) consider ESE has not brought about a debate on the quality of schools (38,9%) and don’t consider ESE to be a relevant process to society (40,7%).

We should also note that CS1 teachers’ perspectives concerning this topic were substantially divided – no position obtained 50% or more of the answers.

CS 2 teachers expressed a more optimistic perspective on this matter. In particular, they consider ESE has made information available to parents on the strengths and weaknesses of the school (62,8%), it has contributed to the development of marketing strategies to increase the school’s reputation (54,7%) and to promote the debate on the quality of schools (55,8%) (Graphic 10).
Teachers are however more divided when it comes to the revealing of collaborative practices (43,0%) or their promotion (36,1%). A large amount of teachers also consider ESE is a socially relevant process (45,2%).

In this school seems to have had recognizable impacts on the image the school projects, both by the information made available to parents and the implementation of marketing strategies. An impact on the debate around the concept of quality is also recognized. However, ESE is not clearly recognized as having had impacts on the actual promotion or recognition of collaborative practices involving the school’s surroundings.

This subject was clearly felt quite differently in each of the case studies, which underlines the variety of responses from particular schools to the same process.

### 3.6. Agreement with the current ESE model

At the end of the questionnaire, a single question was introduced asking teachers to express their level of agreement with the current ESE model. The results from both schools are presented in graphic 11.
Once again data from CS1 and CS2 differ considerably.

The majority of CS1 teachers don’t agree or are only slightly in agreement with the model of ESSE which is currently being implemented (55.3%). 41% moderately agree with the model. The higher levels of agreement were clearly not very represented among this school’s teachers. To summarize, agreement with the model among CS1 teachers is low to moderate.

The majority of CS2 teachers agree moderately with the model, and a considerable percentage (17.3%) were even very much or entirely in agreement with it. Despite a more positive outlook on the process in this school, there were still 32.1% of teachers whose positions tended toward disagreement. This is in contrast with some reservations manifested by the interviewees (Rodrigues et al., 2015) which leads us to believe teachers who were perhaps less directly involved with the process were less critical of the model.

In general, the results of the survey seem to indicate that the process of ESE has been felt as more of a bureaucratic process, than as one aiming to promote change and the improvement particularly when concerning the pedagogical and curricular practices which take place in the schools.

It is therefore urgent to be able to increment the positive movements ESE has been able to promote within the schools – mainly at the level of self-evaluation, the elaboration and continuity of plans for improvement and the institution’s visibility to the educational community – to try to mobilize the educational agents towards common goals. The curricular and pedagogical practices, including teaching and learning processes and innovation, which are at the heart of the schools’ work, seem to be relatively unaffected by the process, even in CS2, where the process was experience more positively as a whole.
Final Considerations

When analyzing the results in a global perspective, the difference of effects registered in each of the cases under analysis is underlined. Although ESE follows a model which imposes uniform norms with the tendency to lead to the uniformization of practices, the ways in which this process was interpreted and the effects which are recognized by the teachers in these two schools differed substantially. This underlines the importance of context, and even of the school culture and of keeping a contextual analysis, paired with a more global outlook.

Regardless of any number of factors which may have influenced the positions assumed by the teachers of either school, some transversal readings were still possible. The centrality of academic achievement in the ESE process may be at the base of some of the changes that were recognized in the two schools, namely in curricular and organizational terms. In fact, the effects at the level of students’ evaluation, including the centrality given to students’ external evaluation, were clearly stated. This emphasis on evaluation – both of the schools and of the students’ achievement has the danger of leading teachers to performativity practices, with all the dangers that entails.

Nevertheless, a moderately positive perspective on the effects of ESE was also recognized in both schools, even if the views on the model itself were not consensual. This corroborates the effects of ESE at the levels of self-evaluation, and the development of plans for improvement. The pedagogical and curricular levels, however, seem to have had been less impacted, except for the aspects related do students’ evaluation which were already mentioned.

Any analysis on this process should remain alert to a variety of different reactions and effects which may arise in each context and take into account the lens of teachers’ autonomy and professionality.

References


Challenges in Higher Education
Ethical development in higher education curricula: A study in Portuguese engineering courses

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There are many national and international documents that point out or refer the need of higher education include the mission of ethical, civic, moral and citizenship development of their students. Internationally, UNESCO (1998, 2009) and the European entities (in particular within the “2005 - European Year of Citizenship through Education” and the Bologna Process - 1999) have produced various documents that emphasize this need, although with some differences in the basic motivation and goals to achieve.

But the several documents and the Bologna Process, have left (and leave) free space for higher education institutions implement student's education in the ethical, moral, civic and citizenship field. It is however important to point out that the framework of qualifications for the European Higher Education Area, resulting from the Bergen Conference (2005), define that (among other competences) for the first cycle qualification, students at the end of their training should be able to make "judgments that include reflection on relevant social, scientific or ethical issues" in the respective field of knowledge.

Thus, the study presented here aims to know how the Portuguese Higher Education Institutions implemented (or not) this training component in their curriculum. This study was limited to Engineering courses of the Polytechnic Higher Education and the Engineering courses of Universities, for the first cycle qualification and integrated Masters. In the study were covered 28 institutions (13 Universities and 15 Polytechnics), a total of 184 courses (126 first cycle qualification and 58 Integrated Masters).

The used methodology was the official curriculum document analysis of various courses and the curricular analysis of proposed options in the field of ethical, moral, civic and citizenship student's education.

The study results show that 60.56% of the courses don't included in its curriculum any subject or topic goals in this field. Only 28.9% of the courses have included in their curriculum a required subject training and 8.32% have the opportunity to be trained in this area through optional subjects. In 2.22% of the courses, the training institution offers extracurricular training that involves an additional fee.

Among 28 studied institutions, only 6 provide a general solution for all courses, 7 have no training in this area in any of the courses, and the remaining 15 have some with this type of training and other courses that have not.

Also resulted from this study the reconnaissance of the curriculum options diversity and focus of each of the options, which stated that the majority (63.4%) of the courses focus on Professional Ethics training (Ethics and Compliance) and only 36.5 % focus on ethics training and Citizenship.

1. Introduction

Higher education, in its various courses, forms people whose professional practice, is, in some cases, regulated by ethical and deontological codes, such as engineering, Medicine, and law, among others. However, recent investigations indicate that the upper school students exhibit problem behaviors from the ethical point of view and of citizenship, such as plagiarism and practice of violence and humiliation among peers, notably the usual 'hazing'.

In what concerns plagiarism, an investigation made in 2013 indicates that 45% of students of higher education present indicators of high levels of fraud, in particular in the exams, and plagiarism (gamma, Pandey, Sandhu, Almeida, & Edwards, 2013). Another study, that Aurora Teixeira (public, 2011) coordinated in 2005, allowed the conclusion that 70% of respondents had already copied in an examination. This researcher stresses that, on the basis of her studies, it can be "concluded that plagiarism is currently a widespread practice among the Portuguese students " (ibidem:online). This study also shows that students of the Engineering courses are those who have a higher rate of fraud.

These alarming numbers do not seem to surprise the majority of teachers in higher education, according to the speeches at the Symposium "ethics and tolerance of professors and institutions before the academic fraud in higher education" (gamma et al., 2013). However, before the data cited, there are questions about the way the institutions of this level of education seek to promote the integral formation of their students, including ethics and civics, and what are the actions that they develop in that direction. Hence the relevance of the study to be carried out within the framework of the doctoral thesis presented in this project.

The issue of fraud and plagiarism by students in higher education is even more relevant given that, according to, Pešec and Petković (2014), one of the most obvious ways to analyze the ethical development of engineering students is through their behaviors in the light of the evaluations, considering this behavior as a good indicator of ethical development.

The levels of fraud and plagiarism by students in higher education are only one facet of this problem, which also reveals the difficulties that students manifest in reflecting on their relationship with their peers, which is publicly evident through, for example, the usual 'hazing'. But these aspects may be just the tip of the "iceberg" that is reflected also in the low levels of civic participation in their diminished associative experience and the participation in the bodies of the institutions where they study, and as such in their low involvement in the public domain (Ehrlich.2000).

Therefore, and bearing in mind that higher education forms people who, by their high level of training, will tend to occupy positions of training, management, coordination and governance, among others, it is a priority to promote a solid ethical education of higher education students, thus contributing to these ethical values to propagate in society (ibidem,2000). In this line, UNESCO (2000) points out that this facet of students' training is mortgaging a future society which is fair, democratic, peaceful and tolerant.

We must also consider that the higher education institutions omission, in the ethics and civic training field, is also the student trainer: permissiveness and apparent indifference are a way to express a position, and therefore is also educational intervention.

According to Estrela (2010:11), although pedagogy and ethics are inherent in any act of "education, ethics and pedagogy" they constitute little known dimensions of thought and practices of teachers of higher education ". But
the questions that Estrela (2010:17) places are: "Is it up to teachers of higher education the promotion of their students ethical-moral development?". And if in fact it is, are higher education teachers aware of this responsibility? And how is this training integrated into the curricula and accomplished? It is therefore necessary, according to this author (2008), to give visibility to the ethical dimension that should be more present in higher education, but that sometimes is a little hidden, justifying the need for studies in this training dimension in this level of education.

1.2. The ethical and civic development in higher education:

In the first decade of the 21st century there was a substantial increase in the interest in the ethical and civic training of students in higher education, particularly in the United States of America (USA). Such growth originated in the low level of political and civic engagement of young Americans (Ehrlich .2000), as well as in the need to train the young generations for the new global society (Jacoby, 2009b).

At European level, and on the basis of the international documents, it was found that the increase of this concern also became more noticeable from the beginning of the 21st century. However, unlike the UNITED STATES, the survey found that at European level, a widespread and organized involvement of higher education institutions in this field was still not verified.

Caryn Musil and Ehrlich studies, (2000) highlight the fact that too many students see themselves just as consumers, who want to obtain the course as quickly as possible, in the easiest and cheapest manner. However, Ehrlich (2000), Barbara Jacoby (2009b), and other authors, consider that higher education will only be completed when the student, in addition to acquiring technical knowledge specific to his area, can use it wisely in the world, which requires values, and ethical analysis and civic competencies. So, for these thinkers, the focus of higher education must be the global and integral development of the person, including these two dimensions: the individual moral development and social consciousness (worrying about the well-being of others).

Thomas Ehrlich (2000:3), which has been one of the authors who defend the need to "promote civic and moral development of higher education students", argues that there is a strong political students’ disinterest, coupled with the lack of civic and political participation. Although the author refers to the American reality is important to mention that this is also the argument that has been at the basis of European documents that focus on this issue (Council of Europe.2004).

According to Ehrlich (2000), low civic and political participation is associated with the excessive individualism of contemporary culture and its negative implications for society: disregard for others, the decline of civility, mutual respect, and tolerance, and the prominenence of self-interest and individual preferences instead of the common good. In this sense, it's important to take into account that the author argues that the goal pursued with the civic and ethical development can not only aspire to turn students into obedient citizens, but should develop their ability to fight for justice and the common good, as well as their own individual self.

Following this line of thought, Peter Levine (2015) argues that although the civic development of young people is essential for society and democracy, is also for the young people themselves who will be most successful if they are involved and committed to their community and the common good. In his perspective, the ethical and civic training is not limited to aiming at social development, but also the development of the young people themselves, meaning is also of personal interest.
In his book "Civic Responsibility and Higher Education", Ehrlich (2000) notes that the personal and compensatory goals dominate contemporary culture, which calls into question cohesion and social justice, as well as democracy and peace. Thus, considers a moral and civic renewal necessary to build a humane society, inclusive, equitable and cohesive. It's also noted that several countries have already demonstrated concern for this issue, but payed very little attention to higher education and its contribution to the students moral and civic development. In this perspective, according to the author, it is up to the higher education institutions the Mission of respecting diversity and, at the same time, promote the foundational values of democracy.

Also Barbara Jacoby (2009a) and the other contributors to the book "Civic Engagement in Higher Education: concepts and practices" advocate the importance of promoting the civic and ethical training of students in higher education, with a view to developing their involvement and civic engagement, i.e., prepare students for active citizenship and democracy, which, according to these authors, involves the ability to make judgments , to choose, and above all to act for the common good. So, they defend that having citizenship, literacy involves more than knowledge and information, because it includes personal responsibility, active participation and personal commitment to a set of values. Therefore literacy action and not just knowledge. Knowledge is necessary, according to these authors, but it is not enough to assume a civic and democratic responsibility.

In this context, all the authors studied defend that there is a clear relationship between civic and ethical (and moral) training, and as such, any training for citizenship also involves the development of values (Jacoby, 2009b)

Thomas Ehrlich (2000) considers even that higher education has the potential to reinvigorate democracy, because almost all politicians and leaders have studied in higher education and the general public also has increased access to this level of education. On the other hand, and in the light of the studies carried out by this author in the United States, it was found that school education has little influence on political beliefs and values, which reinforces the role that higher education should be to promote maturity of ethical/moral judgment, racial and religious tolerance, as well as a greater civic and political participation.

Thus, the author argues that higher education must reach beyond being a database, promoting and developing skills so that their graduates can act in the world in a reflective and wise manner. To this end, considers that higher education must promote the moral, civic and political development, which implies the ability to develop a more sophisticated understanding and conceptually more evolved social complexity and ethical concepts, which also translates into a greater intellectual growth. This goal, which Ehrlich believes to be central in higher education should include, in the view of the author, the entire campus and relational activities outside the classroom, which should be the subject of moral judgments, including its purposes, its meanings, and action options.

Barbara Jacoby (2009b) defends a similar perspective, however, points out that for this to be possible the following strategies must be clearly defined, as well as the objectives to be attained. So, it should be done, according to this author, a study of learning and practical situations to promote civic and ethical development, and these situations must be explicitly embedded in the curriculum and in extra-curricular activities.

1.3. The need for ethical and civic training in teaching Engineering:

There are many questions, concerns and controversies that result from the rapid pace of change of contemporaneity and covering all sectors (technological, economic, environmental and social). Giddens (1998)
argues in his book "the consequences of modernity" that there is a "contemporary" disorientation, which results not only from the pace of change, but also of the "scope of change", which is no longer just local but global. Also stresses that it wasn't predictable that modernity could lead to potentially destructive forces such as the impact on nature, economic levels and the use of military and political power. For this author, these are just a few of the "dark side" of modernity, because as stated, although the concept of modernity and the base of his project have a "theoretical peaceful horizon," This contrasts with the fact that "we live today in a world that is scary and dangerous" (ibidem:7).

Another aspect that Giddens stresses, is the contemporary role of "symbolic guarantees" and the "expert systems", which are strongly related to confidence in science and specialized knowledge (ibidem). It is therefore essential to take into account the penetration of this specialized knowledge in the everyday life of each citizen (the so-called industrialized countries at least), and the preponderance in the life of the common citizen and institutions. However, the penetration of this specialized knowledge and the confidence vested in it adds an increased risk (Ibidem). See, for example, the influence of human activity on nature (serious environmental problems which mankind battles), or the influence of technology in contemporary society.

Arménio Rego and Jorge Braga (2014: XVII) argue that "is in this sea of uncertainty that we resort to ethics so that with reflection, we can shed some light on the best way forward". For these authors, ethical reflection is necessary to take "more responsible decisions towards greater harmony and wellness, reducing as far as possible the factors which result in injury to persons and/or of nature, and safeguarding the fate of future generations" (ibidem, idem).

In this context, the engineering activity takes a predominant emphasis because "there's perhaps no professional activity with greater impact on society than that exerted by the engineers" (ibidem, idem). In fact, the presence of engineers action is so embedded in everyday life that society has become dependent on engineering, without, however, being aware of their action. Engineering is present in almost all activities and lots of used equipment daily: from the phone, television or computer; from the clothes we wear, house furniture; means of transport, means of communication; the lighting, the water we drink; medical diagnostic equipment, medicines; agricultural production, to the satellites; that provide logistics of food distribution in refugee camps, to warfare. Engineering influence is immeasurable and "Nothing escapes the intervention of engineers, almost everything requires actions from them that are ethically responsible in order for the life and the convenience of humans to be safeguarded" (ibidem, idem).

In fact, engineering is present both in the breakneck development that humanity lives in recent centuries and in improving the living conditions of certain populations, such as in the destruction and the increasing environmental devastation. Their action is enhancing progress and well-being, but it's also potentially lethal.

It becomes obvious that the technical knowledge that engineers are given within the framework of their courses is in fact "powerful" (Young, 2010) and powerful, but the question of how that knowledge is to be used is raised here (Ehrlich, 2000). It is not enough to give the tools, it is also necessary to teach how to use them for the common good. To this end, it is essential to provide training and reflection, "providing engineers a close-up view of the ways in which they can fulfill their commitment to society responsibly" (Rego & Braga.2014: XVIII).

Ehrlich (2000) points out that traditionally the courses from the areas of exact sciences (engineering, physics, chemistry, biology, economics, mathematics) were considered as morally neutral, and do not need ethical and
moral training. However, the author points out that the apparent neutrality of the exact sciences had no impact on how the expertise can be used in practice. In the face of this issue, there are several authors who consider fundamental training in the areas of exact sciences to include scholarly content aiming to promote ethical, moral and civic development (Ehrlich, 2000; Nussbaum, 2014).

According to Rego and Braga (2014: XVIII), one of the important aspects to consider in engineering ethics education, is not to follow "moral relativism", in which each "each one does what he thinks best," because "moral relativism tends to represent a slew of social coexistence, where everything is accepted provided that it's generally accepted/practiced and in which there is a risk for the most fundamental rights of human beings to be desecrated". This aspect is also very strong in engineering, where new graduates face widespread practices which violate ethical and deontological principles, but which often are accepted based on "always done it this way" or with the supremacy of the economic aspects.

For the authors who are being summoned (Rego & Braga.2014), it is therefore urgent to strengthen the ethical development of engineering students in order to direct their actions for the Betterment of society, the respect for the human being and nature. In this sense, and according to these authors, it is important not only to promote the level of ethics training, but also an ' integral vision of ethics '. This integral formation of ethics result of an integral vision of the students themselves, and it is also defended by La Taille (2006:27) when he says: "it is to be hoped that the teachers of the University courses that introduce students to the code of ethics of the profession they have chosen to exercise, do not make the mistake to reduce them to a list of rules to be memorized".

1.4. The ethical and civic development in the Engineering course curriculum:

Keeping in mind the role of engineering in society, the vast area of its operations and the potential consequences of its actions (whether positive, negative and even dangerous), the various entities that aggregate or accredits these professionals have come to recognize the need and importance of ethics and deontology in engineering students' training (Finelli at all, 2012). In the u.s. this need was imposed on higher education institutions in 2000/2001, in Germany was recognized in 2002, in Canada, in 2001, in Australia, in 2010, in Japan in 1999, England in 2010 (ibidem.) and in Portugal was in 2002 by the Order of Engineers (OE.2014), and in 2011 by the Order of Technical Engineers (OET) (Carapeto, Fonseca.2012).

In Portugal’s case, and although the Order of Engineers (OE) has a Professional Code of conduct which was published in the statutes of the Order of the Engineer in 1992 (OE, 2002), it was only in 2002 that the OE considered the importance of ethics as being fundamental, so it decided to control the rate at which students, with an approval (by passing ethics and ethical training examinations), would have access to the Order of Engineers. However, this short-term training is granted only by the professional entity and implies a cost for applicants (ibidem, 2014).

The Order of Technical Engineers (OET) recognizes that the engineers are professionals with "decisive importance for economic and social progress" and therefore underlines the need for these professionals " to contribute with their share towards good governance, as active citizens" (Carapeto & Fonseca .2012:6). To this end, considers that it is imperative that an engineer, in addition to "possess a solid technical background and be available for change and continuous improvement, must also possess a solid general knowledge and awareness of the
importance of their role in society" (ibidem.). In this respect stresses that "in addition to know how to use their ingenuity and art, must also worry about the ethical dimension of their conduct, aspect which is currently so important in the profession as the mastery of technical subjects" (ibidem).

It is however important to keep in mind that the OET limits the need for ethics training of engineers to the deontological aspects of a practical nature: "specially dedicated to a practical analysis of professional values that underlie the rights and duties of technical engineers", focusing on "guidance for ethical decision in engineering that aims to help resolve the various dilemmas that technical engineers face in their daily practice" (idem).

From the academic point of view, Ehrlich (2000) points out that traditionally the training in the area of engineering was regarded as morally neutral, and does not require the consideration of values. However, this perspective of apparent neutrality of engineering, did not see a fundamental aspect: the modes and the purposes for which the expertise can be used in practice (Davis & Feinerman .2012). In this sense, there are several authors who consider the fundamental need of higher education in the field of the exact sciences, interconnect academic content with the development of civic and moral objectives (Ehrlich, 2000; Magellan.2006; Colon.2013; Nussbaum.2014).

In this same sense, Conlon (2013) considers it important to include content from the area of the humanities in Engineering courses as a way to promote ethics and social responsibility training. This perspective is also defended by Martha Nussbaum (2014), an approach that stresses the need to, in contemporary times strongly marked by globalization and by profit, be fundamental "to teach the human being", for which "an education in the area of Humanities is more necessary than ever as a way to cultivate and develop interest for others" (Pires.2007:132). This thinker says that "we will have Nations of docile engineers who do not know how to examine the claims of a political leader" (ibidem: 131). For this author, it is necessary to overcome the need for ethics training only aimed at the ethical component, to also cover the "need for general preparation for citizenship and for life" (ibidem: 132).

According to Ehrlich (2000), Barbara Jacoby (2009b) and Davis and Feinerman (2012), several methodologies are used at the level of higher education to promote ethical, civic and ethical training of students. Under the engineering courses, according to Davis and Feinerman (2012), the following 3 main methodologies are featured:

- Specific Curricular units (CU) (for example, engineering ethics and Deontology);
- Modules that have a wide insertion in technical disciplines, and apply to specific cases (for example lecture on the ethics of building steel structures);
- Inserting mini training classes in various curricular units that make up the curriculum.

Another way to approach the ethical education in engineering, though less used, is the promotion of voluntary public service, exercised in the context of extracurricular engineering format, but valued in the training certificate. Several studies refer to this methodology as a promoter of social responsibility and ethical direction of students (Conlon.2013).

For Conlon (2013) is still relevant the fact that most of the ethical training for engineers focuses only on the engineer as an individual, and ignore the action of professional context and professional policies, as well as the "great engineering, public purposes" that receive "scant attention in engineering teaching" (Conlon & Zandvoort,
2011:330). This author considers fundamental to take into consideration in the ethical and deontological training the action and pressure on engineering practice from a professional and social context.

Although the ethics training is considered important for engineering training, according to Finelli et al. (2012) few studies were done in this field, Particularly ones that contributed to identify aspects that have more of an impact on the ethical development of the students. This study is undertaken, and presented here, with the intention to contribute towards this reflection and elects as a theme civic and ethical training in Engineering courses.

As shown, the ethical and civic training of higher education engineering students is a current issue that constitutes a challenge to the organization of curricular and pedagogical practices encompassing all actors of the educational process, but is not deeply studied in Portugal (Estrela, 2010). It is within this framework that was considered important to carry out a study of the ethical and civic training of engineering students.

Thus, the study presented here aims to understand the place ethics and citizenship training have in the curriculum for training engineers in Portugal, highlighting how Portuguese higher education institutions have implemented (or not) this training component in the curriculum.

2. The presence of ethics and citizenship training in engineering courses curriculum in Portugal

In order to know how Portuguese higher education institutions (engineering) implemented (or not) ethical and civic training in their curriculum, a survey was conducted on courses from from Polytechnic higher education and College higher education.

The survey covered the first cycle courses and integrated Masters, covering 28 institutions (13 Colleges and 15 Polytechnic Universities), a total of 184 courses (126 Degrees and 58 Integrated masters degrees), corresponding to the existing Engineering courses in the public sector in Portugal.

The methodology used was the gathering of the prescribed official curricula for the various courses and proposed curricular option analysis within the framework of ethical, moral and civic education and students' citizenship.

Of the 184 courses examined it was verified that there are different curriculum options that include:

- specific compulsory frequency courses,
- inclusion of topics in the area of ethical and civic training in mandatory curricular units,
- optional curricular units, specific to ethics and/or civic training ,
- extra-curricular training units with additional payment.

The study results show that:

- 60.89% of the courses did not provide any mandatory or optional curricular units in their curriculum, specific or with any reference to the content, with goals in the context of the ethical, moral, civic education and citizenship of students;
- 31.51% of the courses have included in the curriculum mandatory training (specific course units or with any reference to, content, which includes objectives within the framework of ethical, moral, civic education and citizenship of students;

- 7.6% have the possibility to have training in this area through electives;

- 68.49% of the courses have no compulsory ethics or civic education units;

- 11.95% of the courses include specific curricular units for civic and ethical training;

- in 2.7% of the courses, the institution offers extracurricular ethical and civic training which implies additional payment.

Of the 28 Institutions studied, only 6 have a general solution for all their courses, 7 don’t show training in this field in any of the courses, and the remaining 15 features some courses that include the existence of this type of training and other courses that don’t.

This study also found the diversity focus of each of the options on the institutions part that promote this training component, noting that most (54.54%) of the existing curriculum units focus on professional ethics training (Ethics and Deontology) and only 36.36% focus on Ethics and citizenship training.

3. Final Reflections

Although the documents consulted and the authors referred highlight that ethics and civic education should be a central component of higher education, from the empirical collection it was noted that this training in engineering courses in Portugal, is still absent from the official structure of most curricula. In fact, only 11.95% of the courses feature a specific curricular unit dedicated to ethical and civic training, and stress that these are focused mostly on ethics training strictly from the deontological point of view.

The low percentage of courses which include mandatory ethics and/or civic training in their curriculum seems to indicate that the concern with this type of training is not yet widespread and a priority among the teachers and coordinators of these higher education areas.

Given that Pešec, and Petković (2014) considers the relationship of students with evaluation an indicator of ethical and civic development of the students, and that, in Portugal, the engineering students are those who have a higher index of academic fraud (public, 2011), noted is the relevance of the diminished presence of ethics and civic training in the engineering courses curricula.

In this same vein, it's important to highlight the fact that only 7.06% of official curriculum course units show curricular units with goals that are in line with the civic training of their students, which reinforces the evidence that most engineering courses teachers and coordinators do not recognize the need for this type of training or do not assume this mission. However, it will be necessary to take into account the possibility of the existence of embedded training forms that do not have an explicit expression in the official curriculum, which will require additional studies.
It is also important to take into account that several authors referred emphasize the importance of ethical and civic training to be part of a global project that involves the entire higher education institution. Of the 28 public higher education institutions in Portugal that teach courses in the field of engineering, only 6 were found to have a proposed civic and/or ethics focused training curriculum that encompasses all of the courses. This indicator shows that most of the institutions do not consider this type of training as part of its institutional mission, leaving such consideration at the discretion of the faculty from each course (15 institutions feature some courses that include the existence of this type of training and other courses that don't).

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The text presents a reflection on the curriculum decisions taken by professors of administration course of a Brazilian public university, located in the city of Palmas / Tocantins, as part of a research carried out at the Institute of Education, University of Minho / Portugal. We aimed to characterize the knowledge, skills and teaching skills in the processes and curricular decision to practice in this course. Adopted the mixed methodology, making a combination between qualitative and quantitative approaches with application of surveys (questionnaires and interviews) and document analysis. The sample consisted of 20 teachers in a universe of 24 teachers and 180 students in 345 universe. We used the SPSS software, version 20 for measurement, organization, presentation, analysis and interpretation of data from the questionnaires. The results showed the problem of curricular articulation in plan of organizational decisions and curriculum practices in the classroom when the pedagogical and methodological policies do not fall in line with the knowledge and scientific skills and didactic and pedagogical teachers. Thus, the knowledge, skills and teaching skills were noted as difficult tract in the course of Administration. Teachers indicated the difficulty in articulating knowledge related to teaching ability and as a strategy identified the need for educational improvement concerning to develop the ability to interdisciplinary projects; to share with colleagues the knowledge taught in the classroom; to mobilize the knowledge of the contents to promote and enhance students' skills and technique; to know how to articulate the human and conceptual skills, relating the knowledge of educational theories to teaching resources and to learn to relate to the students. In this process, the perception of experienced teachers and students, beginning teachers occupy a place of apprentice of the experts experience. Students and teachers of Course differentiate their perceptions related to the articulation of the basic and specific content and its integration with different knowledge, for example, is more relevant to students than for teachers issues related such as the knowledge of Administration course concerning to the administrator's career; the theories of field focused on their training to motivate and help them reflect on the reality and take ownership of new knowledge and critical skills. The domain of theories focused on their training to motivate and help them reflect on the reality and take ownership of new knowledge and critical skills. We concluded that the Administration course curriculum must undergo profound transformation with regard to curriculum practice, linked to the knowledge, skills and abilities necessary for decision-making in the context of classroom curriculum.

Keywords: Administration Curriculum. Teachers. Curricular decision. Knowledge. Skills. Ability

1. Introduction

The text deals with the knowledge, competencies, skills and attitudes that are used by the professors of Administration course to take their curriculum decisions. Therefore, it started with the presupposition that the formation of administration professor can not be reduced to scientific area of Science Administration and or knowledge/ or knowledge of related fields. In this sense, it was verified the necessity to expand a professional instructor training and the critical skills that category.
Relations between the knowledge, skills and initial training and continuing of professors are established considering the movement of instructor professionalization. Thus, administrators and other graduates who became teachers in the course of Administration have initial training with knowledge, skills and abilities to perform their activity in the profession for which they were trained and aggregating a particular course to teach, their professionalism no with regard to teaching. This situation point out the institutional necessity, individually and collectively for the didactic and pedagogical training for teaching in higher education.

2 Theoretical foundations

2.1 Training and professionalization

In last few decades, the initial and continuing education, according to Ramalho, Nuñez & Gauthier (2004), has been inserted into the trend of instructor professionalization movement, oriented research in national and international context, in order to include the issue of training and teaching. This movement, from the point of view of Morgado (2005) has contributed to teachers of higher education and basic education to occupy a central place in the curriculum development process and take responsibility for vocational training in the context of changes. In Brazil in education area, from the 1990s, this movement pegged the slogan "professionalize the teacher" to professional development (Evangelista & Shiroma, 2003, p. 27).

For Zabalza (2007), the formative experiences is based on two perspectives, those based on theories of education or pedagogical theory of instructor training; and one that is based on the theory of work. Yet it is observed that the formation has shown many ways, the criticism highlight the risk of mechanization, thus reducing the significance for personal and professional development. However, the author shows that training can include the following formative contents: New opportunities for personal development; new knowledge; new skills; attitudes and values; and enriching experiences. In the perspective of Flores, Ferreira and Fernandes (2014), the professional development for teachers is related to their personal lives, professionals, political and academic context.

Historically, teacher training, in the context of educational reforms, has assumed a prominent place in this process. According Morgado (2005), this situation relates to the role of teachers in curriculum development and its responsibility to the educational changes. However, it is observed that the dominant pedagogical discourse has assigned an exaggerated accountability for teachers on teaching practice and the quality of education (ibid, 2005).

Morgado (2005, p. 26) reflects the new discourses of professionalism and understand that "a set of behaviors, knowledge, skills, attitudes and values" are specific to the teaching action. This movement imposes the need for new attitudes of teachers, aiming to changes as expected. For this, they have been assumed to be protagonists of their own knowledge.

From 2005 to 2010 the work verified in the area of training, which are found in CAPES seat on the professionalization, mostly dealing with the training of primary and secondary school teachers. There are few studies focused on the training of teachers in higher education, especially of Administration undergraduate course faculty. Taking up the teaching profession within the professionalization, it is observed that Ramalho, Nuñez and Gauthier (2004) take into account two dimensions: professionalism and professional level.
2.2 The skills, abilities, knowledge and attitudes

The skills, abilities, knowledge and attitudes formed in the course of administration are not the same training to teacher professionalization. This course follows the objectives proposed for the administrator's knowledge work. It is a know how to perform the specific activity it deserves, a knowledge organize the work flow, to have technical expertise, develop attitudes needed to establish the relationship with other people at work, such as having autonomy, take responsibility, whether communicate, possess business knowledge that is involved to learn to interact with people and make negotiations (Leme Fleury & Fleury, 2007).

Thus, skills, abilities, knowledge and attitudes administrator profession and the teaching profession differ. The latter implies a type of interaction that requires of the teacher the ability to articulate the teaching content with the level of development and learning of their students. However, it is assumed that the ability to interact with students to create arguments and strategies allow the process of teaching and learning, for that teachers mobilize their communication skills and methods of their knowledge (disciplinary, curricular and pedagogical) favoring the development of thought in record time and help in curricular changes, causing actions and reactions in students significantly.

The knowledge for teaching the Administration course teacher respect to knowledge from the teaching experience, the exact sciences, applied, human and incorporated education vocational training of teachers, is the practice of management and / or their practice pedagogical. The knowledge base for teaching, according to Tardif (2011, p. 61) "include a variety of objects, issues and problems related to teaching." In this context, the skills and abilities of teachers in higher education are built and mobilized.

Dealing with skills and higher education teachers skills to articulate the curriculum in the university context is to consider the theoretical aspects and practical the underlying sociocultural, political and economic context. The deep and constant changes in the contemporary world (Morgado & Ferreira, 2006), place new demands, instead of a content approach, emphasis is the development of skills in order to promote a flexible and continuing education, in front of a market in constant motion (Kuenzer, 2008). One can still observe the changes in the relations between teachers, between students, between students and teachers, and between teachers and leaders, reflecting on a new conduction of public and private policies that deal with different grades and education systems (Veiga-Neto, 2005 ).

In this scenario, the government proposes reformulation of the curriculum of higher education, the universities seek to dynamize their curriculum proposals and teachers mobilize their strategies, their cognitive processes, their professional knowledge, their skills and abilities. In this perspective, it is evident the need for the teacher to develop the competence to manage their own training to strengthen the pedagogical dimension and curricular practice. That impose a change in skills and teaching skills to recognize and respect the conditions of the students, strategize with new methodologies, review materials and didactic resources made available to students as well as have opportunities for diversified work options, which do option by deepening levels of discipline, considering the motivation and interest.
3 Methodology

3.1 The survey sample

The research was comprised of 20 teachers of the course Administration of a public brazilian university in population of 24, corresponding to 83.33% of all teachers.

With regard to sex and age of the teachers thus they are distributed: 5% are male and 5% female, correspondent the age range of 26-30 years; 15% are male and 5% female with age range between 31 and 35 years; between 36 to 40 years have only female teachers (15%); in the range 41-50 years, 15% are respectively male and female; and with over 51 years are founded 20% of male teachers and 5% female. Respondents have mature age, representing a significant sample of about 70% in the following age range: 36-40 years; 41-50 years; and more than 51 years.

At the university investigated the initial formation of the Boards of teachers of the course is not restricted to graduation in the Administration area, there are other formations on the faculty. As noted, the majority of teachers are degree in Business Administration with a total of 65% of the sample and 35% have training in other courses. However, initial training to teach in the course Administration is diversified as seen in the Figure below.

In this universe, 10% of teachers are trained in education, the other has a background in the area of Administration and related areas.

3.2 Collection of data

The data that were part of the text composition were collected through a questionnaire answered by professors of course investigated, consisting of two parts: the first relates to personal data and the second part organized into
five dimensions with regard to curriculum decisions. Among the dimensions mentioned became a cutout dimension of knowledge and scientific and didactic-pedagogical skills to teach the course of Administration. Initial results were compared with the results of the interviews on knowledge and skills of professors to teach.

From this perspective, the scale dimension of knowledge and skills was the ordering of the questions included in the questionnaire, found a way to preserve the focus of curriculum decisions in the context of priorities and characterize the knowledge and teaching skills.

4 Results

The results of the questionnaire on scientific knowledge and necessary skills to teach the course of Administration were nominated by teachers by level of importance for decision making in the context of curricular practice, as seen in Table 15.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DSCC</th>
<th>curriculum decisions</th>
<th>n.</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>DP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Use of scientific knowledge of the area.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3,65</td>
<td>1,22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Domain content who teaches.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3,60</td>
<td>1,53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Domain of teaching strategies of technical and methodological character.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2,70</td>
<td>1,26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Relationship between concepts that explores together with students.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2,55</td>
<td>1,23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Domain updated a wide bibliographic reference.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2,50</td>
<td>1,47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall average 3,00

Table 15: Mean and standard deviation of the sub-dimension scientific knowledge and skills necessary for professors to teach the course of Administration (DSCC)

In this field of scientific knowledge to teach in the course administration the knowledge of scientific area and the domain contents of the area were considered by professors as the most important. The knowledge and skills related to technical and methodological character, with the interaction process in teaching and an updated bibliography had less relevance to the development of curricular practice in the classroom.

This previous result faced with the interview and document analysis have shown how much teachers value the area of disciplinary knowledge, as is said by Professor PA: "Knowledge is the most relevant domain content, specific discipline, the teacher should be an expert in teaching area to broadcast content "; Professor "PB" is of the same opinion that the "most important thing is to know the specific content of the field of discipline and related concepts." Other teachers say that the teaching knowledge should be deepened in theories of administration.
The characterization of knowledge and teaching skills in the processes and practices of curriculum decision, in the opinion of the professors of Administration Course, within the knowledge and didactic-pedagogic competence, verified that the range of important knowledge had a greater extent, as shown in table 16.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DSCDP</th>
<th>curriculum decisions</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>DP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Manage the content linked to the formulation of objectives, strategies, activities and educational evaluation.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Articulate the contents of the subject, considering the knowledge of students.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Planning of lessons taking as reference to the Administration course curriculum.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Manage the classroom with appropriate methodologies for administrator training.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Evaluate considering a framework for evaluation.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall average</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16: Mean and standard deviation of sub-dimension knowledge and didactic-pedagogic competence

The teachers’ priority on the didactic and pedagogical knowledge and competences has been hierarchized as follows, the main priorities were: DSCDP3: manage the content linked to the formulation of objectives, strategies, activities and teaching evaluation with M = 3.55 (SD = 1.23); DSCDP2: articulate the discipline content, considering the knowledge of students, with M = 3.20 (SD = 1.24); DSCDP1: planning of lessons taking as reference to the Administration course curriculum, with M = 3.10 (SD = 1.55); DSCDP4: managing the classroom with appropriate methodologies for administrator training, with M = 3.05 (SD = 1.43). With less priority, DSCDP5 follows: to evaluate considering a framework for evaluation, with M = 2.10 (SD = 1.33).

According to the overall average M = 3, it was observed that the priority decisions for teachers had the following hierarchic order: DSCDP4 - manage the content related to the formulation of objectives, strategies, activities and educational evaluation; DSCDP2- articulate the contents of the subject, considering the knowledge of students; DSCDP1- planning classes taking as reference to the Administration course curriculum; DSCDP3- Manage the classroom with appropriate methodologies for administrator training. Which are above average, considering that teachers focused their opinion on the valuation of pedagogical knowledge of teachers, as shown in the table in question, however attributed less value the question DSCDP5- evaluate considering a framework for evaluation.

It was considered this work to teach in one way or another, it makes use of didactic and pedagogical knowledge and competences. According to the PA teacher "teachers have no pedagogical improvement does not come together to discuss their interdisciplinary project, what they do, what they are teaching and what approach in the classroom." Also emphasizes the opinion of PF, which says, "teachers in teaching activity should articulate the technical skills of the discipline with the humanistic and conceptual question," and must "know the theories, didactic resources and know how to relate with students. " Thus evidenced the degree of importance of didactic and pedagogical knowledge as part of the decisions shared among teachers.
It was understood that teachers mobilize their knowledge about teaching. Linked them their formative needs. In the opinion of respondents, the didactic and pedagogical knowledge is "difficult to treat", before the need to improve and update the pedagogical area. They considered that the teaching activity relates to the field of innovative methodologies, along with tools that enable the transmission of knowledge.

The teachers conceptions, which were highlighted in the references on the methodologies used in the classroom are different, when teachers make their considerations about the knowledge and didactic and pedagogical competences explain their experiences and the level of professional knowledge, which gives it different arguments. According to Tardif (2011, p. 195) to learn how discursive activity is validated through arguments, discursive and linguistic operations, a position or action.

Confirm the knowledge and scientific and didactic-pedagogical competencies without relate to the formative process of teachers is to put aside the primary aspect related to instructor professionalization. In this respect, the results showed that teachers in their interviews made some suggestions to improve the formative quality, as providing "small term course for the teaching learning" courses that allow reflection on the "relationship between teaching and learning in higher education "on the" didactic qualification for beginning teachers"; "Extension courses for exam preparation, didactic resources and pedagogical orientation".

These suggestions related to the results demonstrate the necessity of professor of Administration course build new knowledge and competences to teach in the Administration course. Even been suggested the courses of "postgraduate: master's and doctorate", as individual efforts and proposals of the university to qualify as teachers of higher education professionals. The face of such attitudes, it is observed a concern not only with the didactic and pedagogical aspects, but with the training including such knowledge, competences and attitudes related.

5. Conclusion

The results show that teachers attribute the importance of scientific and didactic-pedagogical knowledge and identify some knowledge and competences that can hamper joint of practice with the objectives of the proposed course. Among these knowledge and competences, enhance interaction between teachers and students, but there were differed in the design of what is most important to teach in the course and some competences that need to be reflected, such as the management of the subjects, the relationship with students and the predominant method of transmission of knowledge.

The results pointed to the need for professional training in the pedagogical area, directed towards the construction of teaching knowledge, in order to define a teaching methodology to improve the postures and attitudes of professors. These aspects are perceived by teachers as a indicators of behavior change, resulting in relationships with students in the teaching-learning process.

Among the teachers 30% believe that disciplinary knowledge is the most important in teaching activity. In this field of knowledge, the depth of field of discipline (scientific knowledge of the area) was considered essential for transmission to students. In this regard, it appears the design of teacher as a specialist instead of universalist, teachers and students (respondents) believe that it is from the in-depth knowledge in educational themes, can be achieved the status of knowledge teaching. The planning ability was referred to only by the students, which
envisaged them that the course teachers present their plans for better orientation of the teaching and learning process.

The didactic and pedagogical knowledge devoted to the teaching and learning were related to the process of improving and upgrading the educational area. The teaching activity is linked to the domain of innovative methodologies. Know to interact with students, using tools properly, know how to convey content to students in didactic manner and comply with the methods according to the orientation of the pedagogical project were the most evidenced arguments by the professors.

In this respect, the management of the classroom; teaching experience; the interaction of teachers to evaluate students; the relationship between teachers for the construction of educational activity related with the teaching posture in the conduct of the educational process and its influence on quality of education.

The teaching professional attitude was characterized as an element of articulation between education and quality, supported by the values, attitudes, knowledge, skills and competencies of teachers. Teaching skills and other professional skills and attitudes taken by professors in teaching were directly interrelated.

It was verified that the development of teaching in the disciplines of instructor responsibility was recognized as a result of the relationship between knowledge and competencies to mobilize knowledge. Thus, it was evidenced the necessity of different teaching skills and attitudes (personal, social, communication, intellectual, etc.).

References

Book (print version)


Book chapter

Curriculum movements in higher education: (The Iranian experience)

Vajargah, Kourosh Fathi (kouroshfathi2@gmail.com); Shahid Beheshti University, Tehran, Iran

The curriculum research and practice in higher education in comparison with general education has passed different trend. We have a lot of research on conceptualization and theorizing of school curriculum and many scholars have generated a large body of expository literature about curriculum making, Curriculum theory and curriculum understanding. There is a very different story in curriculum debates in further and higher education. As a fundamental component of higher education, curricula have always received a fair amount of attention in practice and a few scholars have attempted to study the history of curriculum movements and models at university level. In other words, there have been a few studies on conceptualizing different aspects of curriculum, especially the evolution of curriculum field in higher education.

One way of looking at curriculum movements in higher education is to categorize the assumptions underlying the curriculum reforms and revisions during the time. This paper, using a historical research method, tries to classify and conceptualize the history of higher education in Iran within one of curriculum discourses in higher education as follow:

- Cultural/Religious Discourse,
- Formalized/systematic Discourse,
- Decentralizing Discourse,
- Decolonizing Discourse
- Blaming Discourse!

This paper aims to discuss and share ideas on the latest findings regarding higher education curriculum as a new area of research in Iran. Based on research findings, there are some lessons to be learned from the past and move forward in Iran. Although transformation is an inevitable part of every curriculum system in higher education, undoubtedly contemplation and researches in this area of study shows that a collection of following items have had a prominent role in the failure of curriculum movements in higher education of Iran:

- Higher education curriculum is a new area of study:
- Lack of theoretical knowledge and models based on scientific researches.
- Curriculum illiteracy/ Faculty members’ pedagogical illiteracy
- Lack of curriculum culture

Introduction

The curriculum design and change in higher education is a new, dynamic area which has been ignored in higher education and curriculum studies, the realm of higher education curriculum is rather new; its age is not more than few decades. Neither higher education has not been dealt with in curriculum nor in the area of higher education the place of curriculum has been distinguished.

The curriculum research and practice in higher education in comparison with general education has passed different trend. We have a lot of research on conceptualization and theorizing of school curriculum and many scholars have generated a large body of expository literature about curriculum making, Curriculum theory and curriculum understanding (Pinar 1997, Jackson, 1992; Pinar 2000, Pinar 2004, Marshal and sears, Grummet, 2000 Barnmet and Coate, 2004, Flinders, David J. Thornton, Schubert, 1986; Walker, 1990; Marsh, 1997; Marsh and Willis, 1999; Marsh 2004).

Curriculum studies in primary and secondary education has a long history and tradition and it is quite normal to have a wide and diverse literature and various thinking camps in curriculum field. Even some outstanding scholars have tried to show the insufficient attention to practice in curriculum debates. For example:

Schwab (1975; 1978) is one of famous curriculum theorist who was looking for a practical language to curriculum studies.

Jesse Goodman, A critical theorist in curriculum field is another example. Worrying that too much curriculum research was excessively theoretical, Jesse Goodman called for curriculum and political writing that was less abstract and rhetorical:

“In calling for more detailed illustrations of people working”

in classrooms and schools as a basis for analytical and theoretical discourse, it is not being suggested that curric- ulum theorists provide ‘cookbook’ descriptions of how it should be done…[Readers of classroom-focused research would] apply what is vicariously experienced to one’s own particular situation and limitation (Goodman, 1991, pp69-70)

He is worrying that in curriculum theorists’ rejection of technical rationality specially linear approach to curriculum. Decision making, they had failed to provide any concrete help to practitioners, schools and teachers at all.

There is a very different story in curriculum debates in further and higher education. As a fundamental component of higher education, curricula have always received a fair amount of attention in practice (Clifton et al, 1995, p345) Postsecondary institutions have been forced to deal with curricula in order to survive. There is a literature on how
to prepare the curriculum in higher education and a few scholars have attempted to develop curriculum frameworks and models at university level (see, Axelord, 1968; Dressel, 1971; Mayhew and Ford; 1971; Conrad and Pratt, 1986; 1995, Diamond, 2000; Stark and Luttuca, 1997; Toohey, 1995 and Barnett and Coate, 2005)

Much university curriculum literature focuses on disciplines and is published in specialty journals (Stark and Luttuca, 1997, 22) It is because the diversity and complexity of higher education settings makes it difficult to produce a general model or framework with broad applicability in different fields and situations. That is to say what is really missing is theorizing and conceptualizing the curriculum decision making in this sub specialist area of higher education. In other words, there have been a few studies on conceptualizing different aspects of curriculum in colleges and university, while the curriculum is a central part of any postsecondary education activities and the main philosophy of higher education, educating the people; completely depends on deliberatively designed curricula.

That is to say we need more scholarly efforts on conceptualization of curriculum works in higher education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of attention to Types of Curriculum Studies</th>
<th>Theorizing / conceptualization</th>
<th>Practice and application</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General Education</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher education</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conceptualization of Curriculum Models in Higher Education: Mapping HE models with four different conceptions of curriculum

What does Curriculum movement means? One way of looking at curriculum movements in higher education is to categorize the assumptions underlying the curriculum reforms and revisions during the time. It may be possible for us to classify the history of higher education in Iran within one of curriculum discourses in higher education of Iran as follow:

**Curriculum of higher education: Iranian context**

**Cultural/Religious Discourse**

Reviewing the curriculum change trends in higher education of Iran after the Islamic Revolution shows that following social changes, the changes in curricula of the universities has been compulsory. Under the monarchy,
Iran's curriculum promoted a secular, pre-Islamic, and purely nationalist Persian identity. In contrast, the Islamic Republic's curricula teach students that they are Muslims and members of a worldwide community of believers steadfastly united in opposition against the West's imperialist powers. This period is characterized by a set of concepts such as Islamization of curricula, cultural revolution and ideology. Curriculum has been subject to ideology based changes based on a fragmented approach in practice.

**Formalized/systematic Discourse**

In this era, the curriculum system was established in a concentrated manner in Iran. Therefore; all the curriculum decisions were made in the central level and then, are sent to the universities to be implemented honestly. More importantly, the experts and scholars have always criticized the centralization in developing university courses. Paying inadequate attention to knowledge growth and global changes, lack of pervasive participation of the academic staff in process of the curriculum development and irrelevancy of course contents to needs of the audience and society have been some of the criticisms focusing on the university environment.

Unanimous curriculum era within which, curricula in Iran at the level of central offices and in a united form were designed and usually were implemented at universities unchanged for many years. Although these kinds of curricula were not faculty proof curriculum, conspicuously changes in them were forbidden. Of course at the level of implementation, professors and teachers were free to do changes.

**Decentralization Discourse**

The third era which can be called the period of “decentralization of curriculum planning”, accompanies the curriculum reformation in 1990s. The purpose of these reforms was to pass the united and centralized curriculum and move toward gaining wider remits. In this period of time, accountability in higher education and quality development in curricula considering curriculum knowledge and enhancing graduates’ competences with the help of faculties and universities were in the order. The main philosophy of forming this movement accompanied with ratification and signification of power to change the curricula to universities and big institution which had audit board was because of the dying out of curricula and need to adjust them to the needs of labor market and the huge number of graduates without jobs. Curriculum change in higher education of Iran has been slow due to the mentioned centralization but the decision of Ministry of Science, Research and Technology to decrease the centralization and give responsibility of curriculum to universities (Regulation 1809 of Ministry of Science, Research and Technology, 2000) and executing policies of third and fourth programs of socioeconomic development provided the opportunity necessary for revision of university curriculum in different scientific disciplines. But there is a doubt if the academic system would make use of this chance. The previous studies indicate that the implementation of this regulation (giving responsibility of curriculum development to the universities and other higher education institutions) is not favorable (see Aghdasi, 2002; Momeni & Fathi, 2004; Norouz zade, 2007). Although this movement followed by many achievements, for Iran, because of faculties ‘inappropriate literacy on curriculum, and their reluctance to be engages in this process, this part was reported with failure.
Decolonization Discourse

The fourth era that became more serious from mid 2000s can be called “the period of curriculum customization” and efforts to “decolonize curriculum” especially in humanities. Although the growth of thoughts on Islamization of curriculum and tendency to local knowledge especially in humanities and also attempts to remove the symbols of westernizing particularly within the contents of university curricula had an unalloyed idea and constructive thoughts, in the face of humanities there were excesses. Because of a localization view, and lack of trust on all universities, this trend mainly followed at the central offices or universities and in special committees. Unfortunately, it stopped at a point not more than changing the headings and hope to localization according to changes in the curriculum document. Therefore, although it had an excellent thought it was followed with limited methods and views in action.

Blaming Discourse!

Recently we have entered in an era in which all of us blaming the past for all the wrongs. The most common discourse we have with other people includes the blame game! We are blaming people, policies, and structures, hidden and overt orientations for the last decade. For this reason the fifth era can be named as blaming period.

We must put our hands together to create a better future for our higher education curriculum. I think it is time to review the situation; there are some lessons to be learned from the past and move forward. Although transformation is an inevitable part of every curriculum system in higher education, undoubtedly contemplation and researches in this area of study shows that a collection of these items have had a prominent role in the failure of curriculum movements in higher education:

Published books in this area of study do not exceed the number of fingers. This youthfulness is to the extent that some of the authors seem to name it in an interesting way: Barnet’s book entitled “Engaging Curriculum in Higher Education”. Prof. Hicks, who is present here among us, has an article which has been welcomed by an increasing number of people. The title of his article is “Higher Education Curriculum in Australia: Hello”.

I can remember that years ago when I was outward bound for sabbatical to work on my project regarding to curriculum planning in higher education, one of my senior colleagues in the area of higher education told me: “Go and find if it is possible to discuss and deal with higher education curriculum in the world or not?”

Now, changes in this area of study, not only have been developed in the world in a broad sense, but also in Iran in a narrow sense. We, in the association of curriculum studies, have a special SIG entitled “Higher Education Curriculum”. It is for some years that we have had PhD level of this field in Shahid Beheshti University and we have had many graduates, too. Also, we have a special quarterly journal with this name. It should be said that we have a long way in this young but dynamic field of study.

Lack of theoretical knowledge and models based on scientific researches.

One of the most important challenges of higher education systems is continuous curriculum change. New interdisciplinary domains must be developed in order to train such students who will meet the needs of society and organizations while they make use of technological scientific changes. Curriculum change in higher education

1. The issues related to higher education curricula are hardly ever paid attention to. The published works about higher education curricula are not enough.

2. The published works have mainly prescribed a particular model to reform and revise higher education curricula and they introduce the areas in which these are applicable to.

3. It is really difficult to find a work as a synoptic text in which the models and texts for curriculum design and change in higher education have been reviewed.

This is because of the fact that the diversity and complexity of the environment of higher education make providing an overall framework or model widely used in various fields and locations difficult; this means that the previous studies ignored theorization and conceptualization of decision-making about curricula in this specialized subcategory of higher education.

There are different elements in conceptualizing academic curricula while curriculum is the heart of higher education for undergraduate studies and the basic philosophy of higher education, training students, is totally dependent on the curricula which are wisely and carefully planned; therefore, there is an urgent need for research studies to be focused on conceptualizing higher education curriculum development and change models As mentioned before, it is difficult to find a study presented as a synoptic text in which the models for interdisciplinary curriculum change or planning in higher education have been reviewed.

Curriculum literacy/ Faculty members pedagogical Literacy

The teaching and learning role of faculty members reflects their centrality in addressing the primary educational mission among colleges and universities. Faculty members are expected to provide instruction and student advising as assigned by the departmental chairman. Classroom instruction responsibilities include holding class for the entire period for which the class is scheduled (including the final examination period) and evaluating students' work and assigning grades within the policies of the University and Board of Regents to students officially enrolled in the class(Turner, 1996). Of the three roles of teaching, research, and service, the teaching role is the most widely shared among faculty members across institutional types. In brief the main aspects of teaching and learning responsibilities of faculty members are classroom teaching, Academic Advisement, Curriculum Development,
Academic Program Review and Course Duplication Review. Unlike all areas and skills which dealing with them needs to have certificates or passing some training courses, this process has not been institutionalized for teaching at higher education. University teachers rarely trained to be ready for their profession.

However, findings in some developing countries saying that there are major concerns on unfamiliarity of academics with software, which can be used in their teaching, lack of culture of working in web environment, and faculty and student disability in using ICT in teaching and learning that refer to an important concept of "ICT competency" of faculty members.

As the data of the one of our research in Iran showed pedagogical illiteracy of academics is one of the most important barriers. According to MSRT, the total number of faculty members who participated in workshops, which was conducted by MSRT from 2007 to 2011 was only 5399 (approximately 10% of the total of 43,134 faculty members working at the Iranian universities) (MSRHE, 2011).

According to the Table, 843 academicians have participated in curriculum workshops so far, and with respect to the total 43,134 faculty members working in Iranian universities, those who have attended was just around 2 % of the academics force. This figure is relatively small and it seems there is a long way to go!

According to a study, only 5 percent of faculties have passed teaching and curriculum courses, so how can we expect them to be champions and agents of curriculum change in higher education? Of course the development of Education Development Centers (EDCs) in the universities of medical sciences and establishing centers for training faculty members are herald for the development of curriculum literacy and enhancing competence to work in the area of curriculum among faculties.

In conclusion, one of the most important components in many universities is providing orientation programs for new faculties as well as conducting periodical needs assessment for diagnosing different needs and performance deficiency in order to design and putting in practice the training programs. Unfortunately, there is no a systematic
orientation programs for new academic staff specially concerning curriculum affairs. (Azadmanesh, 2006) In several major universities training programs that have been provided for academicians were not systematic or based on real needs. (Saadat Talab, 2007).

Lack of curriculum culture

Another factor is lack of the culture in terms of curriculum by faculties and students in the setting of higher education. There is not a serious motivation among faculties and experts to deal with the curriculum. There is not a position for curriculum activities in the procedures of faculty members’ promotion system. It seems that this factor has a role in the failure of curriculum transformations in Iran.

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Debate as a practice in Higher Education curricula

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Mode 2 of Knowledge production is context-driven, problem-focused and interdisciplinary. Higher education curricula must organize themselves to warrant this mandate and provide teaching and learning approaches more cooperative and contextualized.

This new culture establishes mechanisms that allow individuals to improve and enlarge their knowledge in relation to its cultural capital. Debate is a technique that helps to expand the knowledge, not only of the individual but also of society, as it allows putting into question or discussion the ideas of a group of people to find "coincidences" or differences on a particular topic.

This research aims to characterize the debate as a strategy to promote the participation of students in higher education and their learning.

Currently, some courses of the 14 faculties of the University of Porto used the "debate" as a pedagogical strategy for teaching. For this study we took into account: syllabus of subjects which are using the debate as a method of teaching - learning, the observations made by "De par em Par" program of the University of Porto as action of multidisciplinary training and the interviews to teachers that use debate in their courses, to achieve the research objectives.

There are pedagogical strategies that may be related to the debate, such as: forum, meeting in open space, collaborative work, interaction, dialogue, dialectic or deliberate. Each of these strategies, using different levels of criticism, shall be related with fields of science of each course and debates' uses.

Research is still on-going.

Nevertheless, study will characterize the uses of debate for learning purposes in Academia and shall discuss what would be the possible mechanisms of improvement to enter.

Keywords: Higher education pedagogies, curriculum practices, debate, classroom strategies

Introduction

More and more, open HE access policies bring into Universities students that were usually out of this education level. This is a very important target to accomplish among Portuguese system (and not only) as it ensures a larger "critical mass" into societies, but it must be followed by a reflection on the conditions that HE Institutions raise to integrate and promote effectively all students achievement and commitment.

This is in line with trends that shape European higher education policies in recent years, such: (1) the importance of attracting more students; (2) the idea that HE must be accountable to society; (3) the clear awareness that there is no university without science and (4) that HE curricula must organize to provide teaching and learning approaches more cooperative and contextualized (Nowothy et al.,2001). Never before, it was so required that HE
institutions train "students who think that others are not able to think, to say what others cannot say, to do what others have failed, before" (Nóvoa, 2011).

This picture claims for a new workforce to 21st century able to deal with rapid changes, open to novelty, skilled in information analysis, problem solving, effective communication and critical reflection on professional practice (Brennan, Enders, Musselin, Teichler, & Välimaa, 2008),and able to learn along their lives. This is also a challenge to HE curricula.

On the other hand, from a pedagogical point of view, it challenges the conventional roles of teachers and students in the Academia and in the 'knowledge society'. The expression “knowledge society” carries within itself new knowledge contents and processes, emphasizing on one hand innovation and creativity and on the other the political, social and ethic aspects of knowledge, aiming to relate economic development and human development, and then taking into account differences of power and levels of development (Cobo Romani, 2013).

If 'knowledge society' concept and need is largely consensual, as a goal to HE systems, Institutions must be more students' learning oriented. The growing importance of networked collaborative learning is associated with this change in the pedagogical paradigm and its key issues: “the focus on learning, the strengthening of the teacher-student and student-student interactions, the inclusion of collaborative work strategies and learning based on autonomy and reflection” (Nóvoa, 2011).

Which is the role of the debate as a methodology of teaching and learning in such equation?

Specifically, However, to what extent is debate used in academia for learning purposes, by which pedagogical strategies and with which effects?

There are multiple purposes to use the debate as a pedagogical strategy in higher education and each teacher has a different way to use it.

This paper intends to research this question. To do so, it starts by presenting a review of literature concerning how the debate works in the dimension of citizenship and collaborative - active learning.

Debate and the dimension of citizenship

The debate as strategy of learning in higher education could stimulate to the public participation of students but it can be combining with other strategies to achieve the main objective: share, clarify and create new knowledge about a topic in a context of mutual respect between participants.

As Hafford said “combining role play with debate provides a potential means of facilitating attitude change, combating ignorance, prejudice and discrimination.” (2010, 249) This combination allows the student on the one hand to use empathy to understand the situation from another point of view different from his/her; on the other hand to research more about the topic because to talk about something it is necessary to have reliable information and not just opinions unsubstantiated.

When a student realize about new changes in his/her mind and the multiple information to understand a topic he/she modifies the speech. According to Pontecorvo:
“the speech in the classroom and the language that characterize can be considered the meeting point between communicative and social process, on the one hand, and cognitive aspects, of another.”

(Pontecorvo, 2005, 55)

In this case, the debate allows connecting the learning process of the students in the university and the responsibilities that come with being a participant of the community know as citizenship (Microsoft Encarta 2009. 1993-2008). That could mean an approach between higher education institutions and the society trying to develop critical thinking in the students to talk about aspects that are considering important in the current context.

When debates are used to develop the student capacity to “weigh risks and benefits to draw a conclusion” (Moore, Clements, Sease, & Anderson, 2015, 240) in similar processes as the social debates related with a controversial subject, it is possible to claim that such debates serve citizenship aims. Some argumentative skills are supposed to be involved in these debates, also contribute to improve to citizenship. This is an issue that is relevant both to soft skills development (Mouraz, et al, 2014) as to deep knowledge construction process understood as a controversial one.

Debate and collaborative learning

The creation of new knowledge in higher education can happen through various media (oral, written, face to face, digital) for instance: e-mail, video conferences, forums of discussion among others, promote the involvement of the students. All these aspects allow mixing the efficacy of the learning process to the motivation to acquire new knowledge.

According to Johnson & Johnson “several currents recognizes the pedagogical importance of the collaboration between the actors of the educational process”. (in Pereira, 2011, 34) This collaboration could stimulate students to resolve some doubts or problems talking or debating to their classmates & teacher and their different perspectives to fix the problem.

Sometimes there is no a right answer or solution to a problem, doubt or topic but the most important to motivate a collaborative learning is the accession of students to the debate “within an educational context” and “hoping that learning happens as a side effect” (ibidem, 35)

This strategy can be related to the cooperative learning because the students can work together to resolve problems (Fontes; 2004). Acording to Johnson & Johnson there are three types of cooperative learning groups: formal cooperative learning (students are active in the work of intellectual group), informal cooperative learning (capture the attention of students) and cooperative base groups (groups of long duration of mutual cooperation). (ibidem 2004, 43)

Both the cooperative and collaborative learning allow a “classroom debate as a powerful learning tool for promoting classroom interaction and the development of skills such as communication, argument – construction, discussion and critical analysis” (Jagger, 2013,39)

Debate can be seen as “a way to engage students in their own learning” (Moore, Clements, Sease, & Anderson, 2015, 240).
Kegley sees a debate as an effective active learning strategy and thinks that “debates enable students to develop team skills” (Kegley, 2014,1) and that's the principal idea to develop in higher education and focus to improve at the same time the learning process and the student's individual and group abilities.

This research aims to characterize the debate as a strategy to promote the participation of students in higher education and their learning, according with two main dimensions previously referred: to promote citizenship and to improve learning in a collaborative way.

**Methodological framework**

The debates are an example of pedagogical strategy that implies a greater participation of students because it assumes that they are active and critical elements in the acquisition of knowledge that the University proposes them. The principal purpose of this paper is to produce knowledge about ways to better implement and ensure the scientific quality of the debates, designed as a pedagogical strategy.

According to this purpose were chosen the following secondary aims:

- Identify courses into the University of Porto which use the methodology of the debates as a strategy for increase students’ participation;
- Characterize the teaching work associated with the implementation of the debates’ methodology in the classroom;
- Study the students’ adherence to methodology;

To identify courses that use the debate as a methodological strategy of teaching, 34 bachelor's degree were took into account. Within the Sigarra webpage that belongs to the University of Porto a search was done using the word “debate” in the search box to detect the courses that could constitute the research material. “Debate” word was search within Courses plans: objectives, results, learning outcomes and competencies, program, teaching methods, learning activities and evaluation.

According to this procedure 183 courses were identified as could be seen at table 18.
It was necessary to identify carefully how many times the debate was located in each syllabus, because we need to know what is the idea to use it as a strategy. The final results were: objectives – 26 times, results – 6 times, program – 4 times, methodology – 157 times and evaluation – 4 times. After these results, we decided to choose four courses from different faculties to interview the teachers of these four courses. The selection was in relation to the following criteria:

- All these courses had the “debate” in the methodology.
- One of them had the “debate” in three aspects: objective, program and evaluation.
- There were used some verbs to practice the “debate” in these courses, for instance: stimulate, foster, combine, develop, consolidate, reflect, analyse and clarify.

Interviews used an interview guideline to characterize the course and the inclusion of the debate as methodology. Interview guideline focus on the same objectives of research, such previously presented.

Interviews were made after a contact mail with teachers and occurred in their work places from May 2015 until July 2015. Interviews were recorded and after, fully transcribed to aloud validation and analyses.

Analysis was performed following study objectives and framework. To do so, data were analysed using the NVivo program. Each objective was transformed in a main node and material analysis allowed a new structure composed
by main nodes and secondary nodes emerging from analysis. Sentence or a set of sentences expressing the same idea were, usually, consider the reference unit.

For the purpose of the present study four interviews were analysed. They are from different schools and courses and they include three women and one male which is correspondent with the main sample of our large study.

The study purpose was achieve by analysing three main dimensions that could answer to research question: which are the uses of debate in higher education classrooms? And which are the teachers’ work features that are related with debate enhancement? Analysis follows three main categories: course characterization, teaching work features and students’ participations.

**Results**

Four interviews were analyse according to the general data analysed and presented at table 19.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COURSES TYPE</th>
<th>Compulsory</th>
<th>Optional</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
<td><strong>4</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 19: Course type

**Course characterization**

It is important to characterize the use of debate in the mandatory and optional courses because this information allows understanding this kind of learning strategy.

For one hand, in mandatory course we found that inside this course teacher allow students have the conceptual and theoretical instruments sufficient to a critical reflection. It could be abstract or complex for students but they are responsible for each section of the subject with the help of teacher, for instance: the basis of the material learned is in the lectures then the debates are made in practice class where all students have access to the same texts those colleagues who are going to present a topic. In this course they have the debate and an exam too.

The debates have a structure; we divide the class into groups, and each group will be evaluated only once during the semester. Each group will be responsible for a section of the subject.

For the other hand, in optional courses students must understand that a view on a specific topic could be multiple and how to write about it, it is multiple too. To use the debate in the classroom teachers explain a little the context of the debate and if there is not enough time to continue with it, students have homework to recognize the main ideas of the text to debate next class. Some text can be chosen by them.
The choice of texts is important and the fact that we let them take ownership of bringing text. Teachers allow students to create something of them.

At the end of the debate the teacher make an oral summary by asking critical questions of what was said during the debate.

There are usually two phases. After the match and the explanation comes the discussion that happens when the positions are attacked by others and myself.

Teaching work features

The teaching work features in mandatory course is difficult because teacher in addition to having to evaluate she has to take notes. Teacher becomes a mediator to ensure that everyone has the opportunity to participate in the debate.

I have a collective framework where I'm noting who participates and the relevance of the participations on the audience.

Sometimes I do also of agent provocateur, give eventually an issue especially when the debate is falling or not start.

In fact, her work consist in be a "judge", mediator and have to make provocative. At the end of the debate she tries to do a synthesis in particular for the group who present the topic.

In the optional courses, the teaching work features it is similar because they work normally as pivot.

Teacher is typically the moderator and sometimes are almost the fisherman.

They show that there are other ways, forms and perspectives of complementary work of the subject. Every contribution is important and what teacher never done is to say that students are wrong because they bring ideas that sometimes teachers hadn't thought of, and that is enriching for both. The only difference is that one teacher decide to connect the subject with the reality using the daily information to be analyzed and discuss.

I start reading the newspapers of the day and then send them to go look for the street. I think this link to reality is fundamental.

Students’ participation

In the case of mandatory courses students' participation need to be assured to everyone, since it also depends on their note. However the more or less informal character of their participation and the diversity of ways in which they can do, it reflects in its discrimination in participating. One of the teacher said:

“Everyone wants to participate and so I have to give a chance to everyone to participate, I don't want it to come at the end of the class to say "teacher I was standing my arm up high and you didn't see and today I couldn't be evaluated and I wanted”
In the case of optional courses students’ participation is related to present a topic in an individual or group way where they have to answer questions but they have to also stimulate the debate and participation of the whole class because it’s a continuous evaluation. They enjoy participating in each debate.

The students’ participation depends on two main conditions: students must prepare their participation previously to avoid very common sense statements and students’ interest must be insured. This interest is better warranted when subject or themes are contextualized, meaning themes are related with daily based questions or future professional aspects. Also students are invited to present their statements in an innovative way, to foster colleagues participation.

In the debates, they can use other pedagogical techniques, make quizzes, submitted films, sometimes they also play, can pull off humor, can use some kind of humor to teach colleagues.

Teachers, in their discourses, related students’ participation and interest with evaluation practices it means that teachers ensure students’ work by making debate an assessment element. Also students’ work collaboratively to prepare their participation in debates.

Discussion and conclusions

The main differences between mandatory and optional courses using debate are Teacher work exigencies seem to be not different from those required for other methodologies implementation as teachers has to act as pivot, promotors and evaluators of students’ participation. This is in line with literature review presented that stressed the importance of making learning a discussable matter, related with knowledge society features, as stressed by Nowotny (2001) The same idea could be understood by reference to the construction character of knowledge instead of its transmissivity. Therefore it is possible to conclude regarding this issue that teachers’ work is very much evolving with class and with subject as it is within other pedagogical approaches that are student based learning.

Students’ participation is important to achieve debate purposes but it also depends on assessment practices that are used. Therefore it is not possible to conclude the close relation between debate and students’ participation without assessment practices.

References


Crossing the gap between high school and Higher Education: The gap year experience

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At a time of decision making crucial to their future many young people choose to step back from it and travel, explore the world, volunteering, learning about other cultures, postponing those decisions. In the moment between finish high school and enter Higher Education or the labour market they choose to took a Gap Year. Given this experience is possible for one to claim that the gappers will bring a different luggage which will make them look for the future with changed eyes. In this paper we will try to understand the way that this luggage, acquired with the gap year, influences the choices and the path of this young people in Higher Education system. This is a multicase study focused on former Portuguese gappers. In order to do this we will interview members of the institutions that fund and promote the gap year, participants in the gap year who are now in college and some family members or close friends that witnessed these changes. In addition we will also review the testimonials and photographic record of blogs produce by gappers with the purpose of understanding the way they lived this experience by analysing the types of situations they registered. Research is still on going. Nevertheless we expect to highlight this recent phenomenon in the Portuguese educational landscape and contribute to question how Higher education system is challenged by it.

Keywords: Gap Year, Transitions, Personal Development, College.

Introduction

At a time of decision making crucial to their future many young people choose to step back from it and travel, explore the world, volunteering, learning about other cultures, postponing those decisions. In the moment between finish high school and enter Higher Education or the labour market they choose to took a Gap Year.

Differently of what happened in Europe, where it has become increasingly popular to take a ‘Gap Year’ (Jones, 2004; Snee, 2010) in Portugal, this is a phenomenon that has been growing slowly. Four years ago, a private Portuguese foundation started to support these “experiences of a lifetime” arguing, to convince parents, that it will be of the utmost importance for young world citizenship development.

Traveling to improve personal skills and to develop a multicultural mentality are similarly trends that shape educational programs such as ERASMUS and other education policies under EU Commission support.

The distinct idea of Gap Year, related to these Erasmus mobilities is rather individualistic and not supported or institutional framed character that gappers faced. In a previous text authors present and discuss gappers motivations to perform a gap Year (Araújo & Mouraz, accepted). Adventure, the desire to see the world and to know a different reality from their own was the main motives reported. These are related with the above individualistic character of trips.
To what extent does this experience enlarge or modify cultural capital of these young people?

Key issues needed to understand such phenomenon are cultural capital and bildung.

In this paper we will try to understand the way that this experience, acquired with the Gap Year, influences the choices and the path of this young people in Higher Education system and contribute to explore to what extent this experience prevent dropout and failure in their higher education paths.

This study explores, through the qualitative analysis of the gappers' discourses, the main issues that the Gap Year experience provide them, highlighting meanings that emerged from their experiences.

Thus, the research hypotheses are:

H1. Impact of Gap Year experience has a motivational nature regarding the academic choice and commitment.

H2. The effects emerging (settled by Jones) from the Gap Year experience differ according to the gappers' gender.

H3. The effects emerging from the Gap Year experience differ in function of the gappers' socio-cultural background.

Methodology

This is a multicase study focused on former Portuguese gappers. 5 males and 2 females participated. The analysis of social-educational indicators (scholarship of parents) made evident the prevalence of students coming from families with a higher level of education. Three of the parents had finished basic education, four parents finished high school and the rest have a higher degree, like a graduation degree and master's degree.

Instruments to collect data were interviews made with participants in the Gap Year who are now in college and some family members or close friends that witnessed these changes.

Interviews made with gappers were focused in four main axes: general motivation to do the travel experience; main features that frame travel choices and aspects that occurred during the travel; difficulties faced during the experience; effects into personal lives and following academic paths. Regarding the interviews made to witnesses the guideline followed focus on two main axes: main motivations for traveling (as the witnesses were told or understood); and main changes they saw in gappers way of being.

In total were made eleven interviews (six to gappers and five given by close relatives), following a semi-structured logic. These interviews were carried out between May and June of 2015. Due to reasons of geographical distance and impossibility of travelling to meet the participants, the interviews were made using Skype. During the moment of data collection all ethical conditions of anonymity and data protection were assured. After this phase the interviews were transcript and analysed using the software Nvivo version 10. Transcriptions were “ideational”, meaning that transcriptions were faithful to interviewees' thoughts.

Interview analysis was made following both the work hypotheses, previous stated, crossed with the main dimensions of interviews.

In addition data include the testimonials and photographic record of blogs produced by gappers with the purpose of understanding the way they lived this experience by analysing the types of situations they registered and the cultural capital that experience allowed them. This information was crossed with other empirical material collected.
From a technical perspective, former gappers were identified by a capital letter that allows crossed analysis of different documents (blogs, pictures and interviews).

**Results**

*What gappers fixed by photos.*

Our first resources analysed are the photographs which the participants took during the Gap Year. Photos taken and analysed were significantly important and personal to former gappers. In one case the participant send a selection of photographs she made on purpose for this paper, after being asked to do so in the interview. When this particular selection wasn’t possible, the participants gave us their permission, despite of the material being online, for searching and analyse the photographs that were in the blogs they have made at the time of the experience. In total we analysed six blogs, however we only could extract information from five of them. Former gappers did organized their photos in albums with different dimensions: from 3 to 60, and roughly corresponding to travelling countries they went.

Despite one of the blogs was not possible to analyse, because the journey of the Gap Year was mixed with other experiences, we can say in a general way that the participants took photographs that can be include in the following categories: monuments, landscapes, iconic locations, streets, food, people and themselves.

Photos made by gappers were different regarding the continents were they travelled: in Asia and Africa photos reported, mainly people in their one habits and daily tasks. On the opposite, when travelling in European countries, monuments and sights were the main focus.

*What gappers wrote during their experience.*

Our second kind of resources analysed are the written reports which the former gappers made during their journeys and that are published in their blogs. Like the photographs we analysed logbooks from six blogs, however we were only able to extract information from the same five blogs.

The findings in the logbooks are very similar to what we found in the photos, like we mentioned above. As logbooks have been used to communicate with families, descriptions focused on the cities they visited, how they travel, the people they meet along the way, the food, and the people they saw and in some cases, descriptions about the volunteer experience. Doings this allowed families to know where gappers were and received some information about the experience.

Additionally, to time to time they shared thoughts and outbursts, expressing some difficulties and a little homesick after months of travelling. Regarding the main focus of writing, texts expressed objective descriptions of facts they saw or experienced their opinions and comparisons with Portuguese situation. Whenever it was possible text analysis follow the travel sequence.
What gappers said at time distance?

The third resources analysed were the interviews made to the former gappers regarding their Gap Year experience. During the interviews they spoke about some difficulties they had to face, and they also mentioned how the Gap Year helped them to grow and the valuable the experience had in their path in Higher Education.

In the case of L. he pointed as main difficulties being alone (without his parents and out of his usual social context) and also language differences were a problem in some countries.

For H. and B, especially H. the difficulties started even before the begging of the journey, because his family didn’t accepted well his idea of doing the Gap Year. Besides this they also mentioned language as a difficulty in some cases, and reported a little trouble adjusting to the habits of African people.

Another former gapper who was volunteer in Africa, was D., and he also gives value to this part of the journey. He represents this experience as a growing one, as it implies an overcoming of challenges (because he didn’t have the conditions he was used to have in Portugal) and enhanced the respect for others. Because of this, he considered the Gap Year significat, not only in academic life, but also in extracurricular and personal life. However D. said that the outcomes of the experience aren’t tangible, they’re intrinsic and he thinks it could be an asset in his personal curriculum.

As the others former gappers, D. focus on the people he met, especially in Africa. Living like the people who welcomed him, taking care of children, teaching them and being able to provide them some care and attention were the things that he remembered most. When D. reported the difficulties he felt, the reaction of the family was the first one. They didn’t like his idea of travelling across the world, especially in African continent.

In relation to the journey itself D. mentioned language, especially some popular dialects, as a problem he had to face. Another problem he had to face were dirty houses when he did couch surfing and an attempted extortion, the last one resulted in leaving the house first thing in the morning.

M. was the first former gapper we interview who did the trip alone. He considered this both dangerous and rewarding. As he travelled alone he met new people and he learned to take care for himself without the help of friends or parents, often using unknown people in search for help. As difficulties M. focused in the pressure of street vendors, which make the walks by the city slightly unpleasant. He admitted that sometimes he felt like turning away to Portugal, giving up the idea, especially in a more lonely time or when he was sick.

G. also travelled alone and despite the risks she felt, like M., very grateful to all the people she met, who helped her and that showed her the cities in a way a normal tourist could never experience. Notwithstanding having made the trip alone she didn’t considered this a difficulty. Her first problem was convincing her family to let her do the trip.

The last former gapper we interviewed was P., who during her Gap Year did volunteer work in Africa, being that time the most rewarding, like she stated. During the volunteer period she was able to teach the children and also give to them a little bit of attention and care that they crave to have. She also become a more understanding and respectful person towards the different traditions of the communities. Moreover she also gained autonomy, sense of organization, independence, a higher capacity of risk analysis, an ability to relativize things and a more comprehension for the other. This experience contributed to her choice of academic studies, since she decided to charge the course after she came back from the Gap Year. When asked to report some difficulties she has felt, P.
stated she felt had some trouble understanding some aspect of the local culture in the first time. Then, she started to see them in a different way. She didn’t mention any other type of difficulty.

To summarize, in the interviews the most frequent difficulties reported were language, especially in non-speaking English countries. Besides that the majority of the participants also stated having had some difficulties in adapting to local habits and certain aspects of the local culture.

The former gappers considered they develop certain skills, like organizational skills, autonomy, leadership skills, ability of overcoming problems and communicational skills. Moreover, to experience “limit-situations” were one of the motivations that seduced gappers and is usually related with solving multidimensional problems in multicultural contexts, benefiting the personal competence to face unexpected and challenging environments – a way to live the experience at the most.

From the development and personal perspective all the former gappers considered they are more mature, more independent and more able to face any difficulties that life will put in front of them. Also faced difficulties were at the same time, equal opportunities to solve them and to develop soft skills in a broadly way. Related to Gap Year influence regarding the choice of academic path to follow it is possible to conclude that gappers made up their minds and made more clear their choices. Experience also contributes to see in a clearer way the importance of education and promote a more committed behaviour of former gappers, as they compare themselves with their actual colleagues.

*What the others said*

The fourth set of resources analysed is the contributions of the family members or friends which were chosen by the former gappers as witnesses of their changes due to Gap Year experience. Three mothers, one girlfriend and two friends were interviewed (one of the participants didn’t sent the information required in the given time of someone who could be his witness).

All of the witnesses confirmed the idea that experience made the gappers return more mature, as they came back more determined about what they wanted for their future and more motivated to accomplish their Higher Education degrees. Also, they stated some changes in the former gappers, like the sense of responsibility and organization, the autonomy and independence and the way they were more comprehensive and open to others. Finally, the three mothers express grateful for the support, company and care the gappers had received during the journey and thanked all the people for welcomed them in their countries, cities and houses.

*Discussion*

As summarized, most frequent difficulties reported by gappers were language issues, and the different cultural habits they contacted. These two kinds of difficulties were reported by all gappers. Gender or cultural background doesn’t justify any difference.

Girls had some difficulties to convince families, but the journey itself doesn’t bring to them any particular problem in spite they travelled alone. On the opposite of popular belief it seems that girls, travelling alone, have fewer
difficulties to find accommodation, general support and other travelling sustenance. Also they reported a more generalize care climate among people they contacted. It seems that is a different issue as it was experienced by boys that reported some episodes of less secure feelings. Health problems, which contributed for safety perceptions were experienced by two gappers, and are probably related with homesick episodes, also reported by boys. Therefore, it is not possible to relate gender with feelings but it is possible to relate feelings with safety problems.

Soft skills like organizational, communicational, leadership, problem solving and autonomy were completely required and improved during the travel experience. Levels of effectiveness of such soft skills are broader and deepened than if they didn’t did a Gap Year experience. And this is of the most importance to them and their families. This is quite similar to results reported by Jones (2004) and could be read as the kind of impact that Heath (2007) argued.

From a personal perspective, all the former gappers considered they are more mature, more independent and more able to face any difficulties that life will put in front of them. Also faced difficulties were at the same time, equal opportunities to solve them and to develop soft skills in a broadly way.

However maturity doesn’t seem to be experienced by all, equally.

Personal autonomy was a feature that can be stated regarding every gapper interviewed. Nevertheless it seems that girls have to prove this autonomy by doing their journey, while boys seem to prove their autonomy to themselves. However, it’s not possible to state that autonomy is a difference between boys and girls, as all witnesses stated that gappers were autonomous and participant citizens even before the Gap Year experience. Therefore it’s not possible to conclude that autonomy grows differently due to gender. Nevertheless their voluntary work experiences developed during Gap Year period seem to enhance their social values and citizenship awareness. This is in line with O’Shea, (2011) remarks.

Regarding the choice of academic path it is possible to conclude that gappers made clearer their choices and explain a more committed behaviour to academic tasks. Therefore the delay of academic studies was less important than expected. As families discovered, when gappers return, they were more motivated than ever to pursue Higher Education studies. Therefore it is possible to conclude that taking a gap year experience prevents higher Education failure and dropout, as Jones (2004) and O’Shea (2011) reported. Also, some gappers discourse, stating that was not a lost year but an improvement year, seem to be effective to these parents that added innovative paths argument to improve the curriculum vitae. These fears of families were more expressed by these that have less scholarship, but it was not possible to interview such families and do the triangulation of data concerning this issue. So, cultural background of families is, possibly, related with time (un)pressure and curriculum enhancement. Such result is coherent with Bourdieu’s theory (1986). This could be related with similar social backgrounds of families interviewed.

Conclusions

This paper focused the way as experience acquired with the Gap Year, shapes their cultural capital and influences the choices and the path of this young people in Higher Education system.
It is possible to state that these young participants change due to their travelling experience as gappers. They came more mature, more able to solve problems, more secure of their choices and life options. Also they seem to be more effective in their academic path. Gender or cultural background doesn’t justify any relevant difference regarding the skills that were improved. Nevertheless, autonomy seems to be lived differently concerning gender difference.

As it concerns to gappers’ socio-cultural background, research found out that time (un)pressure was the most important descriptor of cultural capital raised by families. The enlargement of cultural thoughts to a broad level that features the concept of Bourdieu that seems to be lived differently in two cases (a boy and a girl) that express more they concerns about the Otherness.

Furthermore it is possible to conclude that Gap Year experience had a motivational impact regarding the academic choice and commitment, shown by ex-gappers when they ingress Higher Education system. This allows the inference that gap year experience could contribute to prevent Higher Education failure and/or dropout.

Thus, one can conclude that Gap Year experience clarify and redirect the choices made by gappers related to their academic path and reinforced motivation among some of them to be a more interventive citizen.

Acknowledgements

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References


“Flipped classroom” as new challenge in higher education: a multi case study

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“Flipped classroom” is an emergent concept in educational discourses in higher education. In a short papers’ inventory in Scopus database of peer-reviewed research, it was possible to find out only one paper in 2009 and a rising number of papers in following years – in 2014, 137 papers were included in Scopus labeled with this keyword.

“Flipped classroom” means a pedagogical inversion of traditional class: actions that are used in class are now prepared by students previously to classroom. Therefore, when students come into class they already know what is main topic and more important problems that will be under scope. Classroom is used to debate, to do exercises, to perform experimental protocols, to further discuss main implications of scientific issues related with course subject matter. This implies more active role of students and more challenging task of lecturers.

This paper aims to identify and characterize courses in UPorto that are using flipped classroom idea (not the expression) as the main pedagogical strategy. Furthermore, it relates such strategy with active learning practices and discusses its effectiveness.

A multi case study focused in these courses is running to reach these objectives. Documental analyses and interviews with lecturers are used to collect empirical data.

Keywords: Higher education pedagogies, “Flipped classroom”; active learning, student’s participation in classroom

Introduction

“Flipped classroom” is an emergent concept in educational discourses in higher education. In a short papers’ inventory in Scopus database of peer-reviewed research, it was possible to find out only one paper in 2009 and a rising number of papers in following years – in 2014, 137 papers were included in Scopus labeled with this keyword.

“Flipped classroom” means a pedagogical inversion of traditional class: actions that are used in class are now prepared by students previously to classroom. Therefore, when students come into class they already know what is main topic and more important problems that will be under scope. Classroom is used to debate, to do exercises, to perform experimental protocols, to further discuss main implications of scientific issues related with course subject matter. This implies a more active role of students and a more challenging task of lecturers. This inversion of the traditional classroom has been associated with the learning practices mobilized by students, allowing them to revisit concepts of greater difficulty, to take notes and to make revisions; to develop the study at their own pace and to have control over the learning process (Kay and Kletskin, 2012), giving them more responsibility in the learning process and in the achievement marks.
Four main questions could be raised to organize a framework that supports flipped classroom practices: what motivations and aims underlie the decision to use it in higher education classroom; what could be the core of classroom work, including a reflection about students’ role; what is the importance of ICT resources and devices, and, finally, which are the main effects of flipped classroom, both in students’ motivation and learning and in HE configuration.

1

Literature stresses two larger entanglements that frame motivations to flip classroom, from the point of view of lecturers: to attend diversity of students and their constrains to access education and to increase the effective involvement of students in class and with their own learning.

Regarding this second motive it must be also considered that the aim follows the idea of an active learning that supports many other pedagogical strategies within a constructivist purpose. The specificity of this particular approach in such active learning trend is that the constellation of techniques used (Martin, 2015) “represents the combination of learning theories once thought to be incompatible - active, problem-based learning activities founded upon constructivist ideals and instructional lectures derived from direct instruction methods founded upon behaviorist principles. (Bishop & Verleger 2013).

However the most referred motive to flip classroom is to attend students diversity, either it comes from students’ age, students’ learning style, as stressed by Tourón & Santiago when they wrote “The further the students are either above or below the «standard» age group profile, the more serious this situation becomes. Such is the case of the more able students, whose specific cognitive and non-cognitive abilities are brought to light through differentiated attention, with particular mention of precociousness and pace of learning. (Tourón, & Santiago, 2015: 33). Also, ICT resources allow to attend other students’ diversities, coming from their circumstances, as they do not need to learn in the same place at the same time, listening to a lectures (Boudet, & Talón, 2012). This is understood as a way to meet fight against dropout as could be compatible with a blended classroom (Rutherford & Rutherford, 2013). This also demands lectures to define a “core curriculum that can meet learners where they are in a digitally oriented world, enhance the relevance and retention of knowledge through rich interactive exercises” (Prober & Khan, 2013, 1407).

2

The core of classroom work is changed due to flipped classroom. If Classroom is not anymore the place to contact, for the first time, with subject matter, two questions arise: how students prepare themselves to attend class and what is the core of classroom work?

Literature revised identified the students’ preparation for lectures by reading some introductory material (previously available in the learning platform), as watching short lecture videos and completing required in-video quiz questions. “Over 50 videos were created for this course, and each week students were expected to review the videos related to the upcoming week's topics”. (Rockland, 2013).
During lecture, the main concern is making room for interactive activities (Wilson, 2013). The students worked through exercises with the support of the lecturer (Campbell, 2014); explore the value of cognitive and metacognitive elements underlying their understanding to promote active learning (Davis, 2013). Debates and students’ engagement within lecture are more frequent. Sometimes, “assessments are developed for learning outcomes for each week, along with assessments on the students’ perception of the effectiveness on the video material” (Rockland, 2013).

ICT resources are important in flipped classroom. Assuming that there is not a mandatory book to be learned by heart as in medieval Universities, knowledge is at a mouse click distance and that democratize the access to information. ICT resources play a huge difference in such access as they aloud cheap and flexible environments to learn. Furthermore, diversified platforms using web 2.0 and web 3.0 technologies promise a new world and challenge installed learning cultures. This is the case of the use of a "new, low-cost, state-of-the-art CRS (Top Hat Monocle) which allows students to use their mobile devices (phones, tablets, laptops) to respond to a variety of numerical, multiple-choice, short-answer and open-ended discussion questions posed during face-to-face workshops” that Lucke et al. published in 2013. This is also the case of the increasing access to low-cost screen casting software and Web-based course and video management tools, which uses were researched by Van Veen (2013). As technology is more and more available and cheap it allows students to reconstructs knowledge from information. As Rutherfoord and Rutherfoord stress, “the flipped classroom is not necessarily a new idea, in fact, it developed from such things as hybrid or blended classrooms. But flipping the classroom does have different pedagogical implications for student learning (Rutherfoord & Rutherfoord, 2013).

Regarding the main effects of flipped classroom that literature reports it is possible to organize three large sets. One is related with pedagogical implications of using this framework, both for curriculum development as for teachers’ role.

The studies that refer the new classroom organization and the curriculum development implications focus the features of progressive activities and engaging experiences that curriculum development options must provide.

Also Kurup stresses: “The 'Flipped Classroom' model seems to combine the best of both worlds. It allows the learner to assimilate basic information (lower order cognitive skills) from material that is placed online, allowing asynchronous learning. It frees up the teacher to use the face-to-face interaction time in the operating room and classroom for training the student in advanced concepts (higher order cognitive skills (Kurup, 2013).

In addition, this is challenging to lecturers’ role as they need to reorganize their practices and need other training opportunities. In a recent study, published in 2014, Burns and Schroeder conclude that “ninety-two percent [of teachers] agreed or strongly agreed the readings and discussions were relevant to their work and life. [Therefore] This modified flipped classroom process enhances Community Nutrition Educators understanding and application of new information. Current staff development opportunities now include this modified flipped classroom model"
The other main effect is related with Institutional organization, including websites and technological platforms. The studies reported, as previously stated, the increase of using of new technological programmes and devices and the necessary adjustment of resources to be committed to the purpose. Concerning the issue, Baepler, P., et al. (2014) conclude: "Our findings demonstrated that in an active learning classroom, student faculty contact could be reduced by two-thirds and students achieved learning outcomes that were at least as good, and in one comparison significantly better than, those in a traditional classroom. Concurrently, student perceptions of the learning environment were improved. This suggests that pedagogically speaking, active learning classrooms, though they seat fewer students per square foot, are actually a more efficient use of physical space."

However, studies are generally designed in a small scale or reporting case studies and the institutional effects are missing as a research object.

The third one is related with students learning, satisfaction, motivation and effectiveness.

Dickson & Stephens (2014) present an empirical study that reveals the effective the methodology is. This authors reveals that the satisfaction risen significantly in a study with a meaningfully data (N=384).

Furse (2013) refer that satisfaction is the outcome of more interaction. On the other hand, Strayer (2012) says that students experiment less satisfaction of structuring, but they were satisfied regarding the use of collaborative work and methods used.

Motivation is broadly a consequence of satisfaction. As students declare themselves satisfied they get more motivation to participate. This was referred by Lucke et al. (2013) by the great show of commitment from students about the goals of class. Touchton (2015) presented similar results of his experimental study: students feel more motivated over traditional classes, for that reason prefer the inverted classes.

“I find flipping the classroom gives students statistically significant advantages in difficult, applied areas emphasized in class. Furthermore, students in the flipped classroom feel they learned more and enjoyed the course more than those in a traditional classroom. I argue students’ affective preference for a flipped classroom is important for student motivation, recollection, and future use of quantitative data analysis. Flipping the classroom entails high start-up costs, but it can merit implementing to improve both effective and affective instructional outcomes.” Touchton (2015)

When comparing flipped classroom with simulation based learning, Davies et al. (2013) found that “a technology enhanced flipped classroom was both effective and scalable; it better facilitated learning than the simulation-based training and students found this approach to be more motivating in that it allowed for greater differentiation of instruction.”

Relating motivation, flipped classroom and students’ autonomy, Chiang & Wang (2015) conclude “that students in an in-flipped classroom exhibit better individualization than those in a traditional classroom and have increased interest in cooperative learning. The study also finds that students are more easily engaged in lectures and develop self-directed, self-regulating, and self-determined skills through the proposed method.”

In a research revision conducted in 2013, Bishop and Verleger report that studies of “student perceptions of the flipped classroom are somewhat mixed, but are generally positive overall. Students tend to prefer in-person lectures to video lectures, but prefer interactive classroom activities over lectures"
In terms of effectiveness of this methodology, Furse (2013) refers that results risen significantly (N=30), and identify as motive of this the interaction as a motive for satisfaction of students. Also, Critz (2013) advocates that this methodology was a big success to students and faculty. Nevertheless and as it was found regarding institutional effects there are few studies relating methodology and students achievement and a more diverse and specific research into the effectiveness of the flipped classroom approach is needed. (Abeysekera &. Dawson 2015).

This paper aims identify and characterize courses in UPorto that are using flipped classroom idea (not the expression) as the main pedagogical strategy. Furthermore, it relates such strategy with active learning practices and discusses its effectiveness from the perspective of lecturers’ perception.

Methodology

A pilot study focused in these courses was developed to reach these objectives.

The methodology sounds adequate as ‘Flipped Classroom’ is quite recent phenomenon in Portuguese higher educational context. It allows a first look on the issue and opens the debate regarding the subject, as it is innovative within the context and shows the constrains as well it highlights the philosophical choices behind the pedagogical approach. The study focus on two courses that were selected by systematical procedure to find out, among courses delivered by all Schools of a large university in Portugal, which of them put in practice the expression “Flipped Classroom”. Courses’ documents available in the web were analyzed to reach the purpose – to find the use of the expression. The selections process aloud the identification of these two cases, one from School of Engineering and the other from Medical School.

Interviews with lecturers were the instruments used to collect empirical data.

The interview was of a semi-structured type and was designed to collect information and lecturers perceptions regarding four main issues: teaching philosophy approach; curriculum aims and structure; course results and methodological effects (table 20).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Characterization of learning and teaching philosophy approach</td>
<td>To Identify the curriculum of teaching options</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization of the course and intended purposes</td>
<td>To Characterize the teaching work associated with the implementation of the Flipped classroom methodology;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results and effectiveness</td>
<td>To Identify produced and mobilized resources;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effects on teaching</td>
<td>To Study the adhesion of students to the methodology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To Study the constraints associated with its implementation ;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To Analysis of the effects of the methodological approach in teaching and lectures’ role</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 20: Interview dimensions and objectives
Referred structure was used as framework for analyzing the interviews. However as analysis was done with NVivo software assistance, some of categories were deployed in a more substantive subcategories, whenever it applies. For the analysis purpose, meaningful sentence or period was considered the data unit - reference. Sentences and periods were coded in a not exclusive way. It means that the same sentence could be coded in more than one category and subcategory.

Results

Cases features

A Course from Engineering and a Course from Medical School were selected. Courses belong to masters programs, but the one from Medical School is an integrated master, which means that there are not first and second cycle differentiated programs (according to Bologna process). However course analyzed is currently attended by second year students. The course from engineering belongs to a Master degree program and course is currently attended by students in its second semester. Students are older than their colleagues from medical School and some of them are also workers. This feature is important as students are aged differently and their maturity and autonomy are diverse. Courses subject matters were disregarded as a relevant issue to analyze differences.

What is the perspective of FC the interviewee presents?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A Course from Engineering</th>
<th>A Course from Medical School</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FC</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. FC vs B-learning</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Teaching philosophy</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Origin of the idea</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Resources used</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Video’s</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 21: Categories and subcategories distribution on FC approach according to courses

A Course from Engineering

The analysis of the empirical material enabled to understand the interviewee perspective regarding Flipped classroom methodology. He contacted with this methodology through entrepreneurship training developed by Steve Blank, who began to put on the internet content related to entrepreneurship. Under the entrepreneurship training, the flipped classroom (FC) is introduced from a so-called Lean Startup platform.

From the perspective of this interviewee, the Flipped Classroom is the best teaching methodology, in the area of entrepreneurship.
Classes started by a quiz, delivered at the first 5 minutes that is answered by whom is enrolled in the course and was present in the classroom (to do so, it’s placed a password, that lets see who is present in class). Quizzes were related with videos that students saw previously. Viewing the videos were the task to be performed by students, previously. Quizzes were the kicking-off, but these lessons were not based only on the quiz, as students hold presentations, weekly, that mobilized many of the concepts that were covered in the videos.

However, for those who don’t have availability to view the videos, there is a possibility to read the transcripts of those videos through software device, entitled Udacity. This platform is a free application for smartphone and allows the users to download the videos. Thus, the students can view videos at any time of the day and at any place. Also, FC aloud students to mobilize what other courses have been working and articulate them in a fruitful way.

The teacher follows a teaching philosophy that is based on flexibility and availability, primarily to support students who don’t have as much autonomy as it was necessary and experience more difficulties.

A Course from Medical School

The interviewee presents its FC methodology definition comparing it to the B-Learning methodology. In this sense, she considers that the FC depends of students’ commitment and homework and it requires time from students to do, at home, what traditionally they did in class. Materials available to aloud this first contact are videos, displayed by lecturer at Course platform. These videos are free and were chosen by the teacher through YouTube and even from foreign university websites.

Students could/should saw videos, in advance. In other words, there is an information acquisition period at home and a period of application of this information in the classroom. In turn, the B-Learning model requires a vesting period of presence information or remotely, and the information applied in person or remotely. In short, this lecturer argues that FC is like B-Learning, but adapted. Emphasizing the application of subject matter in class could aloud students to go deep in their learning.

What are the reasons for lectures’ to use the methodology?

A Course from Engineering

To this teacher, using this methodology is an opportunity that Lean startup platform made available to entrepreneurship courses. To use it a resource is scientifically unquestionable, since it is accepted by the academic community to which he belongs. Furthermore, it is easily accessible as it is possible, through the mobile learning concept, to access videos to publish presentations and other materials to get feedback from partners, even if they are at a long distance.

The Lean Startup platform allows the teacher to control the videos’ views as well as the Moodle allows the quiz fulfillment. To access this platform is necessary to make a hiring service. After payment, you can access the area of Flipped Classroom, where several videos are available and organized by subject. It is the easy way of access that is of the utmost importance to the interviewee. He explained the range of uses that this platform provides, and
its flexible way of exploring by taggets. The time saved in the organization of classes is other reason referred to use this platform. The teacher justifies that those videos are short time – about 5 minutes, address a set of concepts and are relevant from a scientific perspective. In addition, they allow deepening and addressing other related concepts.

This platform also provides another tool that allows teachers to control the viewing of videos that the students do, which is a device that contributes to better information concerning who saw which videos. It is of the utmost importance to adopt different approaches and teaching methods regarding different levels of students’ autonomy. To this teacher, his previous experiences told him the importance of work differently with different students, and give them the freedom to find other ways of action, or deliver a greater supervision if students don’t cope well with this freedom.

**A Course from Medical School**

The course presented by the interviewee, is linked to the microscopic imaging. In this sense, the teacher promotes the videos previewing before class so that students can better understand what they would have to do in class. In other words, the videos viewing replace the theoretical exposition of the teacher. In addition, the previous display of videos would allow them to be better prepared for the practical classes, in order to facilitate their learning, as well as their ratings. Thus, the videos were chosen for each practical class in order to show what the student would view on the blades in schematic form and according to a three-dimensional component. This is a more contextualized and realistic way to display relevant information, according to lecturer.

The easy access was one of the factors that led her to mobilize the videos as a resource, as students can access the videos on their tablets, smartphones or computers whenever they want. Nevertheless, viewing the videos is optional.

Some features led this professional to use this methodology. The imaging feature of her course subject and the desired competences of students regarding these images interpretation is an important argument. Above all, lecturer sought to exploit the new technologies of information and communication to achieve better learning levels among students. In addition, promote motivation, facilitate learning, and improve student achievement are other goals in lecturer discourse.

**What features a course using this methodology?**

From the discourse of lecturers it is possible to identify three kinds of features concerning the main issues that characterize the FC methodological practices they implemented: the curriculum options; the expected work to be performed by students, the role of the students; and the aspects that constrain the implementation of FC methodology.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A Course from Engineering</th>
<th>A Course from Medical School</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Curricular options</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course evaluation process</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A Course from Engineering

The participation of students sustains the organization of classes as this happens if the student doesn’t fulfill its tasks, this is if they don’t saw previously the videos, they don’t do quizzes and they don’t prepare their presentations the class doesn’t happen. Class runs in an interactive way as students present developments in their work and receive feedback. This explains why assessment and control over the students’ work is closely related with class organization and got the majority of references coded. Every task performed by students is to be assessed and serves also as evaluation device of curriculum development. It is also important to stress that peer instruction is a strategy that happens or is required by course.

The teacher provides the methodology manual for the students had access to the principles implicit in this.

A Course from Medical School

At the time of interview, the lecturer uses partially the FC methodology, assuming this as an experimental stage. This means that she flips some classes, but others she doesn't. In this sense and because of the partial nature of the application of teaching methodology, she says that not much has changed in the way of her classes’ organization. Also, she hasn't any kind of penalty to students that don’t view videos previously. Instead, viewing previously the videos is an option for students of two of the five classes enrolled in the same course. Lecturer doesn’t refer anytime any peer instruction strategy or other group work as important to develop course outcomes.

Every student could see the videos but videos are only available previously to classes for these students from these two classes. This procedure allowed students to review the theoretical part of subject and prepare themselves for practical tasks conducted within the class. As stated before the course materials chosen follow a realistic and contextualized approach of tasks to perform.
A Course from Engineering

Under the entrepreneurship area, it’s also important for students to sustain and argue an idea mobilizing the appropriate language. In order to achieve these goals students must be responsible, committed and diligent. Tasks designed to they performed, out and in class, train and improve these competencies. Such tasks are active learning character and include: watch videos, read the texts, do the quiz, participate in class, bring a project proposal, contact and interact with other professionals/experts, do further research, make presentations in the classroom, engage in debate, ask questions, put their projects on the platform, take responsibility for the performance of their duties.

Lecturer also stresses that working with adults means that they must be responsible, fulfilling its part of the agreement of learning job. Thus, he concluded that one of the key tools of this teaching methodology is the students’ responsibility.

A Course from Medical School

Due to the methodological option followed by this lecturer, students can view the videos available to prepare for classes, although the viewing of videos is optional. This appeals to the students’ responsibility. Viewing the videos; solve the exercises that are available online, to allow a better understanding of videos content, are the expected tasks to students develop so they can achieve better results. Students still need to strive further to ensure the quality of their work.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A Course from Engineering</th>
<th>A Course from Medical School</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constrains</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 24: Categories and subcategories distribution on constrains according to courses

A Course from Engineering

There is a set of constraints that obstacle the use of this methodology. They come from institutional features as the high number of groups or students in class. The more students are in class more difficult is to implement end control the teaching and learning process.
The main constraint comes from students’ attitude as they hardly participate in debate when it is related with other colleagues work. It seems that students only participate in a reactive manner, when their own work is on focus. Also the higher number of work groups is due from conflicts that arose in one of the groups. Three elements have failed to reconcile their views and it was not possible to remain as a group, bringing the need to work individually.

The Udacity - the platform that allows viewing of videos and reading texts - makes the number of video views through the Lean Startup left adulterated. Therefore teacher control on the video views or reading texts is, sometimes, not reliable.

Another constraint may be attached to the lack of experience in FC methodology development that lecturer considers as somewhat limited. He is expecting that the use could give the expertise and the opportunity to improve.

A Course from Medical School
The selection process of videos confront teacher with a problem: videos are not so short, focused, challenging, interesting and informative as she desired. Some of them were very monotonous and had fixed images with audio recording associated.

The control of the videos viewing was another constraint as the platform access had a informatics bug and didn't allowed to controlled which students access, in fact, to videos.

What is expected and characterizes the work of lectures’?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A Course from Engineering</th>
<th>A Course from Medical School</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effects on teaching</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching reflection improvement</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lectures’ training</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborative teaching work</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 25: Categories and subcategories distribution on teaching effects according to courses

A Course from Engineering
Teaching work is characterized above all by an active listening regarding students’ performance and learning.

This teacher defines his own action in accordance with the following dimensions: support and guidance of the student, flexibility/availability to answer questions, attention to the students’ difficulties in the adaptation to this way of working. In a role definition, teacher prepare quizzes, do mentoring and assessing, develop and redefine the course, and articulate curriculum goals with other courses belonging to the same program.
A Course from Medical School

To lecturer her role is a learning process facilitator defined by guiding than driving. This professional also stressed that guide and drive are very similar words, but there is a huge semantic difference illustrated by car driving metaphor: the driver of a vehicle decides everything and the copilot will give directions. In this sense, the teacher shift driving chair for co-pilot seat.

What are the effects on students?

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A Course from Engineering</th>
<th>A Course from Medical School</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effects on students</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students' commitment</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Soft skills development</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact on other courses</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 26: Categories and subcategories distribution on students effects according to courses

A Course from Engineering

Regarding the effects related with the use of this teaching method, the teacher said that there is an improvement of the results, although it cannot specify them because the semester isn’t over. At the time of the interview, lecturer noted that students’ attendance to classes increased, and it is connected with individual responsibility of students in fulfilling their tasks. In addition lecturer said that methodology motivated students for individual work, and group work - peer instruction.

A Course from Medical School

Students who viewed the videos were motivated, curious and more active during classes. In this sense, the better the students prepared themselves for classes, the better the class ran, giving space to do other activities.

The teacher couldn’t made an assessment of the effectiveness of the methodology process, but she thinks there is a positive trend. Students were happier, more motivated and tend to have better results. However, it was not possible to find a difference connected to the students' ratings.

Discussion and Conclusion

Curriculum options was the most referred category while effects on the students' results and effectiveness was the less referred. This is in line with this paper answer to leading objectives. So far, lecturers are mostly concerned with
curricular organization features and teaching options. This is an innovative approach and time was not enough to evaluate the experience.

These lecturers work is changing as they are highly committed with students’ active learning promotion. Reported curricular options as Course evaluation process, previous characterization of students, curriculum contextualization, students’ work control and peer instruction were highlighted as important features of classes.

Students’ expected work is other main issue of FC approach as it crucial to perform FC as it is closely related with students’ commitment. Such results are in line with findings from Wilson (2013) and Bishop (2013). Furthermore, as much as students are involved with subject matter as much the classroom is an interactive place to learn. ICT resources and ICT lecturers’ abilities are important to flip class and was reported both as a constraint and as a strength of FC model.

Flipped classroom is related with active learning practices and with enhancing students’ motivation and satisfaction. However, learning effectiveness is still not very well demonstrated. This is in line with literature revision and connects with previous short time of experiment (Abeysekera & Dawson 2015).

From the perspective of the lecturers, FC is a promising methodology to teach and lean as it increases students commitment and satisfaction, but time is needed to change students’ attitude regarding they own role into more active participation. Also lecturers’ training needs to be more focused.

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Integrating the prevention of gender-based violence in the curriculum design and development with high school teachers

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A violence-prevention curriculum has been object of research on curriculum studies since several decades (Bergsgaard 1997), but gender violence prevention had not yet received so much attention from this field of studies. In some countries, gender-based violence prevention is included in education for citizenship, in a wider view of education against gender stereotypes and prejudices (Salcedo-Barrientos et al. 2012; Andersson 2012; Cox et al. 2010). Similarly, several studies have provided evidence about the role of schools in (re)producing masculinities and femininities (Mils 2001) as a cultural ground for gender and domestic violence. The role of school education as regulatory or emancipatory has also been discussed since the implementation of compulsory schooling when educators believed school education would liberate oppressed social groups (Sala 2012; Ledwith 2007).

Nevertheless, less attention has been paid to teachers’ education on the subject and even less, how to integrate these subjects without overload the school curriculum and the teachers’ work. UNESCO (2014) provides a guide for teachers, but it does not discuss how to integrate these contents in a school curriculum avoiding to produce a collection curriculum (Bernstein 1996) or a bank education (Freire 1979).

Gender-based crime primary prevention is an innovative strategy on prevention of violence, and its relevance has been established for long time (Wolfe & Jaffe 1999). UMAR – Association of Women, Alternative and Response created a primary prevention program where preventing violence at schools is the goal (Magalhães, Canotilho & Brasil 2007; see also Magalhães, Canotilho & Patrícia 2010), using action-research as the philosophy in the intervention. Parallel to this intervention, the team also provides regularly the data on dating violence (Guerreiro et al., 2015), articulating research, intervention and reflection in a programme that is intended to produce social change.

Promoting violence prevention programs has to overcome limited time interventions, so UMAR is concerned on training education professionals to be able to prevent these types of crimes, promoting a primary prevention program at schools working with youth using art as methodology, to reach a peaceful society. At the same time UMAR implement the primary prevention program called "Artways – Educational Policies and Training against Violence and Juvenile Delinquency" on which students are the main target group. With Artways prevention is included in schools and curriculums of these youth are improved. At the same time we work with youth using art through discussion of movies, songs, promotion of paint and draw, using educative games and pedagogic strategies.
In this paper, we will present the analysis of teacher training programme of UMAR in partnership with the FPCEUP, providing evidences of the possibilities and the difficulties of integrating gender-based violence prevention in school curriculum.

**Method:**
Using a field-based methodology in dialectic with critical analysis, this paper will present the analysis of the implementation of a teacher training programme on gender and domestic violence prevention. The data analysis will focus in the content of the training programme, the pedagogical methodology and evaluation, as well as the assignments elaborated by the teachers who attended the course.

**Keywords:** gender-based violence prevention; curriculum; teachers.

**Introduction**
Family and gender violence are serious social problems across the EU. Victimization surveys across 28 European countries by the European Union’s Fundamental Rights Agency (FRA 2014) showed that one in three women had experienced physical and/or sexual violence as an adult. The media in Europe, in the findings of FRA, is such a prevalence as 28%. Studies in Portugal show that one in three women have been victimized at least once in their lifetime (Lisboa et al 2008). Data collected by UMAR also shows that young generations seem to reproduce gender and domestic violence: in dating relationships, in Portugal, the prevalence is 25% (Guerreiro et al. 2014), which is close to the 33% in adult couples.

Studies have also established the high costs of domestic violence - either human or health and economic costs: for instance, for the USA, The National Center for Injury and Health Control (2003) found that intimate partner violence costs 5.8 millions per year in health care costs and lost productivity. In Portugal, Lisboa et al. found an average of an added health costs for every woman of 140,00€ (Lisboa et. al. 2008), which is an indicative the amount of the costs of the violence. This urges political decisions to prevent this serious problem, first to redress and ensure protection and safety for the victims/survivors, as well as to diminish the costs (Garcia-Moreno, 2001; WHO 2001).

Studies have been outlining that children either direct or indirect victims show similar levels of anxiety, negative health and cognitive consequences (Ellsberg & Heise, 2002), as if they were directly targets of the each of the singular act of offence.

Apart from family, other sites are also contexts of widespread gender violence against women and girls, for instance, public places such as streets, and schools. Educational settings are special sites for sexual harassment against girls and young women, either by their mates or even male teachers and other school staff, as it has been well demonstrated (see for instance, Meyer 2008; Timmerman, 2003; Magalhães, 2011; and also Ferrer-Pérez, & Bosch-Fiol, 2014, for university settings). These experiences of sexual harassment can be as victims as well as bystanders (Hittan 2006; Stein, 1995).
Despite the seriousness of the problem, family and gender violence are often misrecognized and misrepresented. An important but often unrecognised aspect of family and gender violence is, as above mentioned, that children’s and young people’s exposure to family violence, both directly and indirectly, has negative effects on their emotional and physical well-being, development and educational attainment. In their role as statutory and universal providers, schools represent a key site for awareness raising, preventing family and gender violence and supporting children and parents affected by family and gender violence (Mills, 2001).

There are already a relevant literature that accounts for prevention programmes in formal education (Thompson & Trice-Black, 2012; Cox et al., 2010; Whitaker, 2006). However, the evaluations of those programmes usually rely on quantitative or experimental designs (see, for instance, Taylor, et al., 2008).

Teachers’ close contact with children, often on a daily basis, means they are better placed than other professionals, e.g. social workers, for both recognition of violence and earlier intervention. Furthermore, they are able to act in dialogue with the parents or other representatives of the child to prevent the occurrence of violence. Second, they serve as significant gatekeepers to referral pathways and welfare services. Finally, teachers are in a unique position to implement primordial prevention of family and gender violence. Within civic and citizenship education teachers are able to target the cultural foundations of family and gender violence cultural ground for changing prevailing attitudes and cultural practices.

However, previous studies indicate that teachers often lack knowledge and skills to address the problem of family and gender violence. Therefore, there is an urgent need for education and training to increase teachers’ awareness, knowledge and skills to prevent family and gender violence. Moreover, teachers and other school staff show some preconceptions about gender that can contribute for the social reproduction of the gender regime; however, they also also defend a “reasoning around similarity” (Andersson, 2012: 281) which can contribute to change the ways schooling are preparing boys for a more equal society and girls to feel more empowered.

Method

The method used for this article is a field-based methodology in dialectic with critical analysis. The Project of Primary Prevention of Gender Violence in Schools is developed through the principles of action-research and within a perspective of an emancipatory and feminist education (Freire, 1978; Weiler, 1991).

Sharing a conceptualization of situated knowledge production (Haraway 1988), this study analyzes the results and the process of the implementation of a Project for preventing gender violence based on artistic education and feminist and Freirian perspective.

The documentary analysis will focus in the content of the training programme, the pedagogical methodology and evaluation either by the students, by the staff team and the teachers, as well as the assignments elaborated by the teachers who attended the teacher training course. Critical analysis will be mostly attentive about the coherence between the objectives, the philosophy, and the activities carried out by the facilitators. The analysis of the current Project Artways will be contrasted with the Final Report of the Project MCA II (Magalhães et al. 2014), in so far, the MCA II has already finished and Artways is still ongoing.
Further research evaluation will be pursued, namely using focus group research (Kitzinger, 1994), integrated in an external evaluation developed through action-research (Leitch & Day, 2000).

Integrating gender-based violence prevention in the curriculum

Gender-based crime primary prevention is an innovative strategy on prevention of violence, and its relevance has been established for long time (Wolfe & Jaffe 1999).

Since the end of 1990s, several school-based interventions have been operating in schools, mostly in middle and high schools (Whitaker et al 2006). The majority of those are interventions during a short period of time (some weeks or even some days), consisting in “didactic presentations, discussion groups, other activities intending to educate and to change attitudes, and beliefs about partner violence” (Whitaker et al 2006: 159).

Usually interventions are carried out by teachers (with previous training) or community professionals, as social workers, advocates, police offices and abuse survivors. In Portugal, there are also a number of primary prevention interventions in schools operated by police officers or advocates. They are usually of short duration, one or a few sessions, which we call “sensibilization session(s)”, and somehow an external activity to school curriculum. Like in other countries, these sessions have didactical presentations followed by discussion with the students and information about the resources available to help victims. This model has its merit but it has proven to be not effective in changing the figures of dating, domestic and gender-based violence.

Some studies also show that the effectiveness of primary prevention programmes seem to be greater when there is a module about gender equality and gender stereotypes, i.e., not focussing only in domestic or dating violence topics. They also seem to have higher impact if they are extended in the school year and integrated with the school activities (O’Brien, 2001).

The Programme of preventing gender-based violence in schools

The Primary Prevention Programme of UMAR is an universal intervention, that is, it is not designed to work with a special at-risk group (not a selective intervention for an at-risk population group), it is based on a comprehensive understanding about working with children, adolescents and youth, and it involves using artistic and creative tools for the students as culture producers (Magalhães et al. 2007; see also, Magalhães, Canotilho & Ribeiro, 2010).

Distinctively of the perspective of Whitaker et al (2006), who call attention for the need for selective primary prevention programmes, we base our perspective in the idea that domestic and gender violence is rooted in a deeply grounded culture that perpetuates the subjugation of women (and girls) as well as black and colour people, LGBT groups and handicapped people.

The objectives of the Primary Prevention Programme of UMAR, developed by the Project Artways are: awareness raising about gender equality and gender violence; promote respect for differences; develop social values, attitudes and behaviours; enable youths in effective rejection of gender violence and empower them to social change.

For the implementation of the Programme, UMAR establishes protocols with the schools to involve a group-class for an average of fifteen sessions per year, during three years, using the methodology of “topic work” (Tann 1988)
or “methodology of project” (Dewey, 1916; Kilpatrick, 1935), in one hour every two weeks. Usually the hour is within the Civic Education, in schools where it is possible. In others, the facilitators ask for some time in other disciplines.

The idea of using that methodology with the students is based in the assumption that gender violence is deeply rooted in culture which demands the active involvement of the students for its change. Additionally, the Programme works through artistic education “projects”, using an artistic “tool” (visual, dance, music, theatre, or other) at their choice. Artistic projects on topics around gender violence and gender equality build or elaborated by the youngsters or the children need the inter-communication of the shared or conflictive social values among them in the process of the producing of the final result.

The work along the school year flows between “instructional” training sessions and “artistic production” training sessions. The facilitators offer some relevant information about what is violence, in distinction with conflict, aggressivity, indiscipline, as well as the relevance notions about violence, mainly how they are defined in international and national law, the consequences of the violence, the main safeguards of a safety plan that everybody needs to know in case of facing (or knowing someone who face) domestic or dating violence (including in same sex couples), and what should be done in case of existing violence (or knowing someone who is being victimized).

Along with domestic and dating violence, there are other topics of interpersonal violence that emerges in the training sessions: violence by peers, racism, homophobia. The extended topics related with diverse types of violence is one of the reasons that UMAR is defending a three year programme that can cover those topics in different school years, as is being studied by other authors (Bergsgaard, 1997). It also allows the facilitators to negotiate with the students which topic(s) they want to work during each one of the school years. The “instructional” training sessions are intermediated with the artistic work to produce a final “artistic product”.

The final “artistic products” produced along one school year are shown in a final seminar where all the groups-class are invited. This final moment, the Seminar, is being considered very important in the sense that all the groups-class feel they belong to a wider community against gender violence. This is where they share their visions and their “art products”, they learn with each other and have a sense to belong to a social movement.

The evaluation of the Programme is threefold: a) as in the action-research projects, in-going evaluation is based on daily field notes by the facilitators and the continuous feedback from the students in all the sessions; b) the evaluation of other relevant participants, such as the teachers, the school governance, the parents, and other experts coming to the Final Seminar; c) a quantitative evaluation based on a pre- and post-test intervention. The combination of these diverse procedures gives the staff team a fair picture about the impact and the effectiveness of the Programme. Using mixed-method evaluation is being asserted as a good strategy to understand the impact and the changes of the intervention (Woltering et al., 2009).

As we have been referring, the Programme is carried out by “facilitators”, and not by the teachers, for several reasons. The first reason, is that the pedagogical relationship between the facilitators and the students is not marked by the school evaluation, avoiding the competition of the grades and its relation with the considerations around school ‘merit’. Second, dealing with those topics above mentioned it is very likely that some children, adolescent and young people will disclosure situations of violence they are living through or are known to them, and UMAR defends that specialized professionals should be there to have an adequate intervention. Third, the
current educational policies do not allow teachers or students to “spare” time for “artistic” work around violence prevention topics. The facilitators, coming from a diverse range of disciplines, such as sciences of education, criminology, psychology, social work, have in common a high degree of specialization in gender violence prevention.

Additionally, ethics needs to be considered in a programme like this (Notko et al. 2013; Fontes, 2004; Gorin et al. 2008), due to the sensitiveness of the problem. Ethical cautions have to be taken in consideration not only in the work with the students, but also in the intervention with families (Margolin 2005). UMAR has built a protocol of guidelines with teachers about how to act in case of violence disclosure. The students and their parents/legal guardians are asked to read and sign an informed consent to participate in the Project. At the beginning of the training programmes, the facilitators will highlight the importance of respecting the confidentiality of the group process and ask for the participants’ commitment to not disclose any personal content outside of the groups. Moreover, the participants will be encouraged to bring any issues or concerns regarding confidentiality to the facilitator.

Also, all the facilitators are trained on how to address the information of training sessions in an ethical way. During the training, the participants are encouraged to think about their roles in facilitating children or young people groups dealing with issues like domestic violence, dating violence. They are also lead to reflect upon that some participants might disclose victimisation situations. The facilitators will be trained to respond appropriately. Specifically the facilitators will 1) acknowledge what was said and provide the victim with a private space, outside the group, to address her/his issue; 2) make clear that the victims are not at fault; 3) make clear that the behaviour of the perpetrators is not acceptable; and 4) provide contact information of appropriate support services, including who in the school staff might offer support.

The Programme is also meant to be implemented at a national level, at all Portuguese schools, integrated in school curriculum. Efforts are also made to connect the work of the facilitators with that of the teachers in a way that students perceive it as in school cultural activities, like any other discipline or activity.

Along with the evaluation of the Programme, UMAR also administered a questionnaire about dating violence to perceive the prevalence of the problem in the area where the Programme is implemented.

The Project Artways and its Programme is being subjected to an external evaluation by a specialized researcher from the University of Minho.

The impact of the intervention programme

The Project Artways involved more than one thousand of youth participants, 50 teachers, about 100 parents and reached more than 3 000 people in the first year.

In previous years, the impact of this prevention programs shows that it is important a continuous intervention among young people. UMAR work reveals a general change around 20 per cent in three years of intervention with the same students group.
However, the impact are more than these data, which is confirmed by the number of requests from other schools for the implementation of our Programme.

During the academic year 2015/2016, Artways developed about 15 sessions with significant topics to prevent gender-based violence. To measure the effectiveness of this project, several mechanisms were used as explained above. With the respect of the pre- and post-test, we have found a significant change. The mean of the pre-test was around 63.3% and after the program implementation, one academic year later, the results were around 74.3%. On the one hand, this represents that our students know more and perhaps, hopefully, think differently about violence and are aware on what to do with these situations. On the other hand, we must say that these results could be greatly improved if we had the chance to work with these groups more time and during at least 3 years, as it is being established in the Programme of UMAR and evidenced by the above mentioned studies. But the project evaluation is not only based on numbers, and we needed to know further what youth thought on these contents and therefore we work to carry out a systematic feedback from students and facilitators: a working sheet for field notes was created, where facilitators describe session after session, the perceived changes in youth language or attitude in a certain topic.

At the end of the first lecture year we asked youth their opinion on the project and its activities and generally the feedback is quite good. Due the space for this article, we will not transcribe all the youngsters’ feedback. However, some were translated and quoted below for the reader can have a flavour of the students self perceptions of the Project.

**Question: what did you learn with Artways Project?**

**Answer 1** - “what stereotypes are, human rights and what to do if you are a victim of domestic violence or bullying”

**Answer 2** - “that we should all be treated equally in spite of our differences”

**Answer 3** - “that is not necessary to use physical and/or psychological force/violence to succeed in life”
Question: what did you like the most with Artways Project?

Answer 1 - “of the Seminar”

Answer 2 - “of the representations and photographs created”

At the same time, as explained above, facilitators were interested on the feedback and evaluation of relevant participants such as teachers, school psychologists and municipality agents (sometimes directly involved in implementation of the project). Below we quoted some of their feedbacks about the Project.

“The project evokes a reflection on topics that usually are covered by adolescents lightly” - Teacher 1

“I have a vested interest in continuing the Project because I also learned how to adequate artistic methodologies with these important subjects” - Teacher 2

“This project truly contributes to the young people’s understanding of values like self-respect and respect for the other and to signalize situations of injustice and violence. In short, this project helps youth to become citizens aware, responsible and interventive in all aspects of their lives” - Teacher 3

“Art is a reflection but at the same time promotes critical spirit among youth. The involvement of youth in different forms of expression is an excellent tool to raise awareness on these subjects” - municipality representative.

Discussion

In this article, we review the basis of the Primary Prevention of Gender Violence in schools carried out by UMAR through the Project Artways, highlighting its aims, philosophy, activities and impact.

The evidence shows high degree of impact and change at least in short term evaluation. The changes are more visible in the knowledge, in so far the changes in behaviour and attitudes are harder to assess. The more important change is the identification of control behaviours as a mean of violence: the controlling of the other’s phone, facebook, or friends networks, as well as the surveillance of the ways of dressing or the go out with friends.

This study also provides evidence about the active involvement of the students in the activities, which is acknowledged by their teachers saying that the indiscipline decreased and the interest in the school work increased.

The results are better when the intervention is longer, which is corroborated by many of the studies reporting evaluation of prevention programmes.

It is worthy to note that the Project Artways work with both boys and girls, involving boys in a culture of equality and nonviolence (Flood, 2011). However, it will be relevant to implement a follow up on girls and boys attitudes, as the example of the work by Slocombe and Bentley (2015).

As Bergsgaard (1997) and Schippers (2007), masculinities and femininities are constructed in culture in a way that creates the ground for the gender regime and, in this sequence, the basis of gender violence against women. In the
Programme in analysis, it is visible that the topic gender stereotypes is one of the contents of working sessions with the students, but it is not visible in the activities how these stereotypes are relevant for a primary gender violence prevention programme.

Despite the philosophy of gender violence prevention, little attention is provided to the differential modes of the social construction of masculinities and femininities. The sex differences between boys and girls are not perceived in the reflections and evaluation documents of the Project, which call for more attention about the diverse ways in which boys and girls, young women and young men are involved in the Project.

Paulo Freire perspective is present in the implementation of the Project in schools, although it is not always clear how the connections are made between his method and the “artistic training sessions”. Bartlett (2005) evaluated the application of Freirean philosophy in community intervention projects in Brazil, and found that educators do know little about the principles and the methodology, and guide their work based on the training meetings that staff share when planning the intervention. In fact, the author analyzes this connection between theory and practice around the Freirean concepts of dialogue, praxis and the collective construction of knowledge.

Foshee et al (1998) report the results of the Safe Dates, a school-based dating violence prevention, using both control and treatment groups and measurements of the impact of the programme with questionnaire about self perceptions about being victim and being perpetrator in dating violence. These authors also describe that one of the aims of the Programme is to encourage victims of dating violence to seek help. This could be a suggestion for Artways, i.e., to measure the extent to which adolescents and youngsters being victims or perpetrators have sought for help.

Finally, it can be said, along with others authors, that the success of the Programme stems from the participatory methodology (O’Brien & Moules 2007).

**Brief conclusion**

Projects like Artways challenge the regulatory function of schooling and can act as emancipatory dispositive for social transformation (Sala, 2010). Feminism and feminist pedagogy have long established the potential of formal education to improve the quality of women’s lives (Glodfarb, 1990).

Combating gender violence through project work on the basis of the active involvement have also great potential to change the culture of tolerance of violence that is pervasive across class, culture, economic status, sexual orientation or religion.

Further research and intervention can point out the relevance of moving to a whole school approach (Mathar, 2013), involving other teachers and groups of students, as well as school governance and local authorities.

The process will offer opportunities to further reflection upon the results, in an espiral perspective (McNiff & Whitehead, 2011; McKernn, 2013).
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Challenges in Higher Education


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Challenges in Higher Education


Policies of higher education qualifications: the pedagogy curriculum in discussion

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This research was conducted with support from the Observatory Program from Coordination for the Improvement of Higher Education Personnel (Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior– CAPES/Brasil), e presented as topic of discussion the The Institutional Program Initiation Grant to Teaching (Programa Institucional de Bolsas de Iniciação à Docência - PIBID) as public policy for higher education. This work has as objective to identify the possible contributions of anticipation of the link between academics and the playing field, proposed by PIBID, in the performance of compulsory curricular training. The specific objectives are: a) analyze the edict PIBID implementation and its objectives in the context of higher education qualification; b) identify teaching assignments in current school context; and c) recognize the contributions of participating in the PIBID for development of the supervised training. The adopted methodology in research is a case study qualitative approach, and use as an instrument for data collection analysis of legal documentation that supports the actions of the PIBID and of census data of higher education in Brazil, in addition to questionnaires with the academic Pedagogy course of Universidade Federal de Santa Maria (UFSM). The PIBID intends to unite the Secretaries of States and municipalities and public institutions of higher education (Instituições Públicas de Ensino Superior - IPES), in search of improvements in teaching in public schools through scholarships for teaching beginners, aimed at scholars graduate courses, looking for commitment of them, when graduates, with the exercise of the Magisterium on the public network. According to the Census of higher education, the year 2013 by the Instituto Nacional de Estudos e Pesquisas Educacionais Anísio Teixeira (INEP), the rates of enrollment in graduate courses increased by 19.61% since the year 2009, but in the last two years, enrollment grew by just 0.8% demonstrating a stagnation in demand for these courses. In face of these statistical data are curricula lagged in relation to the challenges of teaching. Inserted in the universe that governs the school and relationships that are established, the academic
experience, no more out, the day-to-day professional who goes beyond the knowledge constructed by educational sciences. However, in the courses of pedagogy of UFSM, training practices only happens in the last semesters, although the insertions be provided from the third semester of the course, so that knowledge built along the initial training become distant from the reality of schools of basic education. It was possible to conclude, through research, that the anticipation of the academic link with the locus of professional activity promotes the development of knowledge built from the work and experience, through the pedagogical management and pedagogical practices, contributing to the development and evaluation of the actions developed in the space of the supervised training space.

Introduction

The research of the work entitled “Policies of higher education qualifications: the pedagogy curriculum in discussion”, was conducted with support from the Observatory Program from Coordination for the Improvement of Higher Education Personnel (Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior– CAPES/Brasil), e presented as topic of discussion the Institutional Program of Teaching Initiation Scholarship (Programa Institucional de Bolsas de Iniciação à Docência - PIBID) as public policy for higher education.

According to the Census of higher education, published in the year 2013 by the National Institute of Educational Studies and Research Anísio Teixeira (Instituto Nacional de Estudos e Pesquisas Educacionais Anísio Teixeira - Inep), the rate of enrollment in graduate courses, increased by 19.61% since 2009, passing the number of more than 6,000,000 students joined in training institutions. However, in the last two years, enrollment grew 0.8% only, showing stagnation. On the other hand, in the courses of Bachelor the rate of registrations grew, during the same period, 4.4%, a significant difference that also occurs in technological training courses.

This development can be seen in the figure below:

Figure 6: Trends in undergraduate enrolments in Brazil face to face
Another factor which will reflect on the country's education is the reduction in demand for undergraduate courses of specific areas, such as mathematics, physics, chemistry, etc. In addition to the rates of ingress in teacher education courses present themselves inferior to those of other courses, rates of students who complete, also remain in this logic. In the year 2012, the number of students who have graduated in all undergraduate fell in 6%, generating a lag of teachers in basic education.

The reports that teachers are taking on subjects that are not part of their training, to address the lack of these other teachers in schools, are recurrent in all regions of the country.

Academic research and other productions on the subject indicate, among other causes, the devaluation of the Magisterium as primarily responsible for low search for initial teacher education courses, as well as the challenges of career in the context of globalization, violence and social inequality. There are many stones in the way of education and in the middle of them, often, the teacher finds himself alone and desperate.

In the face of these statistics are the curriculums of graduate courses and pedagogy, which are distant from the challenges of the teaching profession, so that there is still a big gap between theory and practice.

Note that the students' fear of confronting the curricular practices and the elaboration of the final project, eases when these have been inserting in the fields of business, the school, through projects that provide them with such integration.

It is important to note the anguish experienced during entry into the course of pedagogy Nocturne at the Federal University of Santa Maria (UFSM) due to the lack of identification with the issues addressed in the disciplines of the first semesters. The lack of contact with the universe sometimes prevented a deeper reflection with the problems brought by the teachers and the bibliographies.

From this fact justified many abandonments, pauses and changes of courses of several colleagues, entering in a class of 40 students who, at the end of the course and/or at the time of stage disciplines were among 10 and 20 people.

The projects aimed at the approximation of students from your locus of work also characterized as a response to statistics showing a drop in demand for teacher education courses.

In this context, is the Institutional Project of Teaching Initiation Scholarship (Projeto Institucional de Bolsas de Iniciação à Docência-PIBID), aimed at the academic insertion through sub-projects organized as public notice that guide them in the context of each area and institution.

The PIBID presents itself, then, as this theme work, which aims to investigate the possible contributions of the project for the initial training of students of Pedagogy at the Federal University of Santa Maria (UFSM), RS, Brazil. On the basis of the rates of enrollment of undergraduate courses available by Inep sought to understand how the project meets the demands signaled to qualify higher education teachers training.

To develop the analysis of subjectivity of data pointed to by the indicators, marked by the higher education qualification by the insertion of Pedagogy in school spaces, adopt general objective of the research: identify the possible contributions of the anticipation of the link between academics and the field of action, proposed by the PIBID, in stage performance required curriculum; and specific objectives a) analyze the PIBID implementation notice and its objectives in the context of higher education qualification; b) identify teaching assignments in current
school context; and c) recognize the contributions of participating in the PIBID to the development of supervised trainings.

The data collection technique used consisted of an open questionnaire, elaborated according to the three categories of analysis: initial training, educational management and supervised trainings.

It was considered more appropriate to the use of open questionnaire due to the freedom of the subject of the research to address questions or topics they deem interesting, in the context of what is being asked.

The questionnaires were applied with students recent grads of the course of the day or night Pedagogy UFSM, who were at the Subproject PIBID scholars in the field of Pedagogy, or students who, also in scholarships conditions or alumni of the program are in probation period or in his conclusion.

The questions that constitute the questionnaire were chosen beforehand according to the three categories of analysis, already mentioned earlier.

Nine recent grads of course in Pedagogy and five academic last semester were selected to respond to the questionnaires. All participated in the Subproject of the Pedagogy/PIBID as scholars.

Of these 14 recent grads and academic, only six responded the questions and they sent the questionnaire by electronic means.

**The policies of initial training qualification for teaching**

The Institutional Program of Teaching Initiation Scholarship (PIBID) intends to unite the Secretaries of States and municipalities and Public Institutions of Higher Education (IPES), in search of improvements in teaching in public schools through scholarships for teaching beginners to scholars of the graduate courses, looking for the commitment of the same, when graduates, with the exercise of the Magisterium on the public network. The main objective of the program is to anticipate the link between graduates and the daily life of the public school system.

In September 2009 the Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES) launched the edict that guided the interested institutions to submit proposals of subprojects of teaching initiation scholarship for the academic degree courses. As the objectives of this public notice, the proposed projects should:

- a) encourage the training of teachers for basic education, contributing to the elevation of the quality of public school;
- b) to enhance the teaching, encouraging students who opt for teaching career;
- c) raise the quality of academic actions related to initial training of teachers in graduate courses of public institutions of higher education;
- d) Insert the students of the course of degree in the daily life of public schools of education, promoting integration between higher education and basic education;
- e) provide future teachers participation in methodological, technological experiences and teaching practices of innovative and interdisciplinary character and which seek to overcome problems identified in the teaching-learning process, taking into consideration the IDEB and school performance in national evaluations, as Provinha Brasil, Prova Brasil, SAEB, ENEM, among others; and encourage basic education public schools, making them protagonists in the formative processes of students from undergraduate, mobilizing their teachers as co-trainers of future teachers (Notice of PIBID, 2013, p. 3).
On this basis, the subproject of the Pedagogy/UFSM/PIBID has been working in public schools in Santa Maria/RS/Brazil, presenting the Basic Education Development Index (IDEB) below the national average, in order to contribute to the elevation of the same.

In this sense, the subproject search enter in schools which have need of educational support in relation to difficulties arising from the realities that constitute your space and are located in the regions of the periphery, in poor communities that challenge the teaching action constantly.

The reality of the partner schools of the Subproject allows, to future teachers, contact with the adversities of the regions of the periphery and the specifics of teaching work with children and young people in situations of risk and poverty.

Such powers are in accordance with the profile of the former student of the course in pedagogy of UFSM, described in the Political-pedagogic Project (PPP). About the desired profile of forming, the document guides to:

This professional, which is based on teaching training, will need to develop knowledge teachers that include theoretical and practical knowledge in the field of education and of knowledge that will mediate their activity in school and non-school institutions. He should be able to create and produce educational proposals for the different school and non-school realities, working collectively, designing and construction of teaching materials mediating suitable to the realities in which is inserted (PPP Pedagogy, 2013).

This desired profile is support in the course of Pedagogy Curriculum Guidelines, resolution CNE/CP No. 1 of May 15, 2006 (resolution CNE/CP 1/2006, 2013), and also guides the desired profile of the former student of the course of Pedagogy (nighttime).

In the insertion spaces, promoted by the Subproject Pedagogy/UFSM/PIBID, the scholars of teaching beginners come into contact with the reality of public school, taking knowledge of the peculiarities of teaching action as regards the difficulties faced by teachers in relation to the adversities of the context in which they are inserted, contemplating the fourth objective set out in public notice of implementation of the Subprojects "enter the licensees in the daily life of public schools of education, promoting integration between higher education and basic education" (Notice the PIBID, 2013, p. 3). This integration could be identified in the response of the students who participated in the research:

E: The PIBID contributed so I could feel more familiar in the school context and could think of more attractive methodologies. In my training I worked a lot with games, as I worked on the PIBID, in addition, had the contribution of Professor Regent who also works in this perspective.

All subjects of research indicated that direct contact with the Organization, planning and development of activities aimed at children and young people nurture the consolidation and construction of new knowledge, through the search of theoretical basis justifying the intentionality of the pedagogical practices.

From that contact with the reality of school and of students and reflections that arise from it, becomes:

[... ] clear that the University has an important role to play in the training of teachers. For reasons of prestige, scientific support, cultural production, but the essential baggage of a teacher in school, is
acquired through experience and reflection on experience. This reflection doesn't come from nowhere, by a sort of spontaneous generation. It has its own rules and methods (Nóvoa, 2003, p. 5).

The constant insertion in the school collaborates to the construction of the teaching identity of future teachers, scholars of initiation to teaching, as it gives opportunity of autonomy spaces in planning create opportunities, reflections about the practice developed, built relationships with students and their families.

Still, the experience of the school promotes the construction of knowledge, relations that are built in the running of the school, with the other teachers, staff and management.

**Expanding spaces of designing teaching**

So, emerging the experience and knowledge that were built from it, is fundamental in building the identity of these future teachers, causing them to reflect critically supported in the theories that permeate the work, seen in undergraduate classes.

In the 1st NATIONAL MEETING of COORDINATORS the PEDAGOGY COURSES of BRAZILIAN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES, held in September 2006, it was considered that the Pedagogy courses shall consider:

The teaching work is characterized as processes and practices of production, organization, dissemination and appropriation of knowledge that develop in school and non-school education under certain historical conditions. Teaching is defined therefore as educational activity which is in the teaching-learning, knowledge production and management of educational contexts, in terms of democratic management (1st National Meeting of Coordinators of Pedagogical Course, 2013).

The democratic management carries traces of the cultural context of the school, which are formed by the characteristics, values and visions of people who constitute the space: teachers, principals, supervisors, engineers, cooks, clerks, students, family, etc.

The school, in its organization, builds an educational space for teaching and learning and to the subjects that compose it, assuming a democratic character of decision-making of the professionals that act against their working conditions, so as to develop autonomy from the collective, so the democratic management:

[…] it is associated with the establishment of institutional mechanisms and the Organization of actions that trigger the processes of social participation: the formulation of educational policies; in determining the objectives and purposes of education; in planning; in decision making; on definition of resource allocation
and investment needs; in the implementation of the resolutions; in the moments of evaluation (Luce & Medeiros, 2006, p. 18).

These are procedures of collective participation, engaging them in all the schemes of functioning of the school, since not only are the teachers who educate in an institution, all the subjects involved in the daily life of the school are developing educational actions, even if they do not assume the same responsibilities or perform the same functions.

The way the school is also an educational action, taking into account interpersonal relations that are happening from this action. Through these relationships, the interests of this group, the management of times and spaces of the school, as emerged from the school context demands.

The professor while guy is that space is a fundamental part of school management, not only as a bridge between class and management, but as critical and reflective of the daily movement of the institution.

Collective action and solidarity is fundamental to the organization of pedagogical actions, because in a way that we are unfinished beings and we need the other to exist (Freire, 1983).

The school, in the process, with the performance of the teachers, contributes in order to connect knowledge from interdisciplinary and appreciation of the collective work (Pimenta, 2000), assuming as a space of socialization of children and young people.

Knowledge circulating in school need to establish connections in order that are assigned to them relevant meanings and workable in the sense that it can be recognized in everyday life, of a globalized way without devaluing the parties that compose it.

In this way the teacher removes him the role of transmitter of knowledge, recognizing that:

Continuous training practices that are organized around the individual teachers may be useful for the acquisition of knowledge and techniques, but favor the isolation and reinforce an image of the teachers and transmitters of knowledge produced abroad. Training practices that take as a reference the collective dimensions contribute to the professional and emancipation to the consolidation of a profession that is autonomous in the production of their knowledge and of its values (Nóvoa, 1995, p. 15).

On teaching practice are key elements to this rewiring of knowledge by questioning the pedagogical action permeated and his intent to find chances and solutions, based on methodological innovations and experimentations of the complexity of teaching-learning process, because:

It’s needed work towards the diversification of models and training practices, establishing new relations of teachers with pedagogical and scientific knowledge. The training goes through experimentation, innovation, by testing new methods of pedagogical work. And for a critical reflection on their use. The training goes through research processes, directly linked to educational practices (Nóvoa, 1995, p. 16).

The author encourages us to think about constantly self-reflexives pedagogical practices, breaking through the barriers than it already is, determined by historical periods of education. Still, references to a teacher who is "producer" of their profession, author of their practices and main agent of change in the school context.
In the classroom the teacher or teacher is responsible for the direction of their pedagogical actions, in conjunction with the class of students, whether they are young or children. In educational decisions according to the demands of the teaching-learning process and this is reflected in their classes, in their autonomy.

The classroom is the place that is perceived with subliminal limits, restricting the direction of the teacher.

In this invisibly enclosed space, the teacher develops his practice relating to the theory that bases your job, which is in constant motion, due to the Trinomial action-reflection-action.

Therefore, it is necessary to consider the context in which this practice is inserted, the organization of the school and work policy in which it backs, stating their intent to seek solutions before the situations of high complexity, using creativity and diversity, according to his reading of the world, of reality and of heterogeneity.

In this way, the teaching in your office is "pedagogical knowledge expression, constitutes a source of development of pedagogical theory. The practical needs that emerge from the daily life of the classroom demands a theory " (Pimenta, 2000, p. 47).

In other words, the experience in the classroom the teacher moves toward theories that will support his work and necessary interventions in search of its students advance in relation to the knowledge once assimilated and new knowledge.

Nóvoa (1995), in his studies, characterizes teacher education focused on reflection on action, as opposed to the technical rationalism as seen in the profession of the teacher, giving time to a professional as their profession and their teaching actions.

For example, in the framework of pedagogic management can we know how the teachers are organizing the time-spaces of teach-learning based on larger collective actions.

It is important that in the construction of teacher identity is the identity of the subject of education, which goes beyond the subject to 'minister lesson', writing the character of and the professional who occupies the spaces of the school in addition to his classroom and take a role as a teacher of this school or that, in addition to being professor of this or that group.

In other words, it is imperative that the subject teacher does not limit his actions geared toward individuality, not limited in his students, his class, his living room, so that it is perceived more, he realizes that his actions are greater, they are part of a collective, a school that is embedded in a community, the community entered into a city.

The supervised training of the people surveyed

The supervised training search the articulation of theory and practice in a way that academics have the ability to understand criticism and reflexively all the implications of teaching through "approach to reality" (Pimenta & Gonçalves, 1990).

The future teachers, through of stage practice, dialogue with their perceptions about teaching and are able to make interventions in school reality.
The relationship between theory and practice is to be held without dichotomizing each other, because the activities developed in this curricular component of the degree courses, they assume a theoretical character of knowledge and reasoning of practice, since:

[... ] The role of theory is to offer teachers analysis perspective to understand the historical, social, cultural, organizational contexts, and of themselves as professionals, in which gives his teaching activity, in order to intervene, turning them. (Pimenta, 2004, p. 49).

Inserted in the universe that governs the school and relationships which are established, students experience the day-to-day professional who goes beyond the knowledge constructed by the science and working techniques.

However, in the course of pedagogy of UFSM stage practice only happens in past semesters, so that knowledge built along the initial training become distant, i.e., academics do not experience in practice training base assumptions of the future teaching profession so that they can understand their occupation area critically and reflectively from the insertion in the same.

N: Many scholars have access to the practice in the last semesters or on training, a fact that complicates the theoretical-practical relationship that much is spoken and the meaning of teaching knowledge. Is through practice that the educator will be built, deal with the challenges of teaching and will think reflective and mobilizing activities.

To get to school, to the achievement of the trainings, many students face realities never imagined: the incoherence of what is said and written with the actual conditions of the teaching practice in those spaces.

The lack of knowledge about the real school cause frustrations and disorientation as to the projects and proposals that will be developed, there are many doubts and controversies to which had been thought to that moment of academic training, however, knowledge built through experience give subsidies and autonomy in the search for alternatives to deal with adverse situations:

I: in my stage of early years I came across a student in fourth grade not literate not freaked out I tried to help him, because when you've never encountered a reality of those you panic, gets scared, and now? You're thinking, but I tried to help him leading activities according to his needs. The Pibid causes you believe in and try all possible opportunities to help him.

There are many cases of students who build your training project with definition of the institution that will be developed, and when they get to school need change it completely or even abandon it due to their impracticality. These dilemmas reveal the consequences of the gap between University and school, since "understanding school in your daily life is a condition for any intervention project, because the act of teaching requires a specific work and broader reflection on pedagogical action [...]" (Pimenta, 2004, p. 104) and the absence of this work results in insecurity in relation to the work to be developed by trainees, reflected in their performance during the probationary period.

The opportunity to know the reality of public school and their real conditions of an education to identify the habits and attitudes that constitute the daily life of the institution, both within the faculty as the student body and the whole community that makes up the school, bringing clarity to the academics of their goals and intentions proposed in training projects:
E: The PIBID contributed so I could feel more familiar in the school context and for that I could think of more attractive methodologies.

Due to the familiarity with the school context and understanding of the dynamics of the school, the student trainee becomes more susceptible to overcoming the obstacles and difficulties that emerge along the way in the period of supervised training, because "the more clear are the fundamentals, the nature and the objectives of the trainings, its possibilities and curricular limits easier understanding of the process" (Pimenta, 2004, p. 105).

Contact with the school daily provides for undergraduate students the ability of appropriation of specifics and demands of school to be held in the supervised training. However, the familiarity with the world of school does not have an immediacy and transferable feature, so, the comments in the classroom, where will be held the training, as well as interviews with one or two members of the school management does not make the intern able to understand the school in its dynamics as the dimensions that it assumes. In this perspective the contribution as scholarship of initiation into teaching in the context of the PIBID promotes spaces to experience teaching in all its breadth, contemplating the pedagogical, professional, social and organizational dimensions of teaching practice.

N: The PIBID contributed on my discovery as an educator, and therefore in realization of my practice in trainings and as public school teacher. The PIBID allowed me the unveiling of pedagogical action and of subjects who participate in this process, because I spent to realize the importance of listening to the students, to propose activities that give them pleasure as you carry them out.

Speaking of graduate pedagogical course and Professor at State schools, reveals that their practices supervised stage were based on the student as the starting point of their planning, recognizing the relevance of decision making in the conduct of the classroom to the school life of children and young people. It becomes apparent that the experience in the classroom, in the spaces and times of school and give support to the teaching practice, making it the most significant for the future of teachers in the training process:

N: The stages were quiet and the relationship with students was marked by dialogue, humility and confidence, elements that I think that it is necessary for teaching and that I understood their respective sums through actions that have built while the PIBID scholarship.

C: With the Pibid learned how to plan, structure plans, organization of time and class in the classroom. I believe that when you get in the period of trainings without the experience of the Pibid, the difficulties would have been much greater.

Through the insertion modalities the PIBID training supervised practice turned into deepening knowledge space already built, allowing the focus to deeper questions about the teaching practice, with results of research projects, issues of Works of Conclusion of Courses (TCC).

In the context of teacher education, the training becomes a broader reflection space, from the pedagogical practices of the school institution, as the professional dimension of teaching, which refers to the continuous education of teachers, to the school conditions and to the exercise of the profession.

The complexity of education requires the teaching practice is socially and historically contextualized so that through studies, analyses, questioning, reflections and hypotheses about this context result in knowledge to be tested on
teaching-learning projects and assessment of teaching practices. The promotion of meaningful situations for all involved subjects, aims at growth in their individual processes of knowledge construction:

I: [...] All subjects of the course taught us that we must leave always than the student already knows to go on what you plan to teach, the child becomes more significant.

The classroom experience, with experimentation of several methodologies, in different moments and situations demonstrate significant potential in relation to teacher education, as speech below, which notes that some assumptions necessary for teaching practice already are clear and are interwoven in their pedagogical actions, also present in graduate student considerations:

N: [...] I understood that the learner includes peculiarities and various trajectories in which we must take into account, especially with regard to students with learning difficulties. Students learn in times and spaces different and we need to instigate this development through practices that comprise this diversity of learning and that do not reinforce the ideological and excluding substrate the school produces, in which students are classified as "good" and "bad" students according to his school performance.

The academic puts us on the challenges that arise from the recent relationships that are established between society and education, the role of the school in the life of the subject, starting from a reference of criticality of teaching qualification, that is, who I'm mediating the process of construction of knowledge for? What is significant for this subject? In addition to the questions about the different ways that happens this process so that the practice developed in the classroom is not exclusive to an ideal standard of student.

That is, the academic is in an advanced level of the teacher education process, whereas she has appropriated the bases that make up the teaching action, cited in his speech, leaving for the action based on the reflection of a previous action (action-reflection-action).

**Reflections and possible conclusions**

As the goals of the Subproject, it was possible to identify, fundamental aspects in the construction of identity. The anticipation of the insertion in the school promotes the construction of teacher identity due to the familiarity with the dynamics of the institution.

Familiarity with the roles of teachers in that context demonstrated that, upon arrival in the period of supervised training, students who have had previous contacts with the school, felt more prepared to deal with the adversities of the actual school.

It’s clearly recognize the importance of experience the practice of the profession since the beginning of the training, in this case, provided by participating in projects that approximate the academic of their occupation area.

The knowledge of the reality in which the educational institution is located, the community understanding to the significant meanings to life of the subjects that make up these space-times are paramount in order to teaching actions can deepen their actions teachers, giving it character transformer.

The experience of the activities developed and the tasks emerged of them favored the teaching-learning process of future teachers with subjects of teaching action: students. Still, it was possible to recognize learning spaces, i.e. in...
the school environment, through the coexistence with the organization of the school context, elements seen in graduation classroom.

The knowledge built from the work, experience, obtained from relationships that are established on a school routine through the pedagogical management and pedagogical action contribute to the deepening and assessment of actions that academics have developed within the supervised training.

In fact, the participation in the PIBID enabled the praxis approximation before the end of the course, provided for only in the period of the training.

Therefore, provided them the opportunity to investigate their educational activities at the time it was happening, also turning teaching knowledge experienced in practice in a permanent process of construction and reconstruction of their teachers identities, assuring need of the teaching action, of the understanding of the school everyday dynamics as its organization and management of times and space for the realization of planned pedagogical actions.

Thus, it was possible to conclude through the research conducted in the development of this study that the participation of the academic in Pedagogy Course of UFSM, as scholars of initiation to teaching contributed in a relevant way in the development of activities related to the mandatory supervised training, provided for the curriculum of the degree course in Pedagogy.

It was possible to conclude, through research, that the anticipation of the academic link with the locus of professional activity promotes the development of knowledge built from the work and experience, through the management and pedagogical construction, contributing to the development and evaluation of the actions developed within the supervised training.

Front of it, it’s highlighted the importance of the participation of academics in projects that anticipate the link with the reality of professional performance, enabling the relationship of theory to practice throughout the whole undergraduate course through a process of construction of critical, reflective and transformative professional identity, beyond the urgent need of universities rethink their curricula in order to promote such training.

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Change: routes and challenges in higher education and training in Design

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Considering the visibility that Higher Education has gained in the education and training space, and the task that universities currently hold in the formation of the new elements of knowledge, communication and information societies, it becomes unavoidable for Portugal to follow the various challenges imposed by Europe. After the implementation of the Bologna Process, the paradigm transformation in Higher Education, with the integration of guidelines focused on the quality of the education, the mobility of teachers and students and the autonomy of the students, originated an adjustment of the education processes to the new organizational model. Thus, the reformulation of teaching-learning methodologies became dominant, according the new students’ skill profiles which led to the reposition and redefinition of the teachers’ role in the formation of the students technological and scientific and technological matters based on new student’s skill profiles. Moreover, in order to meet the challenges of globalization and turn the European Union economy into one of the ‘most dynamic and competitive in the world’ several strategies and guidelines were defined in the European space and also throughout the European Member States, as was the case of Portugal.

The purpose of this study is to analyze and reflect on the changes made to the Design courses at the university and polytechnic levels, both for bachelor and master degrees.

To achieve the purposes of this research, we used a qualitative paradigm (Denzin e Lincoln, 1998), using techniques such as surveys (structured with open and closed questions and structured and unstructured answers) from various sources, such as the institutions involved and its teachers and students; the interview (structured with direct questions and indirect questions); content analysis; observation and document analysis.


In view of the growing role of the Design and its professionals have in contemporaneity, it is mandatory to pursue a teaching method that better approaches the reality of our society. Preliminary result show us that it is up to the Higher Education institutions, to assume themselves as the entity responsible for the implementation, development and promotion of knowledge and experience together with the collaboration and responsibility of teachers and students to support the delineation of both the universities and society, Under the new educational context, training can be considered as a link between the two areas of knowledge, the academic training and the professional one and we must be forming professionals/designers with self-learning capabilities, that easily self-adapt to new technological, scientific and professional field situations and particularly to understand what is the role of the design in order to produce knowledge that is easily convertible into economic, social and cultural development.
CHANGE: Routes and Challenges in Higher Education and Training in Design

Keywords
Higher Education; Higher Education Design; Challenges; Design.

Resume
This article consigns the change in terms of routes and challenges that training and higher education in Portugal have come to pass. Taking into account the strategies that have been adopted and designs current social, cultural and economical values, we will be contextualising, analysing several contents and explaining the transformation that education/training has undergone in Portugal, more specifically design. We will be questioning designs responsibility in the country’s both innovation and development.

Context
Considering the visibility that Higher Education has gained in the education and training space, and the task that universities currently hold in the formation of the new elements of knowledge, communication and information societies, it becomes unavoidable for Portugal to follow the various challenges imposed by Europe. After the implementation of the Bologna Process, the paradigm transformation in Higher Education, with the integration of guidelines focused on the quality of the education, the mobility of teachers and students and the autonomy of the students, originated an adjustment of the education processes to the new organizational model. Thus, the reformulation of teaching-learning methodologies became dominant, according the new students’ skill profiles which led to the reposition and redefinition of the teachers’ role in the formation of the students technological and scientific and technological matters based on new student’s skill profiles. Moreover, in order to meet the challenges of globalization and turn the European Union economy into one of the most dynamic and competitive in the world’ several strategies and guidelines were defined in the European space and also throughout the European Member States, as was the case of Portugal.

Objectives
The purpose of this study is to analyze and reflect on the changes made to the Design courses at the university and polytechnic levels, both for bachelor and master degrees.

Methodology
To achieve the purposes of this research, we used a qualitative paradigm (Denzin e Lincoln, 1998), using techniques such as surveys (structured with open and closed questions and structured and unstructured answers) from various sources, such as the institutions involved and its teachers and students; the interview (structured with direct questions and indirect questions); content analysis; observation and document analysis.

Resultados/conclusão
In view of the growing role of the Design and its professionals have in contemporaneity, it is mandatory to pursue a teaching method that better approaches the reality of our society. Preliminary result show us that it is up to the Higher Education institutions, to assume themselves as the entity responsible for the implementation, development and promotion of knowledge and experience together with the collaboration and responsibility of teachers and students to support the delineation of both the universities and society. Under the new educational context, training can be considered as a link between the two areas of knowledge, the academic training and the professional one and we must be forming professionals/designers with self-learning capabilities, that easily self-adapt to new technological, scientific and professional field situations and particularly to understand what is the role of the design in order to produce knowledge that is easily convertible into economic, social and cultural development.

This article consigns the change in terms of routes and challenges that training and higher education in Portugal have come to pass. Taking into account the strategies that have been adopted and design’s current social, cultural and economical values, we will be contextualising, analysing several contents and explaining the transformation that education/training has undergone in Portugal, in the design area. We will be questioning design’s responsibility in the country's both innovation and development.

Considering the visibility that Higher Education has gained in the education and training space, and the task that universities currently hold in the formation of the new elements of knowledge, communication and information societies, it becomes unavoidable for Portugal to follow the various challenges imposed by Europe. After the implementation of the Bologna Process, the paradigm transformation in Higher Education, with the integration of guidelines focused on the quality of the education, the mobility of teachers and students and the autonomy of the students, originated an adjustment of the education processes to the new organizational model. Thus, the reformulation of teaching-learning methodologies became dominant, according the new students’ skill profiles which led to the reposition and redefinition of the teachers’ role in the formation of the students technological and scientific and technological matters based on new student’s skill profiles. Moreover, in order to meet the challenges of globalization and turn the European Union economy into one of the most dynamic and competitive in the world’ several strategies and guidelines were defined in the European space and also throughout the European Member States, as was the case of Portugal.

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The practicum in the acquisition of professional competencies

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The purpose of this paper is to show the impact the Practicum has on the learning and development of professional competencies. The aim is to gather and compare the perceptions of students doing a Degree in Teacher Training with respect to the importance they give to the professional competencies that are characteristic of the Practicum period. In turn, the perceptions regarding the degree of acquisition of these competencies that students experience during this period are analysed.

In accordance with these aims, the study poses the following hypotheses:

- The assessments students make concerning the competencies that are characteristic of the Practicum vary depending on age, admission pathway to the degree, and the circumstance of having a paid job.
- There are statistically significant differences between the level of importance assigned to competencies before and after the Practicum period.
- There exist statistically significant differences between the level of acquisition assigned to competencies before and after the Practicum period.
- There is a positive correlation between the diverse categories that group the competencies in the study.

Methodology

In order to achieve the goals set, a quantitative methodology is chosen, based on the questionnaire technique. Its pre-test and post-test administration is planned around the Practicum period, which makes it possible to evidence the changes occurring during this time.

Data analysis includes a descriptive analysis: Pearson's Chi-square test for independence to analyse the competencies according to different variables: and Student's t-test is applied, which enables us to find out whether there is a significant change in the mean values assigned by the subjects participating in the study. In order to determine the dependence between scales, taking into account the dimensions of Importance and Acquisition, the bivariate correlation is analysed.

Results

Upon conducting the comparison of means between the pre-test group and the post-test group, it can be seen that students' perception of the importance assigned to each competency remains stable, and does not change under the influence of the Practicum. On the other hand, upon conducting a comparison of means between the pre-test group and the post-test group, there appear statistically significant differences between the value awarded in the degree of acquisition of competencies before and after the Practicum period.
Lastly, the correlation analysis also reveals that there is a coherent change according to a non-erratic pattern. This helps confirm the relevant nature and overall sense of the Practicum.

Conclusions

Participating students perceive that the most important competencies belong to the dimension of knowing how to be and how to behave.

Participating students also perceive a greater degree of acquisition in competencies of a personal and social nature. The Practicum helps to positively modify the perception of degree of development of competencies. The Practicum has a high impact on the development of professional competencies and as a globalising element of
The Practicum in the acquisition of professional competencies

Degrees in Teacher Training are designed following the competence approach. This paper compares the importance students give to competencies, and how they rate their acquisition.

Goals of the study:
1. to show the impact the Practicum has on the learning and development of professional competencies
2. to gather and compare the perceptions of students doing a Degree in Teacher Training with respect to the importance they give to the professional competencies that are characteristic of the Practicum period

Methodology:
Based on the questionnaire technique. Its pre-test (134 subjects) and post-test (120 subjects) administration is planned around the Practicum period.

Main Conclusions:
1. Participating students perceive that the most important competencies belong to the dimension of knowing how to be and how to behave.
2. Participating students also perceive a greater degree of acquisition in competencies of a personal and social nature.
3. The Practicum helps to positively modify the perception and professional development of competencies.

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<th>COMPETENCY</th>
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<td>Ability to promote a worthy image of early childhood and respect for the rights of infants</td>
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<td>Ability to encourage cohabitation and the peaceful resolution of conflicts by creating contexts of well-being and peacefulness both inside and outside school</td>
<td>BEING</td>
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<td>Ability to recognize educational development and the needs of infants in early childhood; to recognize the value and evolutionary process of spontaneous, play activity as a key element of learning</td>
<td>KNOWING</td>
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<td>Ability to promote educational values in defense of gender equality and to encourage the culture of peace</td>
<td>BEING</td>
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<td>Ability to acquire collaborative work strategies by developing attitudes of respect for plurality of perspectives, content of opinions, and respect for diversity</td>
<td>BEING</td>
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Practices and discourses
Developing University teaching in health - Knowledge and practice: Experience as a postgraduate student

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It is at post-graduation level that university professors are prepared to handle educational matters in higher education. However, there has been more emphasis on scientific preparation compared to the pedagogical and didactical. Thus, it is necessary to relook at these issues, implementing post-graduation courses that consider the importance of a holistic pedagogical preparation and that aim at improving the quality of higher education. In this direction, the College of Nursing of Ribeirão Preto has created some post-graduation courses for providing graduates with an experience of learning pedagogical contents conceptually, procedurally and attitudinally. The objective of this experience report is to identify and discuss some conceptual, procedural and attitudinal elements in the implementation of a course for teaching development. So, this is a report of the experience of attending one of these courses wherein there were profound discussions about nursing pedagogical knowledge, procedures and attitudes that emerged during the meetings. In order to organize this report, it will be discussed according to the procedural aspects (the process), to the knowledge construction (cognitive-conceptual aspects), and to the attitudinal aspects (the interaction and the behavior of the participants of this course). During the course, the indicated readings, the discussions, the mediation, all made it possible to sense the ressignification of teaching and of the role of a professor.

Keywords: Nursing Education, Critical Thinking, Higher Education Pedagogy, Emancipation.

Introduction

Higher Education has always been a scenario full of ideological conflicts. Nevertheless, some researchers affirm that university professors need a continuous and permanent preparation in network(Doris Pires Vargas Bolzan, 2008; D P V Bolzan, 2009; Doris Pires Vargas. Bolzan & Isaia, 2010; D P V Bolzan & Powaczuk, 2013 ; Isaia, Bolzan, & Maciel, 2009), especially in a meaningful way, so that they can learn some important theoretical-methodological-evaluation approaches for education, as well as sensing implementational barriers and political-ideological atmospheres.

Some researchers found that there is little or no investment in higher education professors’ pedagogical preparation(Pimenta, 2005; Pimenta & Almeida, 2011; Pimenta & Anastasiou, 2010), not even when they are performing their research project in post-graduation are there enough hours of pedagogical studies(Scorzoni, 2013), let alone pedagogical practices.
Concerned with this problematic situation, some researchers at the University of São Paulo at College of Nursing of Ribeirão Preto have organized some post-graduation courses intended to prepare post-graduation students for also becoming a university professor. These courses were organized and are aligned with the guidelines of a bid invitation called "Pro-teaching in Health", which was launched nationally in Brazil in 2010 (CAPES, 2010a, 2010b).

In this sense, one of the courses called "developing university teaching in health: knowledge and practice" certainly permeated rather in depth discussions and practices about teaching knowledge, emphasizing the didactical-pedagogical knowledge, especially the teaching planning.

This current reflective study aimed at highlight a learning experience of becoming a university professor, emphasizing the interaction aspects of theory and practice in teaching, based on a constructivist perspective, on a problematizing methodology and on the meaningful learning.

Methods

This course was organized based on active methodology, in which learners and professors joined in an active critical and reflective process. So, some previously selected themes/contents to be used as important triggers to this learning process were disposed and learners were to organize themselves in groups and select one from the themes to work with. Students, then, were supposed to plan a meeting/class on the chosen theme to the rest of the students, using appropriate methodology.

Each group had to previously write a teaching plan and send it to the professors responsible for the course, from whom they could receive some suggestions before implementing the class itself. So, each group had another chance to relook at the planning they made and re-plan it, if it was the case.

During the meetings/classes, there were two moments: 1-) the moment the group worked their theme out; 2-) the moment for discussing the teaching plan itself and the methodology used to work out the chosen theme/content. The professors were more active at the second moment, leaving the students freer to develop themselves at the first moment.

In order to discuss theoretically about this experience, it will be organized according to the procedural aspects (the process), to the knowledge construction (cognitive-conceptual aspects), and to the attitudinal aspects (the interaction and the behavior of the participants of this course), which is based in Zabala's content typology (Zabala, 1998).

Findings and discussion

The Process

It was remarkable at these meetings/classes the valorization of the education perspective towards learning (the students) rather than the one towards teaching (the professors). This was the philosophy along all the course, especially during the discussions; for example, the discussion of the construction of teaching/learning objectives, wherein it was possible to reflect upon the verbs used to enunciate the objectives themselves, but it was also feasible to overpass them to their real finalities, revealing their real meanings in practice and unveiling the real
intentions, perspectives and ideologies behind the choices made. Somehow, there was a concern with the process of conscientization/emancipation (Freire, 2011a, 2011b) of the individuals related to the teaching planning and its finalities, as well as with the approach to the Permanent Education in Health referential, due to the fact that the students' moment/process of learning was valorized in the construction of meaningful knowledge, contextually, participatively, searching for the transformation of teaching practices (Lopes, Piovesan, Melo, & Pereira, 2007; Silva, Ferraz, Lino, Backes, & Schmidt, 2010).

The purpose of this course itself had the potential to promote these discussion atmospheres, because when students themselves could live the process of teaching/learning planning, implement the plan, follow the plan, re-plan and assess the planned process and the implemented one, this process is all aligned with the search for a meaning to what they are learning as human beings in mediation with the world, in a dialectical process. All that is summed up to the problematizing and emancipatory mediation/facilitation of the professors responsible for the course, providing sense and context to the knowledge built collectively, especially according to Freire's assumptions (Freire, 2011a, 2011b).

**The Knowledge Construction**

Implicitly or explicitly in this course, the knowledge construction about higher education teaching in health prioritised discussions concerning didactical-pedagogical aspects, permeating, relating and reflecting upon the referential of world, of society, of human being, of education.

Discussions started by contextualizing the formation of health professionals in the perspective of the Brazilian Unified Health System (SUS). For some years, researchers have posed a question for the paradigm change in health professional formation towards the consolidation of SUS, highlighting the necessity of a critical and reflective (Motta, Buss, & Nunes, 2004), problematizing and emancipatory pedagogy. The problematizing element could help find the problems in the health/disease situations, provoking individuals in formation to reflect upon them (reflective element) and upon the thoughts, behaviours, procedures and attitudes before the national health reality. The critical element permeates this process to guarantee that the reflections have coherent and solid basis for analysis and self-analysis during the process, which aims at the individuals' emancipation/conscientization (emancipation element) along the teaching-learning moments.

Some researchers have called active teaching/learning methodologies the dialectical process, involving critical reflections, with a more active participation of the individuals involved in the knowledge construction (Anastasiou & Alves, 2004; Haydt, 2006; Mitre et al., 2008).

In this sense, it is due to understand that these methodologies and critical pedagogies have been indicated as a path, in health care in this case, to achieve the aspired 'health as a right', as written in Brazilian federal constitution. Therefore, the creation of SUS (BRASIL, 1990) brings theoretical and conceptual elements to guide national health practices, as well as educational and formative practices of health professionals, such as care and assistance comprehensiveness, equitable distribution of resources, universal access to health, intersectoral organization, social participation in the management and decision-making, and others.
But there is also another reference point, such as the humanization policies (BRASIL, 2004), as a strategy to mobilize discussion and reflection also on the behaviours and attitudes for the best performance in the Unified Health System, which is also implicated in the education of health professionals nationwide.

Thus, there has been encouragement to use methodologies and pedagogical approaches that not only seek the active participation of students in the construction of knowledge, but also involve the community, working professionals, health services in an integrated, interdependent, interdisciplinary, intercomplementary (CECCIM & CARVALHO, 2005), so that the construction of knowledge happens more and more in a meaningful and comprehensive way.

However, the paradigmatic rupture necessary for the implementation of this new health professional education model cannot be understood as something to occur spontaneously and without ideological confrontations and conflicts. It should be understood as a democratic, constructive, analytical and educational process. If the spaces for discussions are seen as conducive to collective constructions and as part of an endless learning process, so a different theoretical frame of reference of education as a permanent and continuous process of learning processes (Carotta, Kawamura, & Salazar, 2009). Still, one cannot forget the problematic and poor didactic and pedagogical formation of university professors (Pimenta & Anastasiou, 2010), associated with the dilemma of the academic productivism (Sguissardi, 2013) that has been encouraged by agencies for research development, and consequently by universities, from which researchers/professors have to produce great amounts of papers to get put in the rankings of research productivity and receive positive peer assessment - all locked up in their private rooms and put apart by departments (created in Brazil during Military Dictatorship).

Anyway, Ceccim and Carvalho refer to not only an instrumental reform, but also a political-pedagogical one (CECCIM & CARVALHO, 2005). Then, it is necessary that the educational institutions adopt as a guide for their teaching and learning practice reflections, the constructions and reconstructions of their Political-pedagogical projects (PPP). The PPP allows reflections on basic issues about the benchmarks collectively adopted to guide the pedagogical, methodological and evaluative practices within the educational institution, making clearer the concepts and operationalizations for reality transformation (VASCONCELLOS, 2008), and for the achievement of certain professional profiles. To this end, it is demanded an educational management of the planned and of the implemented, opening up permanent spaces for discussions on this issue (Masetto, 2003). However, there will certainly be conflicts of interest.

While the PPP is being discussed and planned (macro-planning), the micro-planning will continue. For example, teaching-learning processes in micro-spaces (e.g. lectures, meetings, internships etc.) need to keep going (in the midst of all these problems and dilemmas). In this sense, and having in mind the health professionals formation assumptions already mentioned in this text, the teaching-learning planning should pervade consistently some of its elements: teacher-student interaction, selection of teaching-learning content, learning objectives identification and construction, organization of teaching and learning strategies and of evaluative forms.

Therefore, Zabala (Zabala, 1998) points out some aspects to be considered during the educational interactions, in a constructivist way, such as considering the previous knowledge and contributions of the students (as also mentioned by Freire (Freire, 2011a) as the common sense knowledge); helping students identify significance/meaning in what they do; promoting self-structuring mental activity (referring to a methodology of
questioning as a form of liberation conducted by educators (Freire, 2011b), and the development of the critical thinking by learners through critical reflections), among other aspects.

As for the selection of teaching-learning content, Zabala (Zabala, 1998) also states that the pedagogical processes should value the various dimensions of human development and therefore not prioritize one kind of content over others. The contents are not neutral, nor is its selection. Thus, they can be conceptual, factual, procedural and attitudinal. In this sense, to achieve the goal of educating engaged professionals prepared to fire the changes necessary for the consolidation of SUS, it is not possible to select and implement educational processes emphasizing only conceptual and factual contents related to individuals' cognitive dimension. It is crucial to mobilize procedural contents (motor/executing dimension) and especially attitudinal contents, which are related to individuals' beliefs, values and principles (in this aspect humanization policies should guide this practice).

Selecting objectives, educators need to have in mind that the two perspectives of educating: the perspective of "teaching" or "learning", i.e., the objectives, in active methodologies, have to relate to what is expected by students (as noted by Leal (LEAL, 2005) as the skills to be developed by them), rather than what is performed by the teacher, because the intention is that the students be the protagonists of building their own knowledge in an active process of learning.

Regarding the teaching-learning methods, Veiga (VEIGA, 2002) states that the teaching methodology is closely related to the chosen pedagogical approach (the practice) and should seek to answer the following questions: what to do? when?, for whom? what for? why? and how?. The author highlights the interplay of interests and intentions that are revealed from the choice of the teaching methodology. Anastasiou and Alves (Anastasiou & Alves, 2004) emphasize that in the traditional teaching trends were prevalent exposures, transmissions of information and memorizing processes. A question is remarkable in this strategy: what is the intentionality of these strategies, since they are believed not to promote the emancipation of individuals, unless a passivating and shaping process?

Similarly, it is possible to think of evaluative methodologies from its goals, interests and intentions. In traditional aspects, evaluation is understood, in a reductionist way, as an instrument, a proof, and also makes use of authoritarianism, disciplinarianism and punitivism (Luckesi, 2011). In the progressive and critical approaches, evaluation is continuous and processual, and aims to enhance the formative aspects, assisting learners in the progression towards the educational goals and objectives (micro and macro), revealing the internal and external consistency throughout this process. In this way, Sordi (SORDI, 2012) points out that the classifying, authoritarian and punitive evaluations hardly contribute to a meaningful and significant learning. Thus, Perrenoud (PERRENOUD, 1999) reveals that there are two evaluation aspects that interfere in the design of evaluation: the summative assessment and the formative assessment. The summative one is more in congruence with the traditional aspects, and has education in a teaching perspective, focusing on the teacher's actions, in contrast to the learning perspective that values the formative evaluation process, emphasizing learning.

It is even possible to realize that summative assessments are fundamentally punitive, classifying, conditioning and seek for the maintenance positivist educational perspectives. It's high time educators assume emancipating, dialogic and open evaluations, in the belief that everything is processual and built collectively, regarding concepts, behaviours, attitudes.
Students' and Professors' Attitudinal Aspects

In this course, there were diverse types of knowledge about being a professor in higher education in the health area. It was perceptive in the group works the gradual deepening in the theoretical discussions, all the more in the approaches of these theoretical aspects at the moments of practicing/experiencing them in teaching and learning (students teaching and learning at the same time). Indeed, there is still a lot to be build for supporting teaching practices in universities: especially changes in referentials of human being, of society, of world, of university, of education, which implicitly and explicitly interfere in the pedagogical conceptions and approaches.

However, it is noteworthy that the group proved quite cohesive during presentations and collective constructions. It was essential at moments to discuss some attitudes/behaviours and have some attitudes so that tensions could contribute to the comprehensive construction of these contents worked conceptually, procedurally and attitudinally. At this point, it was fundamental the recaps and connexions that professors and students had been doing with the contents all over the meetings, as reported by Zabala(Zabala, 1998), which integrates the process of collective construction of knowledge.

Another very important situation was the explanations, the connexions and the highlights done by everyone, relating the concepts and facts to their translations into procedures and attitudes/behaviours, which were implemented by the students in their presentations. This relates to what Freire(Freire, 2011b) calls a process of encoding-decoding towards a critical unveiling about a particular subject. And this is more meaningful and significant when knowledge is constructed with the contingent aid of other individuals(Zabala, 1998), in a close relationship with others (zone of proximal development).

Conclusion

In this course, it was possible to approach constructivist perspectives of education and practice them with the guidance, reflections and critics of students and professors in process that valorized learning to be a university professor as the ultimate goal. Exchanging experiences, experimenting methodologies, relating them with theory, thinking critically about all this process have made some difference on the learning process, providing students and professors with real moments of significant and meaningful knowledge.

Therefore, the distance between theory and practice is a serious problem in education. If educators find ways to shorten these distances through more democratic, emancipatory, participatory, meaningful, significant, critical, reflective, formative, open, dialogic educational processes, post-graduation students, and future professors, will be prepared to handle with the dilemmas of the future education, which aspire for critical autonomous thinkers who reflect-act-reflect coherently for the benefits of the humanity as a whole.

References


This paper shows the preliminary results of an on going research that aims to reflect about the knowledge considered relevant in Brazil to be taught in the Elementary School. Affirming the centrality of the specialized knowledge distributed in the school we aim to analyze the curriculum from this point of view - that of the knowledge presented as essential to the students’ formation. As result, we expect to draw a picture of the different elements pointed by ten teachers in relation to the knowledge that should constitute the core curriculum to the Elementary School, in five subject matters: Portuguese, Mathematics, Science, Geography and Art. We bring some aspects identified in their declarations, registered in semi-structured interviews. For the analysis of the results, the concept of recontextualization, developed by Basil Bernstein, is mobilized. This author points that there are agents located in two recontextualization fields in the process of recontextualization. One of them is the Official Recontextualization Field (ORF), created and dominated by the State; the other one is the Pedagogical Recontextualization Field (PRF). In the last, the agents can cause effects in the pedagogical discourse whether they have authonomy to do that. If that does not occur, only the agents of the ORF will shape the pedagogical discourse. The nature of the transformation of discourses in the construction of the pedagogical discourse will be different according to the balance between these two recontextualization fields. So, whether we want to grasp the process of recontextualization we need to take into account the aspects of the political context in the construction of the curriculum. The data brought and discussed in this paper are tied to the recontextualization agents that are responsible by the knowledge transmission in the school - the teachers. It is important to identify how they contribute to the constitution of the pedagogical discourses of the subject matters. We aimed to bring elements to recognize whether the teachers have clarity about the specificity of the knowledge from each discipline, about the boundaries between them and about the boundaries between the school knowledge and that from the immediate experience of the students. In this sense, the difficulty expressed by the teachers to define what constitutes the central knowledge of the subject matters they teach, as well as the unclarity identified by some of them in the curriculum proposals about what should be taught in the school seem to be important starting points for a deeper reflection to be developed by the curriculum theorists and designers.

**Key words:** Curriculum; School Knowledge; Recontextualization; Teachers; Elementary School.
Introduction

This article focuses on the partial results obtained from an ongoing research that aims to conduct a reflection about the knowledge regarded as being relevant to be disseminated in the Brazilian public Elementary Schools. Some aspects that were identified by analysing the semi-structured interviews conducted with teachers bring to light their views about what the basis of knowledge that every student should have access to the school education process should include. Hence, the article begins with a brief discussion on curriculum and knowledge. Next, we present the methodological options, as well as some of the results we obtained so far. In the final considerations, we point up some elements regarded as being relevant for developing the reflection about the curriculum and the recontextualization process of knowledge in building the school curriculum.

About curriculum and knowledge

Bernstein (2000) clearly points up his question about the transformation of the discourses: “is there any general principle underlying the transformation of knowledge into pedagogic communication?” (p. 25). What he complains about is related to the approach of other theories that have tried to deal with this transformation process, by focusing only on “what is carried or relayed, they do not study the constitution of the relay itself” (p. 25). In other words, for Bernstein, these theories just focus on the content of what is transmitted - ideological messages and the reproduction of the power relations, and the inequalities tied to that (he is referring to the theories of reproduction). According to these theories, pedagogical communication is just a carrier for those who are interested in messages tied to reproducing the inequalities in the society.

What Bernstein was concerned about, however, was how the transmission of knowledge was structured in the pedagogical communication. So as to develop this approach, Bernstein differentiates what he calls “the relay” and “the relayed.” The first refers to the relatively stable rules defining what he calls pedagogical device. The second refers to the message the pedagogical communication conveys. To Bernstein, the latter also includes rules, but these rules are contextual (2000, p. 27). We will focus on the pedagogical device, since we are concerned about how the knowledge to be taught is transformed, meaning, how a new text to be transmitted at schools is built.

The pedagogical device has internal rules regulating the pedagogical transmission. Bernstein affirms that, in a metaphorical sense, the pedagogical device provides the intrinsic pedagogical discourse grammar (p. 28). The “pedagogical discourse grammar” refers to the rules that structure a discourse according to specific features socially assumed for the distribution of knowledge and power, and for the development of forms of awareness by the pedagogical communication.

The author points up three sets of rules (the pedagogical device) that structure the pedagogical discourse: the distributive, the recontextualizing and the evaluative rules. Briefly, the first rule specializes in forms of knowledge, forms of awareness and forms of practice to social groups. The second rule regulates the formation of a specific pedagogical discourse. And the third rule constitutes the pedagogical practice (BERNSTEIN, 2000, p. 28).

With focus on the pedagogical device, Bernstein defines it as that what provides the intrinsic pedagogic discourse grammar. Depending on its three sets of rules (distributive, recontextualizing and evaluative), the pedagogical discourse assumes specific features that are related to the distribution of knowledge and forms of awareness in the society. We will explore the recontextualizing rules further in this paper, since we are concerned about how
knowledge is transformed, or, how knowledge is recontextualized in building the pedagogical discourse. Accordingly, Bernstein (2000) points up:

The pedagogical discourse itself rests on the rules, which create specialized communications through which pedagogical subjects are selected and created. In other words, the pedagogical discourse selects and creates specialized pedagogical subjects through its contexts and contents (p. 31).

Bernstein (2000) starts with the definition of pedagogical discourse. According to him, it is a principle for embedding one discourse into another:

a discourse of skills of various kinds and their relations to each other, and a discourse of social order. The pedagogical discourse embeds rules, which create skills of one kind or another, and rules creating their relationships to each other, and the rules that create social order (p. 31-32).

He calls the first discourse “instructional discourse”, and he calls the second one “regulative discourse.” Bernstein also indicates that the regulative discourse is the dominant one in building the pedagogical discourse. In other words, he explains the pedagogical discourse as the one: “which leads to the embedding of one discourse into another, so as to create one text, to create one discourse” (p. 32). Embedding a discourse that comes from the disciplines (the instructional discourse) into the regulative discourse creates a new one, the pedagogical discourse.

Still exploring the recontextualizing principle, Bernstein mentions that it creates recontextualizing fields and agents with recontextualizing functions, all of them involved in the embedding of the two forms of discourse - instructional and regulative. These recontextualizing fields - and the agents with their recontextualizing functions - create a specific discourse according to the autonomy conferred to them.

At this point, Bernstein distinguishes two recontextualizing fields: the official recontextualizing field (ORF) and the pedagogical recontextualizing field (PRF). In his terms, the ORF is “created and dominated by the state and its selected agents and ministries”, and the PRF “consists of pedagogues in schools and colleges, and departments of education, specialized journals, private research foundations” (BERNSTEIN, 2000, p. 33).

The autonomy mentioned above refers to the possible impact the PRF causes on the pedagogical discourse, as Bernstein (2000) explains:

If the PRF can have an effect on pedagogical discourse independently of the ORF, then there is both some autonomy and struggle over the pedagogical discourse and its practices. But if there is only the ORF, then there is no autonomy (p. 33).

In short, Bernstein identifies a principle that embeds two forms of discourse. There are agents located in two recontextualizing fields that dislocate, relocate and refocus the discourses. One of these fields is the ORF, created and dominated by the state; the other is the PRF. The agents located in the latter can affect the pedagogical discourse only if they have autonomy to do so. If this condition is not ensured, only the agents acting in the ORF are able to shape the pedagogical discourse. Why is it important to highlight this issue of autonomy here? Because the nature of the transformation of discourses in building the pedagogical discourse will be different according to the balance existing between the two recontextualizing fields in this process. So, focus on the recontextualizing principle implies taking into account the features of the political context in which the curriculum is built.
It is also relevant to point up, even briefly, what Bernstein calls the evaluative rules. These rules are tied to the transformation of the pedagogical discourse into pedagogical practices. According to Bernstein (2000), the “pedagogical discourse specializes time, text and space, and brings these into a special relationship with each other” (p. 35).

So, Bernstein starts his explanation about the evaluative rules in the most abstract level, explaining how the pedagogical discourse specializes time, text and space. In a second level, he relates the specialization of time with the student's age, the specialization of space with the context, and the specialization of text with the content transmitted. In the last level, that of the social relations of the pedagogical practice, Bernstein refers to the transformation of the content into evaluation practices and that of the context into transmission practices.

When it comes to building the school curriculum, the scientific or academic knowledge is relevant because it should constitute the basis for the recontextualization that will result in the content of the subject matter - the pedagogical discourse. What schools must do is to allow the students to grasp the core concepts and propositions, the relationships between them and the specific procedures that characterize each discipline. Schools must explicit how each discipline develops their own ‘truth seeking’, and the core basis of what the disciplines have discovered so far, so as to improve the understanding of the world - and even to imagine another world. To do so, the school's curriculum must be closely related to the structure of the knowledge in each discipline. Young (2014), referring to the purpose of the schools, states that:

It is to enable all students to acquire knowledge that takes them beyond their experience. It is knowledge that many will not have access to at home, among their friends, or in the communities in which they live. As such, access to this knowledge is the ‘right’ all pupils as future citizens are entitled to (p. 10).

These ideas about the purpose of the school imply that the knowledge distributed at the schools must be neither the knowledge acquired from the student's experience nor the common-sense knowledge. As Charlot (2012) mentions:

School is a place where the world is treated as an object and not as an environment, a place of experience. At times, this object of thought has a referent outside school, in the environment of the pupil’s life. [...] Very often, the object of thought of the school does not have a referent in the environment of the pupil’s life. It belongs to a specific world [the world of the disciplines, from an academic community in a specific knowledge field], built by science and by the school. The basic arithmetic operations have some referents in social practices outside school, where the pupils count, add, multiply, but these referents become rare when the pupil moves on to algebra: who, in his lifetime, has to solve second-degree equations? The notion of weight has a referent in the everyday world, but that of the atom does not. Controlling the relationship between the object of thought and its referents in life’s environment, and introducing the pupil to intellectual worlds made up of objects, whose meaning does not derive from a relationship with the real world as it is experienced is [...] the overriding problem of the school pedagogy (p. 218-219).

It means that, according to this point of view, there is a best knowledge to be taught at schools. And this knowledge must be differentiated from the one the students acquire from experience; it has its roots within the structure of the
disciplines. This differentiation constitutes a fundamental challenge to the curriculum field - the question about the relationship that schools must develop with knowledge.

So as to go beyond the limits the knowledge from experience represents - limits founded on its relationship with the immediate context - where it undoubtedly fits -, people should access a selection of specialized knowledge that is legitimated in the scientific communities and transformed into school knowledge. This is what Young (2014) called “powerful knowledge”: “[...] powerful knowledge refers to the knowledge per se and not to the knowers. It is not concerned about who defines or creates the knowledge. Knowledge is ‘powerful’ if it predicts, if it explains, if it enables you to envisage alternatives” (p. 74).

If we are looking for the powerful knowledge, it is crucial to establish boundaries between the school knowledge and the other kinds of knowledge. The first important point about it is to notice that the search for a best knowledge to be taught and learned at school does not include devaluing other forms of knowledge. It is just the best knowledge for developing the school’s purpose - within different contexts other forms of knowledge could be better than the school knowledge. For example, in the everyday life of students, common-sense knowledge works quite well - they just need the school knowledge to go beyond the limits of the context of their own experience.

According to Young (2014), the characteristics that should define the school knowledge in this perspective of powerful knowledge, as a curriculum principle, are: (1) It is distinct from common-sense knowledge, as explained above; (2) It is systematic, “its concepts are systematically related to each other in groups that we refer to as subjects or disciplines”; and (3) It is specialized, which means that the powerful knowledge: “has been developed by distinguishable groups, usually occupations, with a clearly defined focus or field of enquiry and relatively fixed boundaries separating their forms of expertise from other forms” (p. 75).

Each one of these “distinguishable groups” that develop the powerful knowledge has its rules and ways of guaranteeing the objectivity of the knowledge. These specific rules and procedures are tied to the structure of the knowledge.

By taking into account these notions of recontextualization and differentiation of that knowledge that should be taught at schools, the data that will be shown and discussed about in this paper faces the recontextualization agents responsible by the transmission - the teachers - and their perspectives about the subjects they teach. So, it is of importance to identify their views while adding them to the discussion about the role they can play in building the pedagogical discourse.

Methodology

The procedure used in this step of the research was semi-structured interviews conducted with five teachers from the first cycle of the Elementary School, at a public school in Campinas, Brazil. We started by analysing the curriculum prescriptions from the federal government tied to five school subjects - Portuguese, Math, Geography, Natural Sciences and Art - and three curriculum proposals from Brazilian states - located in the North, Southeast

19 Although the summary submitted as part of the enrollment in the II ECCS mentioned ten teachers, this paper includes only five interviews. A long-lasting teacher strike occurring in the first half of 2015 made it difficult to conduct the interviews with the teachers from the second cycle of the Elementary School.
and South regions - linked to the same subjects. The second step included interviews conducted with two groups of teachers from a public University in São Paulo, Brazil: one group of five teachers involved in the five knowledge fields that the research focuses on; a second group of five teachers who teach the Methodology for each one of those referred school subjects. This paper brings the results obtained from the interviews conducted with five teachers at a public school included in the third step.

These teachers work at a public school that attained good scores in the Development Index of Basic Education (IDEB, in Portuguese). That index aims at reflecting the quality of the school practice, and is based both on the students’ results in the National System of Evaluation of Basic School (SAEB, in Portuguese) - an external exam - and on school dropout and failure rates. The choice of this school is justified by the search for teachers who could find relatively stable conditions for developing their pedagogical practices. That can be regarded as being potentially favourable for developing a good approach to knowledge.

Each one of the teachers interviewed taught one of the school subjects pointed above. It is relevant to point up that the teaching of the school subjects - Portuguese, Math, Science and Geography -, in the first cycle of the Elementary School, is the responsibility of teachers with Pedagogy degrees from Schools of Education. So as to teach in the second cycle of the Elementary School, the teachers specialize in one of the school disciplines. That is the case of the Art teacher as well.

A guide was developed aiming at conducting the semi-structured interviews. Based on the teachers’ statements - which were audio recorded and transcribed later -, categories including similar ideas were created. These categories served to organize the analysis according to the theoretical references that were previously pointed up:

- **Category 1: Core concepts and procedures that characterize the school disciplines.**
- **Category 2: Knowledge from immediate experience and school knowledge: the differentiation in the teaching process.**
- **Category 3: Differences in how the phenomena developed were approached in the school disciplines.**
- **Category 4: Clarity of the prescriptions that define the core knowledge to be taught in the disciplines.**

The aim, therefore, was to identify some elements that allow how teachers understand the specificities of the knowledge mobilized in the school disciplines to be recognized. The analysis focuses on the meanings that their understanding could have in developing the process of recontextualization that results in the school knowledge, according to the theoretical references chosen and pointed up above.

### The school knowledge in the perspective of the teachers

Referring to the Category 1, the teachers identified some themes, concepts or contents that were regarded as being essential to be taught at this schooling level. Table 27 shows a sample of this selection:
The issue of reading, grasping, interpreting all the genres. [...] the issue of Orthography and Punctuation.

The four operations are fundamental, including the numbers.

The knowledge about the body [...], the reason for that plant to exist, this wonderful sky, this rain that we have [...] is knowledge about the existence, because everything exists for a reason.

The issues of positioning, relief, environmental knowledge. [...] we cannot distinguish between only this or that content, we need to work with all the things.

Focus is one of the concepts, as well as coordination. The creation process and creativity are important. [...] These are the main basis: creativity, focus and coordination.

Thinking about the procedures, the core point is the materialization. [The students] will use an array of resources to make it work, in dance, in music. The body is the first procedure, [...] through it one can exteriorize everything, when it comes to speaking, singing, positioning, locating, moving, everything. [...] and the other materials that are diverse: table, pencils, pens, many kinds of paper.

Table 27: Core concepts and procedures that characterize the school knowledge

It is relevant to point up that, except for the Art teacher, the others were quite brief and superficial when defining what they understand as being the concepts and procedures that characterize the disciplines that were focused on in the interview. Generally speaking, how they grasp terms, such as “concept” and “procedure”, proved to be quite broad and undefined, how they join themes (Orthography and Grammar, Numbers, Human Body, Textual Genres), contents (relief), skills (interpretation, focus, coordination), competences (reading), materials involved in the learning process (papers, pencils).

It is also important to point up, when it comes to the Science school subject, the poetical view and kind of expectance this type of knowledge creates when representing “the truth”, explaining the causes of the phenomena, in a perspective that seems to be tied to the image the scientific work presents as being something revealing, precise, canonical.

When teachers discuss the importance of the differentiation between the type of knowledge that the students bring to school and the one they should access at school, some elements are pointed up, as shown in Table 28 below:
When you first transmit the school knowledge, this one that is different from the daily knowledge, some children have problems to grasp it. […] at home there is no reading, no talking, no explanation about what will be done at school. So, the majority of children come with a huge amount of knowledge, but some of them come with next to none.

**Mathematics**

It’s so because the child who comes with that knowledge, with this help, wow! For the school, it is excellent because the teacher can continue [developing the teaching process] with him/her. […] But, when a child doesn’t have a link with Maths, he/she only learns it here at school […] we have to give him/her a huge support to make him/her enjoy Maths.

**Natural Sciences**

In my point of view, they have it [the knowledge about Sciences], but only if the family has an influence on them. [What is important is] that they have a deep understanding about the reasons for the situation they experience. […] Despite experiencing that, they don’t know why it occurs.

**Geography**

[The students] have that knowledge [from the immediate experience], but they don’t have the understanding of why it occurs: why does that happen? How does it happen? Once they don’t know why - have just heard about in the immediate experience - it ceases to matter.

**Art**

It’s the same thing [what they previously know and what the school teaches]. But it becomes more and more specific over time. So, those are things we expect the students to bring to school, because they are present in their lives and families. But they arrive here quite crude in that sense.

Despite being part of their daily lives [the artistic experience], it’s very open. It doesn’t have a context, it doesn’t close itself, is different from the past [when mothers did it] some things here or there [craftwork for example].

Table 28: Knowledge from the immediate experience of students and school knowledge: the differentiation in the teaching process

When the teachers were prompted to reflect about the difference between the knowledge grasped from the daily experiences and the school knowledge, they emphasized the role the families play in guiding the learning developed outside the school context. In their view, that guidance process could improve the contact with the specific knowledge coming from the school disciplines. Accordingly, they stated that the teaching process is made much easier when it comes to children who were “initiated” by their families. Likewise, in the case of families that “fail” to guide the first contacts with knowledge, the schoolwork is undermined. It is interesting that the relationship identified between the two types of knowledge is restricted only to a perspective of continuity, never of rupture with what students bring as previous knowledge of the world. There are no elements on the teachers’ statements that
allow us to assert that they recognize differences in the structure of the two types of knowledge chosen to be the focus of this paper.

When they talked about the specificities of the school knowledge and the necessity of highlighting this differences in the teaching process, the teachers seem to value the search for articulating the school disciplines, as Table 29 shows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Discipline</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>There are no different ways. It depends on how the child receives your explanation. And it depends on how he/she receives the activity you’re working with him/her too. [...] According to how they receive that activity, you can guide them toward understanding it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>Maths is like any other school subject. For example, Maths is involved in the Natural Sciences, in Portuguese. When the child learns to interpret in Portuguese, he/she can interpret in Maths - although Maths interpreting includes something related with calculation, about which operation he/she will do according to the enunciate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Sciences</td>
<td>From the moment the student understands how to solve problems in Natural Sciences, he/she will do it when it comes to Portuguese. He/she will understand it because it’s necessary to know why things happen in Sciences, so as to join it with the perspective found in Maths in a specific relationship.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>It could be that a distinct language from one school subject to other exists. But, once you work in an interdisciplinary approach, you can use the same language. And the child will learn Geography in the same way that he/she learns Portuguese, History, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>Portuguese is Art, Art is Portuguese. There is a lot of art in Maths. So, everything is tied to Art: there’s art in History, in Geography. There’s a link between them all; it’s a single thing. [...] People separate things. It’s important that the student realizes the differences, because each field of knowledge has its own role, its point of view. Life presents these differences. I think that, in the school context, it has to be different as well; different but equal at the same time.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 29: Differences in how the phenomenon is approached in disctint school disciplines

Highlighting their perspective on the boundaries between the school subjects, the teachers show a concern over stating that how knowledge is approached - an integrated, interdisciplinary way - is more important than the specificities of each discipline. Even when they identified the differences between the school disciplines, they emphasized that the strategy of teaching should weaken these specificities, since everything “should be different but equal at the same time”.
Some statements allow us even to suggest that the teachers do not recognize intellectual demands and thought resources involved in the learning process of different school disciplines - as if we could think that learning Portuguese, Maths or Art involves developing the same resources by the students.

In the last category, the teachers refer to the explicitness - or even the obscurity - identified in the prescriptions that define what should be taught in each schooling level, for each school discipline. They emphasize their search in different types of pedagogical materials - didactical books, Internet sites, official curriculum proposals etc. - so as to complement their understanding of what they have to teach. More so, they point up that curriculum prescriptions are not explicit, or sufficiently detailed, particularly concerning how they should teach. Table 30 shows some of their statements that allow us to think so:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discipline</th>
<th>Statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>It’s not clear. It comes on the text, the prescriptions about what should be taught in the first two months, for example. But you can’t stay tied to that. You need to figure out other ways because it doesn’t come ready to use with children in the classrooms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>The Bureau of Education sends it to us almost ready. They send strategies, learning expectations. So, the child should meet that expectation. We teach and then we evaluate to confirm whether the child has learned or not. Everything is based on learning expectations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Sciences</td>
<td>The Bureau of Education always sends much information. Sometimes it’s not clear for us how we’ll transmit the content to the children. So, I think that there are moments in which the prescriptions are clear and others in which it’s insufficient.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>I think that it’s quite brief. It’s not much content, do you understand me? It’s the reason why I’m always looking for a way to complement it. Aside from additional content, the curriculum documents could give us more specific directions, such as: “We have this material, this research, this site” or “You should work like this”. It would make it easier on us.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>When it comes to Art, it’s quite broad. The students have to grasp the four languages of art. So, it means everything. It’s quite broad. I choose, I have to choose. Not the content - I know that I have to teach that -, but I choose how I’ll do it.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 30: Explicitness of the curriculum prescriptions about what is the essential knowledge to be taught in the school disciplines
Once more, the emphasis is on the method of approaching knowledge. Even when they refer to the explicitness the prescriptions lack, their criticism is toward the lack of explicitness about how they should teach, such as “You should work like this.” Most of them do not seem concerned about knowing exactly what to teach. What seems to be lacking is to point up strategies, possible ways for developing the teaching process. The need for these strategies is what seems to cause the search for different sources - especially the didactic book.

Final considerations

Summarizing the results shown in the previous section, the teachers interviewed in this step of the research showed they give less attention to the reflection about what should be taught in each school discipline than to how to develop the teaching process. They also seem to be bothered by the question about the concepts and procedures to which students cannot be denied access during the development of their education. They did not confer relevance to the differentiation between school and non-school knowledge, as well as between the knowledge provided by each school subject. Concerning their view about what could be essential to be taught at school, the teachers want increased explicitness in the curriculum prescriptions of the methodological orientations to guide their practice more than being entitled to discuss the selection of what should be taught.

It is also interesting that the teachers’ perspective seems to see the integration of school subjects as something to be attained, since they believe it to be a better way to approach knowledge. In fact, that idea is nothing new, and it is relevant to remember that it implies a complex change in the power relations that define the position of subjects, types of knowledge, etc. at school. Furthermore, reaching that integrated view of the phenomena implies access to concepts and procedures from different fields of knowledge. As Lopes (2006) points up, based on Bernstein’s ideas:

Changes in the organization of the curriculum depend on deeper changes in the social and cultural relationships and in power relations. So, it is not derived just from the decisions of some groups who sympathize with the establishment of relations between some knowledge (p. 153).

Finally, in an analysis that is more specifically tied to this paper's objective, we can point up how teachers understand the specialized knowledge obtained from the school subjects. Accordingly, we once again bring up Bernstein’s concepts of recontextualization - and, more directly, the role the teacher plays in the process of transforming the discourses from the different fields of knowledge into pedagogical discourse - as well as Young's concept of powerful knowledge.

In regarding teachers as agents of recontextualization working in the PRF, it is important to reflect about how much autonomy is given to these agents in the Brazilian education system. On the one hand, the official prescriptions highlight this autonomy - since teachers do not have a common curriculum to be followed at schools - at least until now. On the other hand, this absence can reduce that autonomy with the development of strategies that tie the practice of teachers to the use of didactical materials and to the search for results in external exams. So, the discussion on what is taught is developed at a level that is quite distant from that of the teacher's practice. What is

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20 The Ministry of Education intends to end until June 2016 the process of constructing a Common Curricular Basis to guide all the Brazilian education system.
expected from them is to search for ways to ensure that the students acquire the necessary knowledge so that they succeed in the exams - the element that more and more is considered as the expression of the quality of education. Whether or not some autonomy exists that seems to be restricted to the choices tied to the teaching method, to how knowledge is approached.

But even this autonomy is undefined and certainly not found to the same extent across the different states in Brazil. In some of them, the prescriptions about the school curriculum try to strictly define the “how to” guide of the teacher’s practice. So as to justify this choice, how teachers are poorly trained is pointed up. Accordingly, in seeking to deal with the problem concerning the training of teachers, the investment is made in developing curriculum proposals that aim at guiding the work of the teachers - who is object of the lowest expectations, both concerning the content taught as well as the teaching method.

Concerning this point, Young brings up an astonishing idea: it is important to distinguish between Curriculum and Pedagogy. His point of view highlights that, although Curriculum and Pedagogy should be regarded as elements that cannot be separated in the teacher’s practice, this distinction is important at the level of the production of curriculum prescriptions. This is so because, when a curriculum document limits the methodological choices of teachers, it actually invades the scope of the professional knowledge that characterizes their pedagogical work.

According to Young (2011):

> The curriculum has to take into account the everyday local knowledge that pupils bring to school, but such knowledge can never be a basis for the curriculum. The structure of local knowledge is designed to relate to the particular; it cannot provide the basis for any generalizable principle. To provide access to such principles is a major reason why all countries have schools (p. 154).

For Young (2008), the teacher is the agent responsible for guiding the construction of the relation of students with the knowledge that comprises the school curriculum. In the beginning of this process, there is always the previous knowledge of the students - this is the compulsory material of the work of teachers - and the guiding of this process should be based on the teacher’s professional knowledge. In Young’s own words, based on Bernstein’s ideas:

> “Teachers have to develop ways of enabling pupils to move beyond the non-school knowledge that they bring to school in a process that can be described as the “recontextualization” of both school and non-school knowledge” (2008, p. 15). This process results in a new knowledge that aims at widening the possibilities for understanding the phenomena, in a way that is less directly related with the daily experience. This process demands the access to conceptual and thought instruments and

   its acquisition requires curriculum structures located in schools and the support of teachers with the specialist knowledge and links with universities that enable them to select, pace, and sequence contents. These are the conditions for the transmission of what I earlier referred to as powerful knowledge (YOUNG, 2008, p. 15).

Concerning the relationship between the previous knowledge students bring - from their immediate experience - and the knowledge brought by the school subjects, it is quite important to identify the differences in the structures of these types of knowledge. Likewise, it is important to distinguish the concepts and procedures that characterize the different fields of knowledge - by bringing together ways for investigating and understanding the social and
natural phenomena according to the specificities of the different school subjects. Only then would the teacher be able to guide the relations of continuity or rupture that are tied to the entitlement to powerful knowledge.

Once more, Young (2011) based his argument on Bernstein’s thoughts to point up that:

Contemporary forms of accountability are tending to weaken the boundaries between school and non-school knowledge on the grounds that they inhibit a more accessible and more economically relevant curriculum. I have drawn on Basil Bernstein’s analysis to suggest that to follow this path may be to deny the conditions for acquiring powerful knowledge to the very pupils who are already disadvantaged by their social circumstances (p. 155).

Hence, the difficulty in realizing the different nature of the types of knowledge can result in a specific process of recontextualization in the classroom: restricted to the perspective of continuity, meaning that little or nothing moves forward and goes beyond what students know from the world where they live.

References

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Using ethnography and case study methods, I present the work of two Greek-Cypriot classical studies secondary education teachers who used oral histories from the Cyprus Oral History Project (COHP) Archive (Christodoulou, 2014) as curriculum material in their classrooms.

Cyprus won independence from Great Britain in 1960, and has been roiled in ethnic conflict, violence, and division almost from the start, including the troubles of 1963-1967 and the 1974 Turkish invasion and subsequent occupation. For most Cypriots of every age, Cyprus still bleeds. That bleeding was the focus of COHP. Although tensions between the Greek-Cypriot and the Turkish-Cypriot side are low because of the partition, both sides remain pervaded by antagonistic biases, histories, and myths.

Oral history (OHA, 2012; Ritchie, 2003) has a significant role to play and unique meaning in the context of history classes in Cyprus. Thus far, students are being taught history partially and conventionally. In the two cases examined, oral history attracted and excited students who engaged deeply and authentically in reading the stories, discussing, and initiating new projects. With oral history gaining ground around the world and oral history projects, websites and material mushrooming, one may legitimately wonder why much of these materials have not yet made it into the school classrooms and the school curriculum. It is thus appropriate to inquire into how this material can be used in schools, become part of the curriculum (i.e. Ayers & Ayers, 2013) and contribute to students’ education and growth. Such curricular innovations are presented in this paper.

Both teachers incorporated oral history material beyond the conventional curriculum and schoolwork. They both did so aiming to teach the conflict, refine students’ historical consciousness, reboot their interest toward history learning, and to promote the concept of learning from other people’s experiences. In the results and recommendations sections I discuss how an emphasis on nurturing sentiment over reason and the narrow use of analytic ways to interpret and understand oral history research data, and what historical events and moments can tell (Anderson & Jack, 1991; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006; Portelli, 1997, 2011), did not fully allow for the creation of pedagogical spaces. This limited students’ active responses and positive conflict (Davies, 2005), and, subsequently, the pedagogical, political and social dimensions of oral history. Using pedagogy of discomfort (Boler & Zembylas, 2003; Zembylas & Boler, 2002; Zembylas, 2010) is important in contexts similar to that of Cyprus in order to democratize history and understand political injustices. The pedagogical possibilities of oral history within the particular educational settings are analyzed.

Introduction

I present the work of two Greek-Cypriot classical studies secondary education female teachers who used oral histories from the Cyprus Oral History Project (COHP) Archive (Christodoulou, 2014) as curriculum material in their classrooms. The two teachers conducted work with their senior high school students in two urban public

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21 The Cyprus Oral History Project was hosted by the Frederick Research Center at Frederick University and was funded by the Cyprus Research Promotion Foundation (PROSELKYS/B0609, 2010-2012). The project’s website is www.frederick.ac.cy/research/oralhistory
schools in two different cities in Cyprus. I examine their work from the way they conceptualized their projects through the classroom application. I maintain a particular focus on pedagogy of discomfort as I try to understand what role oral history played in teachers’ and students’ journey and whether its full potential was exploited.

The aim of both teachers, who incorporated oral history material beyond the conventional curriculum, was to teach the conflict, which I describe in subsequent sections, refine students’ historical consciousness, reboot their interest toward history learning, and promote the concept of learning from other people’s experiences. Their focus was on developing historical consciousness and examining alternative, more interesting ways to teach history. In particular, the first teacher M and her student research team, within the context of a student research contest, explored the effectiveness of oral history as an alternative way to revive national anniversary events. Using qualitative and quantitative research methods, the research team undertook an action research case study at their school to investigate students' benefit from attending school celebrations of national anniversaries, and whether such events achieved their primary goal to cultivate their historical collective memory and national consciousness. Then they implemented a remediation action plan using the oral history method.

In the second case, teacher P, within the context of her Master’s thesis, undertook qualitative case study and autobiography research, in an urban public high school in Cyprus. She explored the way students and teachers perceived and experienced the contemporary events of Cypriot history through their history classes and textbooks, and whether these contributed to the cultivation of their historical consciousness. Focusing on the 1974 period events, she then compared and contrasted these findings with the effectiveness of oral history to cultivate students' historical consciousness.

With oral history gaining ground around the world (i.e. Palestine, Israel, Cyprus, UK, Northern Ireland, and other EU countries, Canada, USA, South Africa) and oral history projects, websites and material mushrooming (i.e. Voice of Witness, Europeana, Memoro), one may legitimately wonder why much of these materials have not yet made it into the school classrooms and the school curriculum. It is thus appropriate to inquire into how this material can be used in schools, become part of the curriculum (i.e. Ayers & Ayers, 2013), and contribute to students’ education and growth. Such curricular innovations are the focus of this chapter.

The questions that guide this study are: (1) In what ways did teachers choose to implement oral history in their classroom curriculum? (2) Did the students who engaged with oral history move outside their comfort zones? (3) What kinds of pedagogical spaces, interactions, and disruptions were created, potentially allowing for such ‘moving’ to happen? (4) What were the elements that did not fully allow for the creation of pedagogical spaces, and possibly limited students’ active responses and positive conflict (Davies, 2005), and, subsequently, the pedagogical, political and social dimensions of oral history?

Theoretical Framework

Three theoretical constructs—pedagogy of discomfort, historical consciousness, and a typology of teaching about conflict—provide the framework to examine the questions under investigation. These constructs intersect as they deal with, and have the potential to stimulate emotions, reason, and agency.

Pedagogy of discomfort is an educational approach that emphasizes the need for educators and students alike to move outside their ‘comfort zones’ (Zembylas & McGlynn, 2012; Boler & Zembylas, 2003; Zembylas & Boler, 2002;
Zembylas, 2010). The pedagogical assumption that guides this approach is that “discomforting emotions play a constitutive role in challenging dominant beliefs, social habits and normative practices that sustain social inequities and in creating possibilities for individual and social transformation” (p. 41). A comfort zone is created by living in a situation for a prolonged time, in which, dominant beliefs and practices become the norm. In order to be able to see, feel, and understand what one cannot any longer—because he or she is in the same situation for a long time—one must get out of it so that privileges, beliefs, habits, and practices can be disrupted. Only then there is a possibility for pedagogical spaces and horizons to be expanded; or the prolonged situation is maintained. This disruption is essential to our development, because when we get too comfortable we stop growing (Joyce, Weil, & Calhoun, 2015). As argued, “significant learning is frequently accompanied or impelled by discomfort” (p. 365). It is only when we learn what to think or do in situations in which we do not know what to think or do, that we have changed; and learning means changing (Joyce et al., 2015).

Emotions are a significant component of pedagogy of discomfort; together with the body and spirit, they are forms of knowing and transformation. It has been argued that while in education emotions can be used as a form of social control when exercising humiliation, fear, and shame to uphold the status quo, they can also be understood as sites of resistance and social redress (Boler, 1999). While traditionally, educators are expected to provide safe, supportive and caring learning spaces for students, some educational theorists suggest that if educators seek to disrupt oppression, they must call on students to step outside of their comfort zones to acknowledge and question how one’s privilege implicates one in the oppression of others (i.e. Boler, 1999; Kumashiro 2000, 2002, 2004a, 2004b; Felman & Laub, 1992; Felman, 1995). Pedagogy of discomfort has been considered a powerful pedagogical tool that prompts action, because teachers and students can utilize their discomfort to construct new emotional understandings into ways of living with others (Boler & Zembylas, 2003). To this end, educators must work with their own discomforts to ensure they don’t hinder pedagogical responses to injustice and conflict in the classroom (Boler, 2004). One may wonder, then, how we can make the learner comfortable and uncomfortable at the same time. Accepting that discomfort is part of growth and learning to relax into the adventure of learning is vital (Joyce et al., 2015). A simultaneously comfortable and uncomfortable space can be facilitated, as the classroom becomes a pedagogical site where students are engaged in equitable, communicative spaces for dialogues and respectful negotiations among multiple subjectivities and truths (Healy & Leonard, 2002; Nagda et al., 1999; Rossiter, 1996). Listening, then, is another significant element in the pursuit of learning and social justice (Wong, 2004). As we consider the pedagogical effects of discomfort we must proceed with some caution. It has been noted that the effectiveness of discomfort as a pedagogical tool is threatened when ‘troubled knowledge’ (Jansen, 2009) enters the scene, as it happens in the context of ethnic conflict and historical trauma in societies such as those of Cyprus, Israel and Northern Ireland (Zembylas & McGlynn, 2012).

As pedagogy of discomfort does not tell us how much discomfort is adequate to prompt change, the construct of historical consciousness and our response to conflict can be useful in understanding what kind of disruption, growth, and moving out of one’s comfort zone has occurred. Developing feelings of empathy, agency and moral judgment is part of historical consciousness. Historical consciousness is defined as the remembered past (Lukacs, 2009) or as the understanding of how our understanding of the past shapes our sense of the present and the future (Seixas, 2004). One way to understand historical consciousness is by looking at how it intersects with public memory, citizenship, and history education (Seixas, 2006). Exploring the link between the past, present, and future
is critical in teaching and learning history and it typifies the idea of historical consciousness. Cultivating historical consciousness using pedagogy of discomfort in contexts similar to that of Cyprus is vital to help democratize history and understand political injustices. Researchers argued that if we want to shift priorities from content to action in history education we need to teach students skills that are integral for negotiating our multinational, pluralist society, placing emphasis on "second-order concepts" (Seixas, 2006). Second-order concepts are elements that shape historical consciousness and they include evidence, significance, continuity and change, progress and decline, empathy and perspective taking, moral judgment, and agency.

The typology of ten possible teaching approaches about war and conflict and responses to them includes hate curriculum, defense curriculum, stereotypes and allegiances, war as routine, omission from discussion, tolerance, personal conflict resolution, education for humanitarian law, dialogue and encounter, and action to challenge violence (Davies, 2005). The typology forms a bended continuum and it is based on the direct and deliberate ways teachers and schools teach, or do not teach, about conflict, and which of these are likely to be negative or positive in terms of the likelihood to contribute to peace. Both negative and positive conflicts, the two poles, carry the likelihood of action or active response as a result of the teaching and learning. There are always risks involved with both of them. The least risky conflict would be a passive response, located at the bottom of the curve.

The common thread of the three frameworks, pedagogy of discomfort, historical consciousness, and a typology of teaching about conflict, is the spaces and the possibilities they create to discuss about emotions, empathy, disruption of social injustices, the urgency to act upon an injustice, moral judgment, and doing something about a conflict.

Background of the Study

Oral history in Cyprus and the Cyprus Oral History Project Archive

Cyprus won independence from Great Britain in 1960, and has been roiled in ethnic conflict, violence, and division almost from the start, including the troubles of 1963-1967 and the 1974 Turkish invasion and subsequent occupation (Christodoulou, 2014a). For most Cypriots of every age, Cyprus still bleeds. That bleeding was the focus of COHP. Although tensions between the Greek-Cypriot and the Turkish-Cypriot side are low because of the partition, both sides remain pervaded by antagonistic biases, histories, and myths.

The Cyprus Oral History Project (COHP) took place between 2010 and 2012, and it was the first of its kind in Cyprus (Christodoulou, 2012, 2014b, 2014c). Its aim was to audio or video-record the voices and words of Cypriots of all communities—Greek-Cypriots, Turkish-Cypriots, Maronites, Armenians and Latins—and their firsthand or vicarious experiences, to capture their memories and to understand their individual meanings and perspectives regarding the 1960-1974 events, thus shedding light on their lives. The opening statement was: "Tell me your experience and memories of the events of 1960-1974."

Oral history (OHA, 2012; Ritchie, 2003) has a significant role to play and unique meaning in the context of history classes in Cyprus. Thus far, students have been taught history partially and conventionally (Papadakis, 2008). Oral
history is a method that has only recently been included in the official school curriculum. At the beginning of the school year 2013-2014 the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC) issued a memo encouraging middle grades classical studies teachers to implement small oral-history projects with their 9th grade students in the literature and history/local-history classes, with the general theme: ‘I learned from grandpa / grandma…’ (personal communication with teacher M, February 17, 2015; MOEC memo). Prior to that it was not a method officially acknowledged by the MOEC or used by teachers (Flori, 2014).

The people in the study

I am a teacher educator, a curriculum studies scholar and the coordinator and principal investigator of the COHP. I am a Greek-Cypriot woman and I come from a refugee family; fleeing from the North to the South, my family has been internally displaced since 1974. Having lost all its belongings, my family sought employment abroad in order to regain financial security and rebuild its life. My encounter with the two teachers in this study happened in the context of a student research contest in one case and a graduate work in the other.

Both teachers are female, Greek-Cypriot, classical studies secondary education teachers in public schools, qualified to teach Greek language and literature, Ancient Greek, mythology, and history. M was a teacher with six years teaching experience at the time she undertook the project. We came together in 2011 within the framework of the student research contest Students in Research (MERA)23. I was the expert researcher providing methodological guidance and supervision to the group. M and her students selected me from the MERA expert researcher list, because I was the previous year’s first-prize winner of MERA together with another group of students. During our first meeting they shared with me their thoughts on what kind of research they wanted to conduct and I introduced them to oral history, the example of the COHP, and the idea of oral history as an alternative way to commemorate the past at school. Even though Maria had heard of oral history in the past she had never used it before nor did she know about its potential in the school curriculum and benefit to the students (personal communication with teacher M, February 17, 2015).

P was a teacher with sixteen years teaching experience at the time she undertook the project. We came together in 2012 during her master's coursework when she enrolled in a graduate course I taught. I introduced them to oral history and the COHP, and the students, elementary and secondary education teachers, came across oral history for the first time. P was captivated by the idea of conducting an oral history project; she always had hoped that one day she would be able to narrate to her students her personal story relevant to the 1974 events, and she saw this as the great opportunity she was waiting for. This became her Master's thesis project. I was her thesis chair and advisor.

P was born while “Turkish bombers were bombing mercilessly and uncontrollably” (Flori, 2014, p. 114) and together with her family they abandoned their village twenty-two days after it was invaded. She visited her family house when the borders opened in April 2003. While looking for something to take back with her, the Turkish-
Cypriot woman who was living at the house opened a kitchen cupboard to show her a script at the back of the door. P recognized her mother's handwriting, *P, born July 22, 1974, Monday, 9 pm*. The idea of doing oral history project put everything in context for her.

**The teachers’ classroom work using oral history**

Both teachers used oral history; one in the context of the student research contest and the other for her master’s thesis. In both cases oral history attracted and excited students who engaged deeply and authentically in reading the stories, discussing, and initiating new projects. In the next sections I present these efforts.

**Case 1 – Student research contest group**

In 2011-2012 M together with five male and two female students, undertook an oral history project24. Phase 1 research results indicated that school celebrations of national anniversaries neither achieve the goal of developing students’ historical knowledge, understanding, consciousness or sensitivity, nor do they manage to maintain their interest while observing them (Hadjimichael, Agathokleous, Andrianos, Balta, Charalampous, Demetriou, Karavias, Panagides, & Christodoulou, 2012). In Phase 2 they explored the effectiveness of oral history as an alternative way to commemorate national anniversaries. They conducted action research using oral history and they collected evidence about the effectiveness of the method. The team focused on the upcoming national anniversary, the National Organization of Cypriot Fighters (EOKA) freedom struggle of 1955-1959. Two classes participated in the action research. The research team together with students from the two classes, which formed the ‘oral history group,’ approached the national anniversary using oral history, whereas the rest of the students observed the conventional school celebration. Students conducted a comparative analysis of the results.

The oral history group identified individuals who wanted to participate in the interviews. As they recruited participants they realized that they didn’t have to search far away from home, since the people they were looking for in most cases were their grandfathers, grandmothers, and other relatives. Simultaneously, they contacted the Association of Fighters at the Limassol district, which connected them to people who had significant contribution and active role in the freedom struggle 1955-1959. During the semi-structured interviews individuals narrated the events and their lived experiences. The interview questions were individualized as per each one’s role in the events. Thirty-seven interviews were conducted. Twenty-seven of them were video-recorded and ten were audio-recorded. The research team developed the website titled “Cypriot memories 1955-59” (https://cymnimes.wordpress.com/) to which, with the written consent of the narrators, they uploaded the interviews with some editing to enhance their overall picture and sound quality.

At the end of the school celebration of the national anniversary the research group conducted a survey, asking students “what do we celebrate today? How did the freedom struggle begin? Can you tell the names of four

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24 This oral history project was titled “School celebrations of national anniversaries and remembrance events. What do the students gain? Oral history as an alternative method for the revival of such events” and it was part of their broader work within the framework of the MERA nationwide student research contest (CRPF grant #: KOYATOYPA/MEPA/0911/35). The research project was evaluated and granted the first prize among forty-seven research projects that participated in the high school education category.
freedom fighters? How did the struggle end?” Also, the two classes who participated in the action research devoted a teaching period to watch some of the videos posted on the website and then they responded to the same survey questions. The oral history group discussed in a focus group its benefit from participating in the oral history project and the effectiveness of using oral history for acquiring and generating content knowledge. Students’ and visitors’ comments on the website were also used as research data, alongside the electronic questionnaire that accompanied it.

The seven students of the student research contest group were high achievers with excellent academic performance. They all strived high, were intrinsically motivated, and self-confident, and acknowledged that this research contest would offer them great experiences and contribute significantly toward their aim to be admitted in higher education institutions.

Case 2 – Thesis group

The thesis group implemented an oral history project in two consecutive school years 2012-2014. Participants were ninety-nine students in five classrooms. Eighty-five students were actively involved, and they were in the four classes where P taught Modern Greek Language and Literature, and fourteen just observed. There were thirty-five male and sixty-four female students, out of which seventy-six, twenty-four males and fifty-two females, were refugees.

In Year 1 there were forty-seven students from two classes, one had twenty-three and the other twenty-four students; nineteen were males and twenty-eight females. Thirty-six students, thirteen males and twenty-three females, were refugees. On the occasion of three poems about the Turkish invasion in 1974 that were in their Greek Literature curriculum, P decided to narrate to her students her personal story relevant to the 1974 period. Since many emotions were triggered as a result of this experience, and students wanted to hear more personal accounts from other people, too, P decided to keep up the project. She presented other relevant personal stories of people who lived through the events in 1974 from the COHP archive, the Cyprus Press and Information Office, and short films from the Internet. Students were not aware of the events in a detailed or substantial way, since in their history textbooks there were not personal testimonies or narratives (Flori, 2014). Following their exposure to this material, students wanted to organize a school event titled “Our occupied land and the refugees of 1974.” The students were really enthused with the idea and a number of them, mainly females, participated actively and engaged fully aiming for the event to be a success and convey the intended messages. Also, students who under other circumstances would be indifferent and disembodied were very motivated and engaged. For example, a student’s request to participate at the event was impressive and touching, as admittedly he had never recited a poem before. At the event, a captive soldier by the Turks in 1974, Mr. Katsonis, author of the book “The cigarette papers of captivity,” shared with the students his personal story. The event also included short films created by students about different occupied villages and towns in Cyprus, and relevant poems, texts and songs. Observers of this event included students from the two classes, their relatives and other guests, and fourteen guest students, eleven of whom were refugees.

In Year 2, there were thirty-eight students from two classes, one had eighteen and the other twenty students; sixteen were males and twenty-two females. Twenty-nine students, eleven males and eighteen females, were
refugees. Because it was the 40th anniversary of the Turkish invasion, the main objective of the school year was “I appreciate, I do not forget, I claim.” On this occasion, students got engaged into a series of activities and events that got them deeply engaged with oral history.

First, students got engaged with activities within their classroom and the school, which raised their awareness of oral history. Initially, in three groups students read, watched, and studied a number of oral testimonies of people in 1974: their teacher’s personal narrative about 1974, narratives from the COHP Archive, and narratives featured in a special issue of *Phileleftheros* newspaper. Students answered questions relevant to the narratives, and they orally expressed their emotions and views in regards to how the narrators felt. After thorough discussions they put in writing their emotions, thoughts, and reflections about the testimonies they read and heard, collectively and individually. Then they read from their textbook about the missing persons in 1974; they watched a documentary about the same topic; they watched another documentary produced by the local TV station Sigma about the collective tomb in occupied Afania, a village in the Famagusta district of Cyprus; and they watched a video their teacher prepared. After these experiences the teacher referred to the notion of oral history and its meaning. As the students encountered the term *oral history* for the first time, they became really interested in collecting the personal stories and testimonies of their refugee relatives, and photographs capturing the events of 1974. Students wanted to set up a bulletin board devoted to the 1974 events with a particular emphasis on peoples’ personal stories and testimonies. They wanted to set it up in a common school area for other students and teachers to see, too. Finally, students read a text in their textbook about the missing persons in 1974. Alongside the analysis of the text the teacher had them listen to and watch additional testimonies relevant to the topic. Her aim was to stimulate students’ emotions and eventually help to cultivate their historical consciousness.

Second, with the students’ request they organized educational site visits. After they got permission from the principal they went together with their teacher and two other teachers to Dasaki Achnas village where in 1974 a major refugee camp was set up. They also visited the memorial that was erected to commemorate those who died in 1974 and the tragic events, and to remember the urge for freedom. Retired teacher Hadjisavvas, a first year teacher in 1974 who at the time taught at the refugee camp in Dasaki Achnas, narrated to them his personal experiences as a teacher in 1974; he focused on the efforts of teachers and students to teach and learn, and the difficult moments they went through. Students had the opportunity to express their views and ask questions about the difficult conditions students lived in after the invasion. Students’ interest in listening to, and their engagement during the narration was unprecedented; most of them heard such testimonies for the first time. Then, driving alongside the Achna-Vrysoules confrontation line, they had the opportunity to see the occupied village Achna, the Turkish outposts, and the abandoned and ruined houses and churches, before arriving at the Famagusta Cultural Center in Deryneia. At the Cultural Center, students had the opportunity to watch a short documentary about Varosha, discuss with its director about the current situation in Famagusta, and see Famagusta from very close. Seeing Famagusta, students expressed their complaint, wonder, and bitterness: “why is this city and place always treated so unfairly and is deprived of freedom; the most precious commodity humans have?” (Flori, 2014, pp. 35-36). The students’ visit was concluded “wishing for Cyprus to be free soon, so that we are able to visit Famagusta

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25 Varosha is a ghost town and the southern section of the Cypriot city of Famagusta, which is under the de facto control of Northern Cyprus, since the Turkish invasion of Cyprus in 1974. During its heyday, Varosha was one of the most popular tourist destinations in the world.
and other occupied sites freely without limitations set by boundaries, occupation troops, and barbed wires" (students, p. 36).

Finally, the entire project was concluded with a capstone activity the teacher organized. It was a short video she created for her students. It began with a window opening toward Pentadaktylos mountain²⁶, focusing on the Turkish flag. Through images and photographs she unfolded the brutality of the war from the beginning to the end, from how the invasion started to the way it ended with all its catastrophic consequences. The last image showed the window opening toward Pentadaktylos again, yet this time there was the Cypriot flag waving on the mountain, which she achieved by manipulating the image. "I wanted to use images to illustrate the brutality of the war, because images leave marks on students, and they depict the happenings more vividly" (personal communication with teacher P, November 27, 2013). After screening the video a student told her, "Ma’am I am surprised because this is the future; it is what we, the new generation, want to achieve in our country and you just demonstrated it to us on this slide… I would very much like to see this happening while I am still young, rather than years later when I will be old" (personal communication with teacher P, November 27, 2013).

Students’ academic performance in Year 1 ranged from excellent to weak in one class and mostly excellent in the other. Students’ academic performance in Year 2 ranged from average to excellent. The characteristics that synthesized the students’ profile were passion and curiosity to hear their loved-ones’ personal stories relevant to 1974, after they heard their teacher’s personal story, and share them with the student community; good organizational skills, self-confidence and self-esteem; good critical thinking and communication skills; engaging in evidence-based arguments; and great interest and urge to investigate and learn about, and express their viewpoints on various dimensions of history and historic events in Greece, Cyprus, and the World War II. Some of them also had rigid viewpoints about the events of 1974 due to their political beliefs and because their parents were members of political parties.

Methodology

I used ethnographic and case study methods to focus on the shared culture of the groups, and interpreted the shared and learned patterns of values, behaviors, beliefs, and language (Creswell, 2013). The interviews I conducted with the teachers and the students from the research contest group and the thesis group, served as my primary data, and sources the teachers and students gathered and processed for their student research project report and master’s thesis served as my secondary data. Data analysis aimed at illuminating particular aspects of teachers’ classroom work and pedagogical possibilities of oral history within the particular educational settings. I examined how the students and teachers encountered stories they hadn’t heard of before, and their responses in learning historical events using oral history. The wording that participants depicted in their written and oral responses was particularly important. I analyzed the what and how (Anderson & Jack, 1991; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006; Portelli, 1997, 2011) students and teachers emphasized in their discussions, reflections, and responses to the interviews and the questionnaires. The happenings in the classrooms were also examined; I looked for elements that allowed for the creation of pedagogical spaces, and encouraged students’ active responses and

²⁶ Pentadaktylos is another name for the Kyrenia Mountains, and also often referred to its “western portion.” Pentadaktylos, meaning “five-fingered,” is so-named after one of its most distinguishing features, a peak that resembles five fingers.

Findings

Findings allowed for the generation of themes and ideas relevant to moving out of one’s comfort zone and the creation of pedagogical spaces, interactions, and disruptions. These themes and ideas are presented below.

Student realizations and emerging emotions

Undertaking an oral history project was an eye-opening experience for the students. It was “something different than what we were doing for so many years in school… We had the opportunity to hear the events from people who lived them, and share feelings with them” (freshman female student, Case 1). The students showed great interest. “They told me that one can really learn many things through oral history; it is more immediate comparing to the conventional history” (teacher, Case 2). Students realized that history was still alive and they did not have to search far for it. It was “in our own homes and…we didn’t know it… Most of us interviewed our grandfathers and grandmothers who lived during, and often had a significant contribution to, the [1955-1959] fight” (freshman male student, Case 1).

Almost half of the students, in Case 2, said that they were deeply moved by the captive soldier’s life story, who narrated it to them at the school event they organized; simultaneously, it awoke their desire to return to their occupied land. In particular, students said, “...through the narration I realized the hardships of war… Deep down my soul I felt an intense anger and rage for all that the Turks instigated to our country” (female student ST, Case 2); “…For the first time I felt intensely the feeling of hatred for the enemies of my country who violate the rights of its people” (male student TH, Case 2).

Students described their encounter with the former soldier/captive as a mind-blowing experience, which generated conflicting feelings: “I was so moved… The event touched deep my soul, as simultaneously I felt content, because it was the first time I watched such an event with live testimonies, and vivid audiovisual documentation for 1974” (female student E, Case 2). “It was shocking for me, because it was the first time I confronted the real dimension of the historical events of my country. When reading about them in books you don’t feel anything, but when you hear about them from people who lived them they remain indelibly carved in soul and mind” (female student O, Case 2).

Desire, nostalgia and sadness were some other emotions students felt. “I felt a strong desire for all refugees to return to their homes and their property, a matter that didn’t interest me so much previously” (male student S, Case 2). “…I felt sorry for the existing situation at my country and the desire to live at my grandparents’ [occupied] home, which I got to know through their daily remembrances of it” (female student Z, Case 2). “I felt nostalgia and longing to become acquainted with all these beautiful places that we got to see [and hear about] at the event” (female student L, Case 2). “…My feelings became more intense, awakening in me the desire to get back all that which belong to us” (female student P, Case 2). “I felt bitterness, anger, resentment and a huge why we, the new
generation, live in an occupied country” (female student D, Case 2). “I felt sadness, because 39 years later, and our country is still divided” (female student G, Case 2). “I felt disappointment...because in our own place neither can we move freely, nor can we stay in our homes and properties” (male student F, Case 2).

Feeling shame and placing the responsibility and power to change things on them was also noteworthy in few students’ comments: “I feel shame about how this place used to be, and how we degraded it. Simultaneously, I was confronted with the turmoil of the war and its consequences on the people of this tortured land, strongly feeling a sense of shame” (male student X, Case 2). “…I realized that as young people of this tortured country, we should not give up the effort to return to our occupied land” (male student H, Case 2).

**Spaces: dimensions, listening, imagining**

While the teacher in Case 2 wanted “to just charge the students emotionally, ultimately aiming to the cultivation of their historical consciousness” (teacher, Case 2), many other important things started happening. In Case 2 hearing the teacher’s autobiographical excerpt was momentous. Students said that listening to her testimony was more interesting than doing history in the traditional, teacher-centered way. A student said that although previously indifferent to history as a subject matter, learning historical events through testimonies became the best lesson for him. The teacher (Case 2) described the renewed attitude of a student toward history class: “he didn’t used to like history at all. [The student confessed to me that] ‘it was one of my worst subjects and I used to hate it, because I considered it to be so boring; I was so indifferent to it. But as of today, due to how we did the lesson, it was my best class ever.’” Another student with particular political beliefs “told me during the recess that, ‘ultimately it seems that oral history is that part of history which does not blind or divide people, but rather it shows them the real path of history’” (teacher, Case 2).

The students illustrated great interest toward oral history. As they strived to learn more about the particular historical events, they delved into reading various materials, including testimonies, and into discussions. Simultaneously, they argued that for the first time they had the opportunity to express their concerns on the matter of the invasion of Cyprus (Case 1) and the 1955-1959 freedom fight (Case 2). They said that there was immediacy, opportunity to get in touch with reality, and presentation of the events through testimonies, which set the ground for the development of historical consciousness, “while learning became more active and essential” (students, Case 2), and authentic. “…I came in touch with reality, I learned a lot, I became wiser, since I had never heard what I heard, perhaps because I am not a refugee, or even because the school textbooks and the curriculum want to keep us, the youth, ‘blind’ and away from reality” (female student N, Case 2). Students said that they gained “[...] historical knowledge... We had the opportunity to hear about things and situations we didn’t know” (female student Y, female student P, male student C, female student M, Case 2). As they argued, they gained “… experiences, many experiences... It was an event that was piercing your bones and seeping into your soul... I would take part again and again in such an event [and project]” (male student A, female student I, Case 2).

Students were able to envision new projects. From organizing experiential workshops with and about “refugees, people who were soldiers in 1974, and people who have lost their loved ones during the invasion” and “with great involvement of young people” (male student A, female student I, Case 2), to events about and with “the enclave
children of Rizokarpaso\textsuperscript{27}, our hero-peers... [to] be observed by the entire student body of our school” (female student Y, female student P, male student C, female student M, Case 2), to events about “the Asia Minor refugees, because the conditions and the experiences they lived were the same as that of our own refugees in 1974...[with] wide participation of ordinary people [in the community]” (female student N, Case 2).

The participation of the students in the projects gave them the space to form collaborations and important relationships in ways that they wouldn’t have the opportunity to do if it wasn’t for the project. Students in Case 1 reported that, “through this research, we were given the opportunity to develop a real and genuine communication amongst us and with our teacher who was constantly by our side.” It was “a communication not suffocated in the tight teacher-student relationship, and which wouldn’t have flourished under other circumstances.” As they said, “hadn’t we undertaken this research, these relationships wouldn’t have been the same...” (Hadjimichael et al., 2012, p. 20)

The students described how they felt... “During our involvement with this research, we felt the magic a research process encompasses; a magic glorified in the following passage, which really echoes what we experienced in the past six months” (Hadjimichael et al., 2012, p. 20). Following is the excerpt that the students felt it encapsulated their experience:

\begin{quote}
The decision and the attempt to understand other people and try to talk about them, makes us already different, we ourselves have changed... We met people who are possessed by a more or less different perception of the world and tried, breaking the surface, to hear words not uttered, to understand behind the words and facts, the substance and depth of things... To succeed, we did not always require proof, but often signs and gestures, which in our everyday life we would have overtook, not even seen... We, then, have learned to listen and feel (Lidakis, 2001, pp. 232-233).
\end{quote}

\textbf{Getting into the unknown: fully or partially and why?}

In both projects teachers and students came across a multitude of different stories. Besides students, teachers, too—not only those who got involved, but also those who just observed—were thrilled with the new, oral history, method they implemented in their curriculum, because they recognized its effectiveness.

Inspired by the COHP both teachers started using oral history regularly, in the integrated curriculum and in various school events, since our first collaboration (personal communication with teacher M, February 17, 2015; personal communication with teacher P, April 7, 2015). The breadth and depth of the activities the teachers got involved into is worth examining and discussing. On the one hand, the teachers mainly placed emphasis on informing, awakening and inspiring emotions through the collection of stories. The analysis of the stories mainly focused on feelings. They did not choose, or consider, taking up any challenging situation, even if it is part of students’ everyday reality. For example, one dimension omitted was Turkish-Cypriots’ stories, ideology, and politics. As P said,

\begin{quote}
27 Rizokarpaso is one of the largest towns on the Karpass Peninsula in the northeastern part of Cyprus. While nominally part of the Famagusta District of the Republic of Cyprus, it has been under the de facto control of Northern Cyprus since the partition of the island in 1974.
\end{quote}
I didn’t think about [about focusing on something else]… We only dealt with [students’] own feelings and those of the people whose testimonies we heard or read. Had we had time we could have dealt with many other issues… I could have students get into the position of these people. That is, to get into that role, so that in trying to revive the events to realize that they themselves could have been part of that history (interview with teacher Case 2 after the completion of the project).

Teacher P acknowledged that the scope of stories read and gathered was narrowed down, because it was a bit risky to allow politics to get involved. She repeated many times that her aim was not to grow fanaticism or to divide the students, but to give them the opportunity to see the events through the eyes and the experiences of the people who lived them:

We talked about the events of 1963-1964, but not as extensively. We focused mostly on the events of 1974. There were students who wanted to refer specifically to Turkish Cypriots, indeed. But, I didn’t want to take the risk… I didn’t want to divide, basically, to develop a climate of discord and fanaticism [in the classroom], because students nowadays are quite fanatics (Teacher P).

On the other hand, time restrictions and the overwhelming feelings associated with the experiencing of deep, personal, ineffable, affective, and often painful testimonies for the first time, did not leave much space either for discussion or to deal with conflict. Because the students “hadn’t heard these stories, events and testimonies before, or at least they hadn’t experienced them to this degree, they were not really in a position to disagree, but rather they were curious to listen, and… do… something new on this issue… every day” (Teacher P).

**Taking the risk or playing safe?**

Delving into the events through people’s stories, helping students to become familiar with these stories and events, and stimulating emotions using a new method that was outside their comfort zone, was a risk the two teachers took. Evidently, this was important and their accomplishment to highly engage students into the activities was great. But why didn’t teachers go further and deeper? How difficult would it be for them to help students start expanding the circle of what’s familiar and of what’s within the acceptable zone of knowing and comfort?

Teacher P talked about the key role of the teacher:

I think that… the teacher plays a key role. If I, myself, was psychologically prepared to face both ideologies [left and right], and if we were not at the school context and we had another kind of debate, we could do it… at its full range, and some who are politically biased and one-sided could be encouraged to set limits [to their blinded perspectives]. However, in this case, I was not psychologically ready to undertake this task, especially in a class with students with very extreme opinions at both ends [left and right]… I did not want to provoke any situations. I chose not to risk it so much.

Although both teachers wanted to cultivate students’ historical consciousness, they only explored the Greek-Cypriot community’s stories. In both cases, the range of their exploration was narrowed down; teachers and students moved within a socially, politically, ideologically and ethnically safe space, although this limited them. Generally, when teachers attempt to use approaches new to them they may experience “considerable discomfort”
Practices and discourses

(Joyce et al., 2015, p. 367). When dealing with new, traditionally untouched and sometimes ineffable ideas, which may also be controversial, the discomfort teachers experience may be even more intense. Flexibility and openness appear to be key-traits for the teachers to take risks and change a situation, because “the more conceptually flexible teachers… [can manage] the process of discomfort more effectively” (p. 368).

Although remaining on the safe side, teachers still managed to face some of their discomfort and go beyond their conventional teaching. Oral history created a comfort zone within an uncomfortable and risky space. As P said, “I think I was very lucky with the students I taught these two years, because I managed to convey…things I had in my mind for a long time, but I couldn’t…do it before. Perhaps for fear of how the students would react, but also due to the fact that I did not deal so much with oral history before.”

Conclusive remarks: Toward a pedagogy of discomfort

Evidently, both teachers using oral history expanded their usual work beyond what they could have hoped for. The attempt, including the projects and the kind of learning that happened to the students and the teachers, was worthwhile. Yet, a central question remains, that is, what else could they have accomplished had they overcome their biases, stopped emphasizing sentiment, and started taking the risk?

The teachers’ discomfort worked as a delimiting factor in both cases. Both of them implemented a method that was inherently risky, because it stimulated emotions; yet they avoided or did not consider addressing controversial dimensions. They moved within boundaries, omitting the unknown from the discussion. Although P acknowledged this fact explicitly, M wasn’t so explicit about it, partly, because I didn’t ask her directly, and partly, because it wasn’t in her radar. According to the literature, conflict can be omitted from the curriculum “in order not to ‘inflame’ or cement attitudes” (Davies, 2005, p. 24). Usually only a minority of teachers is comfortable about dealing with issues related to conflict (Smyth et al., 2000; Arlow, 2004).

In the two cases, pedagogy of discomfort related mostly with the stimulation of emotions. Yet, to help students become agents of change, with historical consciousness that leads to agency (Seixas, 2006), and engage into action to challenge violence (Davies, 2005) or injustice, pedagogy of discomfort must be more than merely inspiring emotions (Zembylas & McGlynn, 2012; Zembylas, 2008a, 2008b; Zembylas & Chubbuck, 2009). The urgency to act is entailed in both teaching the conflict and cultivating historical consciousness; it can be enacted as action to challenge violence, which is the ultimate active and positive response to the conflict (Davies, 2005), and as agency (Seixas, 2006), respectively.

Evidently, oral history can make students and teachers think differently. Embodying a grassroots language and being a supplement to official history, it becomes a dynamic way of teaching sensitive issues. It also raises discomfort, which prompts students and teachers to question a variety of cherished values and beliefs (Boler, 2004). Yet, a right approach is needed in applying oral history in school classrooms so that testimonies, witnessing, embodiment, imagination, and the opportunity to rethink experiences anew, and become agents of action and creativity prevail. Davies (2005) and Seixas (2006) show that the way to action is a process. We need to transcend emotions, but we also need to start from them, and strategically pass through the subsequent phases. A culture of oral history that moves people along all phases, from passivity to action and from blaming to taking responsibility, is necessary.
A step by step process, then, is important in teaching the conflict and about injustices, beginning from appreciating and reading narratives, and progressing to challenge what students know, or they think they know, and how what they know can be enriched or contrasted with the personal stories they encounter. History, oral or conventional, can be used to inform thinking about contemporary problems, to unsettle and settle questions, and to provide a broader and deeper context for preserving what is good from the past, interpreting the present, and anticipating future alternatives (Tyack, 2004; Dupont, 2005). The use of various analytic ways to interpret and understand oral history research data, and to analyze what important historical events and moments can tell (Anderson & Jack, 1991; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006; Portelli, 1997, 2011), may help teachers to overcome partial use of oral history, fear of risk, and use reason over sentiment, aiming to fully embrace its pedagogical, political and social dimensions (Davies, 2005).

Taking the extra step to use pedagogy of discomfort is important in Cyprus, and in similar contexts, in order to democratize history and understand political injustices, as simultaneously, the ‘collateral effects’ of discomfort (Zembylas & McGlynn, 2012), and the cultural and political setting are considered. Oral history is currently more relevant than ever in Cyprus where with the new pro-solution Turkish Cypriot leader and the re-launching of the negotiations, new dynamics are evolving for a solution. Oral history can be a venue toward trust, mutual understanding, and eliminating antagonism between groups. While experiencing discomfort, it may enable students to face reality, act, and break the broader discomfort that is silenced for years. The more students realize that they, too, are part of this protracted situation, which is not only a matter of fate, and any potential solution is doomed to fail without their participation, the more they may start taking action.

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**Educational terminology misusage by professors in nursing undergraduation: Review**

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It is known that there are many dilemmas involving teaching in higher education. In health, there is strong influence of biological teaching models in which humanistic concerns are disregarded. Knowing that the processes of teaching-learning are influenced by educational philosophies of various origins, how is it possible to take the challenge of assisting the construction of a Health System without sufficient tools to understand and operationalize teaching methodologies for preparing critical-reflective, autonomous, conscious, and committed professionals to help consolidate the Brazilian Unified Heath System? This study aimed to discover which pedagogical trends have permeated the educational conceptions and practices of nurse-professors in the teaching and learning process of Brazilian nursing undergraduates. Thus, this research is based on a systematic review of the scientific literature. Results showed positive and negative situations in relation to nurse-professors’ pedagogical approaches and conceptions. It is perceived great use of educational terminology without deep discussions to understand them, resulting in indiscriminate use of terms to refer to the teaching performance - which often do not match the conceptual usage. At the end of the study, conclusions show that the pedagogical trends end up being a
reproduction of incoherent practices of nurse-professors, corresponding to those basic education experiences of teaching practices.

Introduction

It is known that there are many dilemmas involving teaching in higher education, especially when there are not enough incentives to promote this concern.

One of the problems, according to some researchers, is that there is poor or insufficient investment in higher education professors’ pedagogical preparation (Pimenta, 2005; Pimenta & Almeida, 2011; Pimenta & Anastasiou, 2010), even during post-graduation there aren’t enough hours of pedagogical studies (Scorzoni, 2013), nor pedagogical practices.

In health, there is strong influence of biological teaching models in which humanistic concerns are disregarded. In this sense, there has always been ideological conflicts in Higher Education.

In Brazil, higher education in health has a especial specificity, that is, the education of critical and reflective health professionals in order to help consolidate the Unified Health System (SUS) (Franco & Merhy, 2000; Pereira, 2003). SUS was conquered after a lot of ideological arguments and struggles in 1990 (BRASIL, 1990), and was thought to put into practice the concept of health as a human right, included and defended in the Brazilian Federal Constitution of 1988 (BRASIL, 1988), and it still faces opposing barriers in its implementation due to some political movements against it.

Despite the ideological conflicts, SUS is a nationwide health state policy, and has philosophical and organizational principles and guidelines for its conceptualization, implementation and operationalization. These principles are: universal access, comprehensiveness in assisting and caring for individuals, equity in the distribution of health resources, participation and control by the society, regionalization, decentralization etc. (BRASIL, 1990)

With such a challenge of preparing professionals to work at and to help implement SUS, some researchers claimed for the re-discussion of the curricula of universities (Opitz, Martins, Telles Filho, Silva, & Teixeira, 2008) (almost all based on traditional methodologies), arguing that for working in SUS perspective, given the ideological conflicting scenario, professionals should be prepared to be critical-reflective (Chirelli, 2002), as well as committed, responsible, ethical and autonomous, having the principles of SUS as educational guidelines (Motta, Buss, & Nunes, 2004).

Although there is the necessity for this specific education of health professionals, how is it possible to manage the pedagogical unpreparedness of most university professors, who receive almost exclusive scientific preparation (Scorzoni, 2013)?

Knowing that the processes of teaching and learning are influenced by educational philosophies of various origins, intentions and interests - how is it possible to take the challenge of assisting the construction of a Health System without sufficient pedagogical knowledge to understand and to operationalize teaching/learning methodologies for preparing critical-reflective, autonomous, conscious, and committed professionals to help consolidate the Brazilian Unified Heath System (SUS)?
In order to check the situation of pedagogical unpreparedness of university professors in nursing education, this study aimed at analyzing papers concerning educational matters in nursing education, verifying the usage of specific terminology of Education.

**Methods**

This research is based on a systematic review of the scientific literature conducted to find the pedagogical trends in nursing higher education, accomplished in December of 2014. Part of the results were reinterpreted from another perspective, thematically reviewing the findings, focusing on the educational terminology usage.

The search was made in two important local databases LILACS and BDENF. LILACS (Latin American and Caribbean Health Sciences Literature) represents a bibliographic index of scientific and technical production in the health area with great potential for Brazilian publications on university teaching. This database reached 541.71 million bibliographic records of articles published in 825 journals in health science in 2011 (Packer, Tardelli, & Castro, 2007). BDENF consists of references of the Brazilian technical and scientific literature in nursing. It was designed by the team of J. Baeta Viana Library of Federal University of Minas Gerais and had its first number printed in 1992, with 2610 records entered (Malerbo, 2011).

Search paths and results are shown in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DATABASE</th>
<th>SEARCH PATHS</th>
<th>ARTICLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LILACS</td>
<td>&quot;educacao em enfermagem&quot; [Descritor de assunto] and ( ( &quot;FORMACAO&quot; ) or &quot;METODOLOGIA&quot; ) or &quot;DOCENTE DE ENFERMAGEM&quot; [Palavras] and &quot;2007&quot; or &quot;2008&quot; or &quot;2009&quot; or &quot;2010&quot; or &quot;2011&quot; or &quot;2012&quot; or &quot;2013&quot; or &quot;2014&quot; [Pais, ano de publicação]</td>
<td>425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BDENF</td>
<td>&quot;educacao em enfermagem&quot; [Descritor de assunto] and ( ( &quot;FORMACAO&quot; ) or &quot;METODOLOGIA&quot; ) or &quot;DOCENTE DE ENFERMAGEM&quot; [Palavras] and &quot;2007&quot; or &quot;2008&quot; or &quot;2009&quot; or &quot;2010&quot; or &quot;2011&quot; or &quot;2012&quot; or &quot;2013&quot; or &quot;2014&quot; [Pais, ano de publicação]</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>680</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 31: Search paths and results

The selection procedures followed the steps: first selection by reading the title, second selection by reading the abstract, and final selection by reading the full article (Barroso et al., 2003). The selection criteria were: articles published within 2007-2014, containing words related to educational matters in nursing education, and that also contained direct speeches of university nurse-professors. After achieving the total number of selected articles, each of them were submitted to the JBI QARI Critical Appraisal Checklist for Interpretive & Critical Research (JBI, 2008). The partial sample consisted of 20 articles. There were an extra step for looking at the 20 articles references and
trying to find other articles that were not contemplated by the search strategy. The articles found were also submitted to the same selection procedures. The final sample read consisted of 21 articles, from these only 06 contained significant content for this study.

The articles were read and all relevant excerpts were extracted and imported to an analysing table in Microsoft Excel. Excerpts were thematically analysed, and the terminology cited in each of them was compared to its theoretical correspondence.

**Findings and discussion**

Results showed great usage of educational terminology vaguely or without deep discussions to understand them, resulting in indiscriminate usage of terms to refer to the teaching-learning performance - which often do not match their theoretical correspondence. The following excerpts were translated from Portuguese to English to facilitate the understanding, but the original can be found in the corresponding article. Some themes will be used to organize this section.

### 3.1. Banking Education X Critical Education:

One of the excerpts found in this study shows the ideological decharacterization of both trends: the banking/traditional education and the critical education:

> In this regard, the parties understand that the teaching based on only [emphasis added] in the traditional approach no longer meets the current needs and the teachers have to allow students to develop their questioning, discussion, analysis and knowledge building skills (Rodrigues & Mendes Sobrinho, 2008).

The way this individual placed the speech, showed the belief that it is possible to have both ideologies conducting education at the same time. Freire is very clear when he stated that it was necessary to abandon the banking education, in favor of a critical and emancipatory education, in order to liberate students from the control of the oppressor (Freire, 2011a, 2011b). Thus, the narrative, passivating, transmitting methodologies carry an ideology, defining the referentials of world, of society, of human being, that are desired for a whole system to exist: in simple and restricted words, a passive human being, a controlled society and a hierarchized world. In contrast to the banking education ideology, Freire suggests a critical, reflective, active human being, who can problematize the societal and world organization, having new proposals for a more equal existence in this planet. Nonetheless, when this individual affirms in the excerpt above, maybe unconsciously, the co-existence of these two ideologies concomitantly, it shows lack of political-pedagogical understanding of each of them.

### 3.2. Humanism X Behaviorism:

The following excerpts show the miscomprehension of the terms "stimulus" and "seeing the human being as a whole", when it comes to Education. These terms refer to learning approaches that come from different ideologies: behaviorism and humanism, respectively:
... nowadays many professors still see as the most important the **stimulus** [emphasis added] for the student to acquire the ability to do. I do not criticize them, because nurses need to have the **technical expertise** [emphasis added], but their action should not be restricted to the technical dimension. Nurses must learn to ‘see’ the human being as a whole [...] (Guimarães, Viana, Matos, Carvalho, & Baroni, 2013).

"The stimulus is important for the learner to get the skills for learning to do [...], because nurses need the technical competence" (Guimarães & Viana, 2011).

Behaviorism is an educational trend wherein the stimulus and the response guide the pedagogical practice. The professor provides students with stimulus, and the latter perform responses to each stimulus. This means that learning is confined to controlling individuals' behaviors - the good behaviors should be praised and maintained, while badly-considered behaviors should be punished and avoided (Moreira, 2011). Humanism is an educational trend that places the human being in central position, as the individual in the learning process. It considers all pedagogical practices that provoke the individuals to learn comprehensively, being the protagonists and conscious of the learning process (Moreira, 2011).

These two learning theories are contrasting ones. They do not fit together, because they propose opposite ways of promoting learning. Behaviorism asserts learning comes from controlling behaviors through stimuli, whereas humanism seeks for a comprehensive awareness of one's learning process, by having learners in the center of the learning process.

When this person relates "stimulus" to the learning of technical skills/competences or the ability to do, he/she is reducing the learning of procedural content to the behaviorist theory, and proposing that this is acceptable if it happens together with a process of seeing the others as a whole, that is, this person is affirming that it is possible to associate two contradictory theories in the same learning process. Is it possible or there is terminology misunderstanding or miscomprehension in this affirmation above?

3.3. Traditional Theory Masked As 'Critical' Strategies:

In professors' discourse, words related to active and critical methodologies, such as "search for solutions", "reflect upon the problems", "propose solutions", happen frequently, but looking through the following excerpt, it is possible to see that attached to these words, there are other words, such as "give to the students", that translate the real actions, thoughts and attitudes performed by professors, closely related to a transmitting pedagogy:

"[...] this is the differential, to give to the students this competence to search, to solve their deficiencies, to sharpen their skills, to find solutions, to find problems, to reflect upon the problems, to propose solutions and to go after them" (Rodrigues & Mantovani, 2007).

It is common that professors tend to reproduce education based on their previous experiences they had in basic education (Benedito, Ferrer, & Ferreres, 1996), because all of them are highly influenced by traditional practices, although they have been trying to implement more active and critical education.
It is clear to see that professors change words, and sometimes even change methods/strategies, but if the ultimate educational goals remain the same, they cannot see students' achievement when assessing learning, and they tend to give these strategies up, or even use the misevaluated results to assure that critical pedagogy does not work:

"[...] what I do not understand is the great critique that many students make against some professors (...) they do not collaborate for the utilization of new ideologies. I have tried hard to use facilitating methodologies. I had 10% of success"(Teófilo & Dias, 2009).

Professors also affirm that students do not participate or collaborate in the execution of new methods, and say that students stay quiet and do not help to implement them, showing an ideological emptying of the understanding of the active critical pedagogy. Sometimes it seems they have changed the terminology but the structures remained unaltered:

"The students are the ones who have to change their position in class. Because there is no use in bringing a class focused on the students if they stay still like mummies, that is, they show little expression, participation "(Teófilo & Dias, 2009).

However, one must understand that when opting for the active methodologies, students should be provided with the main role in the teaching-learning process, by encouraging them to assume more active positions in class, allowing them to opine freely during discussions, to practice their leadership, skills and attitudes. Therefore, the development of critical and reflective thinking is promoted when the student is actively co-responsible and co-participant in the teaching-learning process(COVIZZI & LOPES-DE ANDRADE, 2012). It is a process; so, it is a long term investment.

3.4. Problem-Based Learning (Pbl) X Freire's Problematization:

Another common misunderstanding among professors in higher education in the health area is confusing PBL with Freire's Problematization. So, one should pay special attention to the ideological origins of the references of active methodologies. Currently, there are at least two active methodologies that have excelled in teaching in nursing higher education: the Problem-Based Learning (PBL) and Freire's Problematization.

Problem Based Learning (PBL) seeks to address, in an integrated way, the learning contents, which are pre-selected and organized, for example, in case studies, from which students study, discuss, construct and reconstruct their knowledge, actively and participatively, in order to develop autonomy. Thus, the professor acts as a facilitator in the teaching-learning process(Iochida, 2004).

In Freire's Problematization, the problem is not offered previously to students, but in interaction with them, professors and students problematize the immediate reality, discovering the real problems, in order to study them and to elaborate possible solutions and implementations to them. This requires involvement, engagement and active participation, through a constant dialogical and democratical relationship between educators and students, reaching over after this process a real and meaningful learning not restricted to scientifically systematized knowledge(Bordenave & Pereira, 2010; Sobral & Campos, 2012). This is observed in the following excerpt:
I adore teaching through problematization; so, I use case studies and within them I ask students to say how they would act. Then, teaching occurs through the technique of problematization and they (students) love, because they say they learn much more than only doing a technicistic stuff (Madeira & Lima, 2008).

Conclusion

It is visible the superficial understanding professors in nursing education have of educational terminology. In order to change this situation, researchers affirm that university professors need to enrol in a movement of permanent pedagogical preparation, especially forming network with other professors. The permanent movement provides professors with sufficient contextualized theoretical-methodological-evaluation approaches for education, provoking them to sense and overcome implementational barriers and political-ideological conflicts, possibly resulting in significant and meaningful shared learning (Doris Pires Vargas Bolzan, 2008; D P V Bolzan, 2009; Doris Pires Vargas. Bolzan & Isaia, 2010; D P V Bolzan & Powaczuk, 2013; Isaia, Bolzan, & Maciel, 2009).

At the end of the study, it is possible to infer that the use of pedagogical terminology in nursing education end up being a reproduction of thoughtless practices of nurse-professors, corresponding to those experienced teaching practices they had during their own basic education. Therefore, it is urgent to discuss and implement a process of permanent pedagogical formation of university professors, providing them with adequate spaces and time for performing this important role.

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The professional teaching practices transformation with reference to Telessala™ Methodology: "A case study of autonomy program from their educators biographies and narrative of life"

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The purpose of this summary is to present in the European Conference on Curriculum Studies, inside the theme practices and speeches, the research project developed in the Doctoral Program in Educational Sciences at the University of Porto, which aims to understand and analyze the changes in pedagogical practices of teachers who worked on the Autonomy Program in the state of Rio de Janeiro, between 2009 and 2014, from the use of TelessalaTM Methodology, a face proposal, mediated by a teacher who uses the books and Teleaulas for Elementary and Secondary Education from TELECURSOR.

The importance of writing on this subject came up during the last six years I worked as an educational consultant for the Roberto Marinho Foundation in projects and public policies of studies acceleration and school age correction for youth and adults of Brazilian public schools in partnership with Cities and States governments, including the Autonomy Programme, in partnership with the Education Department of Rio de Janeiro State, where I prepared professional training guidelines, realized teachers continuing education, visited school classes, interviewed school principals, register testimonials from students, registered field reports and consolidated synthesis of this visits.

In general, the TelessalaTM methodology has as theoretical assumptions a conception of education as a practice of freedom/autonomy/citizenship, from Paulo Freire's ideas (1967, 1987, 1993, 1997, 2009, 2009); a theory of learning and knowledge, based on the concepts of complexity of Edgar Morin (2002), competence of Philippe Perrenoud (2000), the proximal development zone of Lev Vygotsky (1991) and the theory of multiple intelligences of Howard Gardner (1994); a concept of transforming evaluation, according Thereza Penna Firme (1980, 2004); and a conception of teaching learning where the teacher is formed to assume the role of educational mediator.

The methodological approach being the qualitative because it is a work that seeks to understand a complex reality, the choice of case study method appears to me clearly because it is deepening a specific subject matter, the Autonomy Programme and the Methodology TelessalaTM, and I need to describe it in detail, contextualizes it, conceptualize it, and theorize it to interpret it in depth, in order to renew existing perspectives and discover new problems of education.

The main data collection instrument will be Memorials of six female teachers and their records will be crossed with contemporary accounts, obtained through semi-structured interviews and focused group discussions. As an analytical procedure will be used the content analysis technique, which aims to answer the initial question: assuming that the TelessalaTM Methodology transformed the pedagogical practices of teachers who worked in the Autonomy Program in the state of Rio de Janeiro, between the years 2009 and 2014, which contributions that this change can offer to improve teaching practices inside or outside the classroom, in regular schools or other educational settings and thus to the quantitative improvement (reduction of evasion) and qualitative (teaching and learning) of basic education.
Keywords: Telessala™ Methodology, Autonomy Program, teaching identity, alternative teaching practices, multiculturalism.

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to present in the II European Conference on Curriculum Studies, included in the theme curriculum practices and discourses, the research project developed in the Doctoral Program in Educational Sciences at the University of Porto, which aims to understand and analyse the changes in pedagogical practices of teachers who worked on the Autonomy Program in the state of Rio de Janeiro, between 2009 and 2014, from the use of Telessala™ Methodology, a face proposal, mediated by a teacher who uses the books and Teleaulas for Elementary and Secondary Education from TELECURSO®.

Are also specific objectives of this doctoral work, among others, understand and analyse how these teachers are seen and read today, as professionals and human beings, from the changes that the use of this practice has brought to his role in organizing the teaching and learning process; understand and analyse what changes, from the contact with the Telessala™ Methodology, occurred in the affirmation and transformation of their professional and personal identity; and reflect on this teaching alternative practice application possibilities in other educational settings.

The latter specific object leads to my original question, the starting point for the search: - Assuming that the Telessala™ Methodology transformed the pedagogical practices of teachers who worked in the Autonomy Program in the state of Rio de Janeiro, between the years 2009 and 2014, which contributions this change can offer to improve teaching practices inside or outside the classroom, in regular schools or other educational settings and thus to the quantitative improvement (reduction of evasion) and qualitative (teaching and learning) of basic education?

The Telessala™ Methodology

The Telessala™ methodology has as a Main Theme "An Education for Development of Being" - a holistic being, integral, not only intellectual, rational, but also affective, emotional, and putting into practice all the skills needed for the working world and for life, for coexistence between beings in a sustainable manner - that is worked over four modules - lasting one semester each, totalling two years of project, with four hours a day - every which represents a group of disciplines spread across areas of knowledge, and a Thematic Axis.

The theme of the first module Thematic Axis is "The Human Being and its expression. Who am I?" And aims to work the identity and raise self-esteem of the student. The Main Topic of the second module is "The Human Being Interacting with the space. Where am I?" And aims to learn to live with the Other. The Main Topic of the third module is "The Human Being in Action. Where am I going?" And aims to expand their horizons of expectations and future prospects; and the Main Topic of the fourth and final module is "The Human Being and their social participation. What is my mission in the world?" And aims to develop citizenship and autonomy on the student.

The educator in Telessala™ Methodology, presents itself as a mediator of learning, vision that is consistent with the thinking of many authors who defend the validity of polyvalent teachers in all areas of basic education, which
does not necessarily imply a weakening of their training on the content of curriculum subjects, but rather a strengthening of focus on its ability to promote the interconnection between the different disciplines. Therefore, contrary to what is expected in regular classes, the teacher of Telessala is not an expert, but polyvalent.

For that this teacher goes through a continuous teachers training at the beginning of each module, where it dialogues with the past experience of educators and proposes a reflection, casting a new look at the formal practices, preparing for the new challenges and for educational planning, and working the fundamentals of the pedagogical proposal, the Central Theme, the Thematic Axis and the curriculum components of the module, the teaching materials, the use of the media, the organization of educational space, the Image Reading, the operation of Teams, the writing of the Memorial, the dynamics of the classroom and the processes of learning and evaluation tools.

A pedagogical monitoring is guaranteed, which also makes up the continuous teachers training, and that is the key to ensure the quality of the process, paying permanent attention to the educational process, through technical and pedagogical meetings and classroom visits, that aims to strengthen classroom dynamics and theoretical and methodological assumptions, encouraging the achievements, seeking collective solutions to overcome the challenges identified and observing participation, interaction and integration of the students and the teacher.

According to Jacques Delors (1999) in “Educação: um Tesouro a Descobrir” (Learning: the Treasure Within), pedagogical practice must be concerned to develop four fundamental learning: learning to know, this interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary perspective; learning to do, bringing to the classroom the students’ prior knowledge, and working the subject content in context; learning to live together, respecting differences and valuing diversity; and learn to be within this holistic perspective. There are four UNESCO pillars of education, and three fundamentals of Telessala™ Methodology: Teams, Memorial and Image Reading.

The division of students by the teacher into four Teams with well-defined responsibilities, Socialization, Coordination, Synthesis and Evaluation, helps form this being righteous, world citizen, and develop a series of attitudinal contents, skills, geared towards the working world and for life. The purpose of Socialization Team is to integrate the class and raise self-esteem of the students; the purpose of the Coordination Team is to organize the classroom and care for the healthy balance of the school environment; the purpose of the Synthesis Team is to systematize the content of the lesson and keep on record the memory of the class; and the purpose of the Evaluation Team is to conduct a critical reflection and a self-evaluation of the students and the teacher.

The Image Reading is a world reading exercise on the same logic that was used in the Culture Circles and in line with what Paulo Freire (2009) in "A Importância do Ato de Ler" (The Importance of the Act of Reading), held. "We can go further and say that the word reading is not only preceded by the reading of the world but a way of "writing it" or "rewrite it", that means, to transform it through our conscious practice" (Freire, 2009, p. 20).

In Telessala™ Methodology, content starts from the previous student's knowledge, his experience and is given a fundamental importance to the work with image texts, whether static or moving, as Teleaula, aiming that the observation becomes sharpener and students develop their critical view. Better than knowing "of the world", he will know "about the world", because each one has its own vision, own version, own opinion, own values, which are transmitted, built and deconstructed from its own reality, own context.
The Memorial, more than a writing practice tool, is a critical instrument of reflection about the didactic discourse of the teacher and the student record. The Memorial is not an agenda of the day, or a notebook, is like a logbook where teacher and student report and reflect about their educational and life experiences. And it is therefore also an empowerment tool both for the teacher and the student, who will discover themselves as authors and actors of their own history.

This Memorial has a major impact on the continuing education of Telessala classroom teacher because it allows the self-evaluation of his career, by clearly identifying what, how and, above all, why does he teach. He is an authentic living record of the challenges, discoveries and advances, decision-making and choosing new paths to follow in its operations, which will allow it to grow throughout the process.

According to Madalena Freire (2010) in "Educador, educa a dor" (Educator, educates the pain), the "story maker educator" sees himself as "master of his pedagogic destiny", because the writing of the Memorial after work allows a detachment that enable reflection about their own teaching and learning process, and its exploitation in innovative practices that will make possible to solve the challenges of the contemporary classroom.

"In the conception of democratic education, the teacher is a reader, writer, researcher who makes Science of Education. Reader in the broad sense, that one who reads reality, others and himself, understanding, seeking their meanings. It is also a writer who register his pedagogical practice, asking himself about their own hypothesis" (Freire, M., 2010, p. 56).

With the intention of putting both teacher and students equally responsible for the construction of learning, Telesala Methodology™ proposes to organize the space putting the desks in a circle, in order to show the necessary flexibility needed to teaching and learning. In this space, educator and students change places, and when they are not in the big wheel, they are supposed to form small groups according to the characteristic of the activity, in order to integrate, interact, exchange, and discuss the new knowledge acquired.

"In every classroom that uses this methodology, we find people with different knowledge, arranged in a circle, talking, with the mediation of a teacher or a motivated educator and prepared to use various teaching methods in the service of socialization, individuation, and construction of student’s learning and autonomy. As a practical cooperative, educators and students materialize what Paulo Freire taught: no one educates anyone; no one educates alone, we learn all in communion". (Guimarães, 2013, p. 9).

**Research Context**

In the last decades of the twentieth century, Brazil faced a quantitative problem concerning the registration and school attendance of all Brazilian schoolchildren who, until then, although heralded as secular and free, was not universal, but rather focused on training of an intellectual elite, which only contributed to increase social inequality in the country. If we concern that the universalization of education in Brazil is a recent measure, these young people and adults have the aggravating circumstance that are students whose families, the vast majority, did not have the right to access to school, and, as a consequence of that, cannot monitore the school development of their children.
Sônia Kramer (2004), in “Ser educador: um desafio permanente” (Being an educator: a permanent challenge), says:

"When we think of what would be the traditional role of family and school (specifically taking care of education or knowledge), it seems that we talk about a hypothetical school. (…) It is no use saying that the family should do things it cannot afford to do or doesn't do; we must assume that it is the school role and at the same time, assume that there are limits to play this role "(Kramer, 2004).

In the first decade of this century, we find that there is an effort to assure equal opportunity in the fulfilment of basic education access, but in practice remains an inequality with regard to the completion of basic education and even the difference in the quality of education promoted within the public system and among private schools, which continues to contribute to the existence of a hierarchical society. According to Vera Maria Candau (2007) on "Qualidade da Educação: questões e desafios" (Quality Education: issues and challenges),

"Cannot deny the massive expansion of the education system in recent decades, at least with regard to basic education. (…) However, there are still high levels of illiteracy, dropout, failure and unequal educational opportunities between different countries, geographical regions and social and cultural groups. In many societies it is a serious public school crisis" (Candau, 2007).

Also according to Vera Candau (2007), there is an apparent consensus on the term "quality of education", but it is polysemic and can be interpreted from different visions and conceptions of education, depending on the type of citizenship that wants to build, which also has to do with the ways of understanding the role of school, teacher and students in the teaching-learning process.

Ariana Cosme (2009), in “Ser professor: a acção docente como uma acção de interlocução qualificada” (Being a teacher: teaching as a qualified dialogue action), says conservative character speeches claim by its elitist and nostalgic nature and end up allowing the phasing out of children "not educable" from school, condition to solve the discontentment that would have been caused by the democratization of access to basic schooling.

"It's a nostalgic scenario because, if any, could only have happened in the past when schools were defined explicitly as spaces interested in promoting academic stratification starting from regulatory interventions, from the point of view of curriculum management, didactic materials, personal relationships - social and epistemological, properties of the dominant valuation model, defined by homogeneity, the one-dimensionality and the bureaucratic routinization "(Cosme, 2009 p. 135).

Again is Vera Candau (2007) who says that it is possible to conceive the quality of education in another conceptual framework, and that there are several experiments under way in our country, starting from the conviction that education can contribute to the process of structural transformation in society, educating for an active and participatory citizenship by encouraging the construction of new mentalities and subjects of law.

"Assert the state's role in the democratization of education and oppose to direct and indirect forms of conceiving education as a product to be governed by the logic of the market. Fight for the empowerment of the teaching profession and the leadership role of educators and their movements. Proposing the reinvention of school from the perspective of rethinking its spaces and times, as well as rewrite the curricula to create a greater interaction between reality and student's interesting issues, stimulating dynamics where information becomes knowledge and knowledge becomes wisdom "(Candau, 2007).
Research Guiding Questions

So, are also guiding questions of this research project:

Q1: What were the biggest challenges and achievements that these teachers faced when working with Telessala Methodology™ in Autonomy Program? With interdisciplinarity? With the Main Theme and Thematic Axis worked in a modular dynamic? With the steps of the daily pedagogical work of Telessala?

Q2: Is Training for teachers and pedagogical accompaniment developed as a process of continuing education? They helped these educators to reflect on their teaching practice? And the writing of the Memorial?

Q3: Has the use of Telessala™ Methodology in Autonomy Program transformed the educational experience of such educators? There have been changes in its organizing role of the teaching-learning process?

Q4: What were the changes that have occurred in the affirmation and transformation of personal and professional identity of these educators? How do they see and read themselves today as professionals and human beings? There have been changes in the "teacher-student" relationship and in the way these educators noticed the students?

Q5: Did these educators bring their current professional context, some practices from this didactic alternative? Which one? Is it possible to apply this alternative practice in other educational settings? Which one? What do these educators today understand for new school possibilities?

Theoretical Foundation

In general, the Telessala™ methodology has as theoretical assumptions a conception of education as a practice of freedom/autonomy/citizenship, from Paulo Freire's ideas; a theory of learning and knowledge, based on the concepts of complexity of Edgar Morin, competence of Philippe Perrenoud, the proximal development zone of Lev Vygotsky and the theory of multiple intelligences of Howard Gardner; a concept of transforming evaluation, according Thereza Penna Firme; and a conception of teaching learning where the teacher is formed to assume the role of educational mediator, inspired by Madalena Freire and Moacyr Gadotti.

For writing the Qualification Test, presented on June 13, 2015, I also used as a resource Telessala™ Methodology, from Vilma Guimarães; the UNESCO Four Pillars of Education, by Jacques Delors; the issues and challenges on the quality of education, according to Vera Maria Candau; the topic of the ongoing challenge of being an educator, Sonia Kramer; the question of the teacher as a qualified interlocutor, from Ariana Cosme; the tensions and the pedagogical point of Philipe Meirieu; the Paradigm of Communication by Rui Trinidad and Ariana Cosme; and manuals on qualitative research in education and case study as João Amado, Jose Carlos Morgado and Robert E. Stake.

In “Pedagogia da Autonomia. Saberes necessários à prática educativa” (Pedagogy of Autonomy), in the first chapter entitled "There is no teaching without learning", Paulo Freire (2009) said that "teaching is not transferring knowledge but creating possibilities for its production or its construction" (Freire, 2009, p. 22); and he rejected the teacher-student dichotomy separating the responsibilities in building knowledge, proposing instead a collaborative building in this challenge of "learning together."
"That is why teaching is not transferring knowledge or content, and educating is not an action where a creator forms, styles and gives soul to an inerted or accommodated body. There is no teaching without learning, these two subjects explain each other, and its subjects, despite their differences, do not reduce themselves to the condition of objects from each other. Who teaches learns while teaching and who learns teaches while learning" (Freire, 2009, p. 23).

In the book “Pedagogia do Oprimido” (Pedagogy of the Oppressed), Freire (1987) criticized what he called "banking" education: student seen as a depository, an overdrawn account, and teacher as a depositor which deposits in the student all his knowledge; this student after receiving deposits, file them, saving as in a cash register (Freire, 1987, p. 33). For Telessala™ Methodology, the student is not a "tabula rasa", a piece of “blank paper”, it is expected that he already brings a previous knowledge from his daily practice, people that he coexists, and his experiences.

"To keep the contradiction, the 'banking education' denies the dialogicity as the essence of education and makes itself antidialogic; to overcome this, the questioning education - epistemological situation – guarantee the dialogicity and makes itself dialogic. No one educates anyone, no one educates himself, men educate each other, mediated by the world" (Freire, 1987, p. 39).

Phillipe Meirieu (2005) in “O cotidiano da escola e da sala de aula: O fazer e o compreender” (The school and classroom daily life: making and understanding), tell us about "pedagogical tensions", the first one around the "educability postulate ", according to which "no one can teach without postulating that the other before him, is educable " (Meirieu, 2005, p. 74). That is, everyone can learn and there are no excuses for school exclusion, but for this it is necessary to carry out "a great effort to imagine new methods that minimize failure and combat all forms of fatality" (Meirieu, 2005 , p. 75).

Freire (1967), in “Educação como prática da liberdade” (Education as the practice of Freedom), insisted on the overcoming of the naive and empty aspects of our education, imposing man silence, accommodation and passivity, and on the overcoming of disbelief on the student, his ability to discuss his own problem, because he believed that a democratic education was based on the belief in men, their ability to learn, decide and take responsibility for their own decisions. And Madalen (2010) also tells us that:

"We were educated as students, to listen, attend class. Passively, this was our participation in class. To do or not to do our classwork, we only cared if it was for note..., otherwise, we felt dismissed. Attend class, this has always been the educator desire. Good student attends class that the teacher gives. The more passive, better, result of the educators teaching. The more centralized the product of the class, better educator he would be. Good schooling do not "enter" questioning, asking the class educator. Its entrance is by the hearing of stillness" (Freire, M, 2010, p. 149).

Ariana Cosme (2009), about the communication between teachers and students, brings Phillipe Perrenoud (2001) reflection on some dilemmas that help us understand the tension that exists between the role of these teachers and students, whose recognition is a condition for the definition of these two types of role in a democratic rationality, in which the teacher cannot fail to exercise the pedagogical power, even empowering their students; among them:

“'Around the word and silence' (Perrenoud, 2001, p. 65) is the first of these dilemmas. Through it confronts the teacher impossibility to 'have the privilege to impose silence and break it, to say who should
practices and discourses

speak and who should shut up, when and why’ and, simultaneously, expect students to participate actively in classroom daily life, give opinions, discuss, learn to listen and do not limited themselves to give only the ‘appropriate answers, they are supposed to give” (Cosme, 2009, pp. 66-67).

The promotion of interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary are based on the concepts of complexity and relevant knowledge developed by Edgar Morin. Morin (2000), in “Os sete saberes necessários a educação do futuro” (Seven complex lessons in education for the future), proposes a relearning of thinking through a rewiring of all that is considered opposite, different, separate. And states that “disunited knowledge, divided and compartmentalized do not recognize and understand the problems of a multidisciplinary reality, multidimensional, multiplanetária” (Morin, 2000, pp. 41-42).

It is with this intention, that in the Telessala pedagogical proposal, the disciplines are not intended fragmented but worked by fields of knowledge - Languages; Codes and their Technologies; Natural Sciences, Mathematic and its Technologies; Humanities and its Technologies - and through the relationship between scientific and attitudinal contents, not disciplinary, intra and extra-curricular, including different cultures, also introducing the transcultural concept.

It is expected that the content is offered in a context – in a Telessala the data or informations are not presented isolated but, on the opposite, are contextualized, making sense for students, because a student can only acquire knowledge if the relationship between them is meaningful, is relevant for him; this is the first condition for him to get involved in this appropriation process - starting from concrete, not abstract.

New school possibilities. A new paradigm.

In general, we have students from the twenty-first century, teachers from the twentieth century and schools of the nineteenth century, still hold in the Instruction Paradigm, in which the student is seen as a “tabula rasa”, and the teacher as the only holder of all knowledge. A school that does not consider students’ prior knowledge, as brought out by the Learning Paradigm, and does not develop the collective construction of knowledge, according to the Communication Paradigm (Cosme & Trindade, 2010), presented by Ariana Cosme and Rui Trinity in “Educar e aprender na escola: questões, desafios e respostas pedagógicas” (Educating and learn in school: issues, challenges and pedagogical answers):

"In this third paradigm, neither teachers nor students nor knowledge can be referred to the place of the dead, which means that more than a privileged relationship to identify, between two poles, are identified plural nature relations, dependent and aleatory, among the three vertices of the triangle proposed by Houssaye (1966) " (Cosme & Trindade, 2010, p. 57).

In Brazil, the rupture with the Instruction Paradigm started from the initiatives proposed by members of the so-called "New School Movement", which in the 1920s and 1930s defended public, secular, free and compulsory education, who cared about finding a response in the field of pedagogy for the elites divisiveness who, according to Paulo Freire (1967), in the words of Teixeira, one of the authors of the “New Education Pioneers Manifesto”, "are far from being identified with the Nation. Are in fact the anti-nation" (Teixeira, 1963, p. 3).
Unlike the Instruction Paradigm, focused on the teacher, the Phenomenological-Interpretative Paradigm focuses not on teaching scientifically valid contents, but on student learning, at a time when the Psychology and Science of Education, at the turn of the nineteenth to the twentieth century context, recognize childhood as a unique stage of human development and the child is no longer seen as a passive being, "miniature adults" and is seen as the dynamic axis of the educational activity.

But this investigative model also pose some critical issues that Ariana Cosme and Rui Trindade, still in “Organização e gestão do trabalho pedagógico: perspectivas, questões, desafios e respostas” (Organization and management of the pedagogical work: perspectives, issues, challenges and answers), question:

"In this sense, cultural heritage used as a reference to the work perpetrated in schools, identified, as we have seen, with the information, tools, and procedures already established, tends to undervalued rather then the interpersonal relationships quality, the psychological development of students, and learning processes or strategies that they should develop "(Cosme & Trindade, 2010, p. 35).

Among the new currents identified by João Amado (2013) in "Manual de Investigação Qualitativa em Educação" (Qualitative Research in Education Manual) that arise from the Phenomenological-Interpretative Paradigm is the Socio-Critical, who comes from the neo-marxist of The Frankfurt School based on the return to Karl Marx' ideas in his work Theses on Feuerbach, theorists committed to the necessary social changes: "until now, philosophers confined themselves to interpretate the world in different ways; what matters, however, is to change it " (Amado, 2013, p. 52).

One of the most recognized authors in this line of research is Paulo Freire, whose ideas are one of the theoretical and methodological assumptions of Telessala™ Methodology. To Freire (1997), "education is a form of intervention in the world" (Freire, 1997, p. 110), to change it, it is an act of political character, conscientizing and emancipating the oppressed subjects through the empowerment of their actions.

This pedagogy refuses the thesis that knowledge, the school and the teacher should be neutral, and in the words of Moacyr Gadotti (2002), in "Boniteza de um sonho: ensinar e aprender com sentido" (Prettiness of a dream: teaching and learning meaningful), its function is both political and pedagogical. And in "Perspectivas atuais da Educação" (Current Educational perspectives) (2000), he states that:

"The new professional of education need to question himself about why, for what, against what and against whom learn. The learning process is not neutral. The important thing is to learn how to think, think about the reality and not thinking thoughts once thought. But the role of the educator does not end there: it is necessary to give an opinion about this reality that should be not only thought, but transformed "(Gadotti, 2000, p 93.).

**Research Design.**

This research to be developed within the Doctoral Program in Sciences of Education at the University of Porto, based on a qualitative methodological approach since it believes that this rationality is best suited to a work that aims to understand and interpret a singular and complex reality, the transformation of professional teaching
practices of teachers who worked with Telessala™ Methodology program in autonomy between the years 2009 and 2014.

Robert E. Stake (2012) in "A arte de investigação com estudos de caso" (The art of case study research), about the differences between qualitative and quantitative research, says that the differences are in the aim of understanding – deeper, particularly and more complex - and not explain – in general, as if there were logical causes and consequences in the changes and transformations of teaching practices, that teachers go through in their pedagogical reflection process that could create statistics - the object of investigation.

As pointed by João Amado (2013):

"We must remember that most of qualitative research is based on this central idea: to give "voice" to people who voluntarily collaborate (in different ways and degrees) with researchers, which results in an 'other' perspective of 'science', based on specific ethical requirements (that stands respect for life and expression of the 'other'), and an interpersonal relationship that calls both the individual and the collective, local and universal, personal and political "(Amado, 2013, p. 421).

The option for the case studies appears to us clearly because it is about going deeper into a specific subject matter, the transformation of teaching practices of educators who worked in the Autonomy program in the state of Rio de Janeiro, between 2009 and 2014 from the use of Telessala™ Methodology and therefore it is necessary to describe it in detail, conceptualize it, theorize it, and contextualize it to interpret this change in depth, in order to renew existing perspectives and discover new problems, extending limits of existing knowledge aiming to improve education.

José Carlos Morgado (2012) in “O Estudo de Caso na investigação em educação” (Case study research in education) points out the four qualitative nature characteristics of a case study research according to Stake (2012). They are: it is a holistic study that considers the totality, concreteness and complexity of the context; it is an empirical study, i.e., a field work collecting data and information on the spot using various instruments and techniques; it is an interpretive work, so it is not intended impartial as a qualitative nature research, but the result of an extensive analysis of the problem situation; and it is an empathic study, which considers the voices of the actors involved, which can cause some unexpected and restructuring of the research.

Thus, the Case Studies about the transformation of teaching practices of educators who worked in the Autonomy program, between 2009 and 2014, from the use of Telessala™ Methodology will be developed from the analysis of Memorials of teachers at primary and secondary public schools located in the Capital, Baixada Fluminense, Região Serrana and Noroeste of the state of Rio de Janeiro, carefully selected based on their professional recognition during the process of training and mentoring, and who also currently work in other educational contexts, such as the Escola de Aperfeiçoamentos dos Servidores de Educação do Estado do Rio de Janeiro da Secretaria de Estado de Educação do Rio de Janeiro (SEEDUC) and the Diretoria Especial de Unidades Escolares Prisionais e Socioeducativas (DIESP), among others.

As an instrument of reflection, the Memorials end up becoming a continuing educational tool for these teachers in Telessala™ Methodology, as long as putting thoughts into words these teachers end up evaluating their teaching practice, and rethinking pedagogic strategies for motivating their classes and achieve their goals, as once again tells us Amado (2013), this time reading Correia (1996):
"These assumptions recognize and give the biographical methods huge heuristics and training potential which, in turn, are based on other assumption that says that 'recount is not describe, is rewriting'. 'It implies that interpret the experiential narrative is not objectively interpret this as a causal chain of a past: it's subjective them to design the future'” (Correia, 1996, p 25, cit by Amado, 2013, 173).

The contents of these Memorials will be analyzed and their records will be crossed with contemporary reports, obtained through semi-structured interviews. The richness of this strategy is to allow to surface unique experiences of each of these teachers, their life stories that have missed their Memorials, since the purpose is not to get simple answers of yes or no, of what or how much – as it could happen through quantitative surveys or questionnaires in an objective way. It is intended to know how and why, because what matters is not the quantity of responses that can be generalized, but the quality of its unique pedagogical practices.

In addition to the Memorials and semi-structured interviews, I will also use as data collection technique focus groups, aiming not only to triangulate these data collection instruments, but observe the richness of the interactions between these teachers, debating, discussing not the answers, but their experiences, their challenges and their individual and collective achievements, unique or common.

About the group interview, João Amado (2013) explains that "the interviewer has to be interested in the group and in the interaction experienced by the group. It is not the private universe that counts, but the specific meanings of the group" (Amado, 2013, p. 224). Another interesting and important observation is that it is expected that the results obtained from the content analysis of the material produced by the group are different from the result obtained from individual interviews with the same people who takes part in this group, asking them the same semi-structured questions.

As a data analysis procedure of these Memorials and interviews will be used the content analysis technique, which in a qualitative perspective in case studies, aims to give voice to the "sayings", the "unspoken" and silences of the participants, making them the co-authors of the text, which requires the investigator attitudinal skills such as listening, respect the word of the other, and ethics, such as how to be honest in the transcript of the speeches, and maintaining the confidentiality of the participants.

José Carlos Morgado (2012), reading Quivy and Campenhoudt (1998) tells us that, at first, on the surface, we have the impression that the data analysis is about the empirical verification of the information collected, but it is much richer than we had imagined when we outlined the research at the beginning, because a deeper analysis reveals "often other facts beyond the expected and other relationships that we should not neglect", which requires us to (re) interpret these "unexpected events" and even, in some cases, "to revise or refine some of the issues outlined initially" (Quivy; Campenhoudt, 1998, p 221, cit. by Morgado, 2012, p. 93).

References


Initial formation of teachers through distance education in Sergipe: Curriculum and unfoldments

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Distance education has a long and diversified trajectory in the world. In Brazil, the creation of this modality is recent. Instituted in 2006, the initial formation of teachers through distance education in the country was implemented through the Open University in many public institutions of higher education. In Sergipe, state located in the northeast region of Brazil, teaching degree courses have been offered by the Center for Distance Higher Education of Federal University of Sergipe. In 2007, the University offered seven teaching degree courses and only three courses had students that finished their graduations: three in Chemistry, eleven in Portuguese and forty in History. To implement these graduation courses, it is indispensable to consider the importance of curriculum as a document constituted by historicity and its study enables to rescue forgotten practices, silenced discourses, that benefit the comprehension of historic continuities and discontinuities. Considering the lack of investigations related to the curriculum of teaching degree courses executed through distance education, this research aims to investigate how pedagogical practices from distance curriculum propositions occur, considering egress students of the first classes from Portuguese and Chemistry at the Federal University of Sergipe, graduated through distance education. This is an investigation guided by a qualitative approach, with the use of thematic oral history methodology by the gathering of narratives. For this research, all of the egress students in Chemistry and nine Portuguese teachers were interviewed, besides a documentary analysis. To envisage the data treatment obtained from the narratives, theoretical and methodological assumptions of Content Analysis were adopted. Our first observation is that the Chemistry and Portuguese curriculum, in distance education, are analog to the respective classroom courses, as in the disposition of the subjects as their workload, despite the differences between classroom and distance educations. Another aspect is the evident maintenance of technical rationality model, distinguished by the ranking of knowledges through the provision of “content” courses in the most part of the curriculum, leaving to the end of the graduations the courses that focus on the usage of basic knowledge and its practical application, such as, for example, teaching practices. The collected narratives signal that the execution of teaching practices, for example, was literally individualized, considering that the graders counted on few orientations of the University professors and the supervisors teachers of the institutions where the graders had teacher training. The testimonies also indicate positive impacts of this formation in personal and social dimensions, especially for being able to access higher education in countryside areas, where it was not possible before. This study observes the potentialities of education public policies, provided through teacher formation in distance education, despite the necessity of emergency adjustments, as in curriculum scope as in its application.

Keywords: curriculum, distance education, countryside locations.

The comprehension of global dimensions of society, globalization process we have been through and informational and social revolution (Santos, 1996) is essential to understand the importance of the new curriculum proposals
implemented by educational reforms, especially concerning teachers formation. Educational reforms have been performed in order to meet "demands and context of the new times, such as globalization of economies, present public policies and especially the impacts of new forms of communication and technologies" (Ramalho, 2003, p. 18).

Studies organized by Flores (2014, p.7) point that “this theme has been attracting academicians’, researchers’ and political decision makers’ attention, among others, and it is considered one of the factors that contribute to improve education”.

In Brazil, we can take the approval of the law No. 9,394 on December, 20th 1996, that includes in the Article No. 80 the offer of distance education for all levels, and the approval of National Standards Curriculum as important axis for curriculum reforms in university’s graduate education and, particularly, in teaching degree courses. It was defined a set of embraced competences and abilities understood as a manner to optimize the development of mobilization, articulation of graduate students so they may put in practice knowledge, abilities and attitudes required in the world of work.

Allied to curriculum reforms performed over the last years, the creation of Open University of Distance Education in 2006, with the incorporation of information and communication technologies, has been one of the special factors for us to move into what is known as knowledge society (Castells, 2007).

In this context, the public policies directed to implementation and dissemination of distance education in Brazil, particularly in universities, had their first experiences in the end of the 1990s, with the Virtual University of Brazil for initial formation. It has been institutionalized since the creation of Open University of Brazil, in 2006, as a program of adhesion of universities to this education modality, primarily for formation of teachers.

Studies performed by Ramalho (2003), Schon (2000), Tardif (2002) and Souto (2008) have provided important considerations concerning formation of teachers and the way this process has happened in former institutions. They point that teaching formation, especially the ones derived from public policies, is impervious and at times it is based on models that does not correspond to a local reality. The realization of changes in the educational context, mainly in higher education, presuppose a reorientation of professional relationships in educational institution, involving teaching, technical pedagogical and administrative staffs.

With regard to distance higher education and teaching formation in this education modality, studies by Castro (2004), Machado, Botelho & Silva (2013), Silva (2012), Mercado (2009) and Ribeiro (2010) indicate, in outline, changes and impacts of this education modality in higher education institutions, in distance education practices and also in the inclusion of ICTs in the scope of initial formation of teachers.

In Brazil, in 1996, the Foundations of the Education System Law (law nº 9,394) was approved and it has required higher education in teaching. Furthermore, that law legalized in article No. 80 the offer of distance education for all levels; thus, regular formative possibilities through this education modality was stablished.

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28 The author organizes a book that comprehends studies from Canada, Scotland, The United States of America, Sweden, Finland, Australia, Portugal, Switzerland and Brazil (Flores, 2014).
Ten years later, after extensive mobilizations of institutions of higher education through consortium, distance education is offered for initial formation. In this context, the Open University of Brazil was implemented in public institutions of higher education, providing a substantial increase in universities’ vacancies offer in teaching areas.

In this context, the Federal University of Sergipe created, in 2006, the Center for Distance Higher Education (in Portuguese: CESAD - Centro de Educação Superior a Distância), linked to Open University of Brazil as one of the policies of teaching formation implemented by the Department of Education. CESAD started its activities in 2007, in nine centers in Sergipe countryside, namely: Arauá, Areia Branca, Brejo Grande, Laranjeiras, Estância, Japaratuba, Porto da Folha, Poço Verde and São Domingos with the offer of seven teaching degree courses: Mathematics, Geography, Biology, History, Portuguese Language and Literatures, Physics and Chemistry (Sobral, 2012). In 2012, 54 students finished their graduations in the expected time: three in Chemistry, eleven in Portuguese and forty in History.

It is worth pointing out that, to implement those teaching degree courses it was necessary to consider the importance of curriculum as a document constituted by historicity, which study could rescue forgotten practices and silenced discourses that help to understand historical continuities and discontinuities.

According to this context, this research aims to investigate how pedagogical practices from distance curriculum propositions occur, considering egress students of the first classes from Portuguese and Chemistry at the Federal University of Sergipe, graduated through distance education. This investigation also covered some aspects of the impacts of formation through distance education on these teachers’ personal and professional lives.

One of the methodological aspects used in this investigation was the interviews with the egress teachers. The proposition refers to the experiences lived and, when they are recorded and transcribed, they become singular documents for research sources. In the case of oral history as a subject, it refers to a field formation with specific procedures and proper concepts. In the methodological aspect, comprehends the fact of demanding, establishing and ordering certain procedures of investigation. In one or other case, it is about a manner of registering and thinking society through individual’s memories about experiences, thoughts, actions remembered in the present (Meily; Holanda, 2013).

The interviews with Montenegro (2013) and Ribeiro (2008) allow us to learn about the interviewee’s world perspective, behaviors, attitudes, values and feelings, which benefits the understanding and/or interpretation. Based on this theoretical support about oral history, we interviewed nine Portuguese Language and Literature and three Chemistry egresses. The interviews were recorded, transcribed, processed and redirected to the egresses, of whom we obtained authorization for publication. It is worth pointing that we used letters to refer to the interviewees, to assure their anonymity.

Based on the data collected, it is possible to present in the table below a brief interviewees profile, which reveals that almost all of them had their secondary school life was in public schools. In addition, most of the egresses from Chemistry teaching and Portuguese Language and Literatures teaching works out of the areas they graduated at Federal University of Sergipe through the teaching degree courses offered by distance education.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Course</th>
<th>City</th>
<th>School life</th>
<th>Current job</th>
<th>Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Portuguese Language and Literatures</td>
<td>Estância</td>
<td>Public school</td>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>First graduation: Pedagogy. Second graduation: Portuguese Language and Literatures. (UFS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Attending Master’s degree in Education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Portuguese Language and Literatures</td>
<td>Estância</td>
<td>Private school</td>
<td>Commissioned position at Estância City Hall; Approved as a teacher in public tender at Indiaroba municipality</td>
<td>Two previous initiatives: History and Portuguese Language and Literatures (UNIT)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Portuguese Language and Literatures (UFS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Portuguese Language and Literatures</td>
<td>São Francisco</td>
<td>Private school</td>
<td>Community health agent</td>
<td>Portuguese Language and Literatures (UFS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Technical course</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Portuguese Language and Literatures</td>
<td>Araúá</td>
<td>Public school</td>
<td>Department of Health, at National Health Foundation</td>
<td>Portuguese Language and Literatures (UFS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
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<td>Public school</td>
<td>Approved as a teacher in public tender</td>
<td>Portuguese Language and Literatures (UFS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Portuguese Language and Literatures</td>
<td>Estância</td>
<td>Public school</td>
<td>Department of Education</td>
<td>Portuguese Language and Literatures (UFS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Portuguese Language and Literatures.</td>
<td>Estância</td>
<td>Public school</td>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>Portuguese Language and Literatures (UFS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Portuguese Language and Literatures.</td>
<td>Poço Verde</td>
<td>Public school</td>
<td>Merchant</td>
<td>Portuguese Language and Literatures (UFS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Portuguese Language and Literatures</td>
<td>Heliópolis (BA)</td>
<td>Public school</td>
<td>Teacher at a municipal school in Heliópolis (BA); Teacher at a state school in Poço Verde (SE).</td>
<td>First graduation: Pedagogy. Second graduation: Portuguese Language and Literatures (UFS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>Chemistry</td>
<td>Estância</td>
<td>Public school</td>
<td>Commissioned teacher by Estância City Hall; Laboratory technician</td>
<td>Chemistry Teaching (UFS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
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<td>Rio Real (BA)</td>
<td>Public school</td>
<td>Employee at Banco do Brasil</td>
<td>Chemistry teaching (UFS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Chemistry</td>
<td>Estância</td>
<td>Public school</td>
<td>Teaching in private schools and administrative manager</td>
<td>Chemistry teaching (UFS)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 32: Profile of Portuguese Language and Literatures and Chemistry egresses
Source: Fieldwork, 2014
These data indicate that the graduation courses offered by Open University of Brazil focused on expanding teaching training, preferably on service, with the aim of improving the quality of teaching. The little access of this group of teachers to teaching workforce demonstrate that the objective was not reached in the desired proportion.

After a close analysis of the interviewees’ school life, it was possible to verify the difficulties they had to confront to accomplish the three education levels, especially in higher education, for many reasons. It prevailed in their speeches the financial problems that complicated their travel to Aracaju, with the purpose of attending a classroom course. Besides this central issue, the necessity of working early (resulted from financial limitation) and the difficulty on being approved on former entrance examination were considered restraining to access higher education in public institutions.

We noticed in the egresses’ speeches the cherished dreams and desires of attending higher education in a public institution, whether to rise to new social and workspaces or personal achievement.

**Distance education formation: challenges and difficulties**

The challenges nowadays refer to distance education, especially in Brazil, in 1996, with the new Foundations of the Education System Law (Law No. 9,394), which has required a teaching degree, creating a demand for distance education that has been a viable alternative to the regular offer. This aspect caused the creation of Open University of Brazil in 2006 (Maia & Matter, 2007).

Initial formation through distance education is also focused on studies on a national level (Silva, 2012) and on local level (Sobral, 2013; Souza Júnior, 2014). The discussions in these studies include inclusion processes in development of distance pedagogical practices, forms of interaction in virtual learning environment, among other aspects and characteristics of distance education.

With regard to the beginning of academic activities of Open University of Brazil at Federal University of Sergipe, according to the Center for Distance Higher Education, the courses have started in the beginning of second semester in 2007. Although the University’s system indicates these classes started in 2008.

Like other states of the federation, many problems were highlighted in the initial process of implementation of Open University of Brazil in Sergipe. Among them, the noncompliance of the Technical Cooperation Agreement among municipal government, state government and the Federal University of Sergipe, bearing in mind that many municipal governments claimed lack of resources to create and maintain the centers. The State government had to intervene to implement the Open University of Brazil.

The first years were a complex period of implementation of distance education: planning, organization and development of pedagogical and administrative activities, and production of printed and virtual didactic material. There were huge challenges on structuring the centers for in-person support and, mainly, on preparation of tutors and coordinators of each graduation course. Many of these aspects are mentioned in the interviewed teachers’ narratives.

In initial formation of the egress of Portuguese Language and Literature and Chemistry courses, the analysis advances in a peculiar direction because in the gathered narrative the qualities of the distance education are pointed out. Considering Distance Higher Education Quality References (Brasil, 2007), we analyzed in the
teachers' narratives information that evince the quality of their graduation courses in the following topics: teaching/learning process, curriculum, communication among students, tutors and professors, printed and virtual didactic material and evaluation. Although these topics do not exhaust the references, they allow an overview of the formation through distance education of the Federal University of Sergipe’s classes.

Teaching/learning process

Distance education advocates in its teaching/learning process the necessary flexibility of time study and the students’ autonomy (Valadares, 2011; Belloni, 1999). Teacher A issued it when narrating her difficulties in the process. She remembered how much she had to invest in searching to supply the necessities left by the material distributed by the Center for Distance Higher Education. She also reported that many questions in examinations were not taught over the course, which made their resolutions difficult.

In fact, distance education is a planned action that requires everyone involved commitment to its organization and operation. In this perspective, Moore & Kearsley (2008) consider distance education a planned apprenticeship that normally occurs in a different place than teaching place, demanding special methods of instruction and creation of courses, communication through many technologies and special organizational and administrative provisions.

The studying autonomy, decanted in researches concerning distance education, is also founded on the conception of learning this education modality assume to reach its aims. Initial resistances to this modality were overcome over the course. According to teacher G, it is important to consider the flexibility of studying place and time as well as [THE] self-demanding for learning, because, according to the interviewee, “[...] it depends more on our own interest on studying” to succeed in the learning process.

Curriculum

A first observation is that the Portuguese Language and Literatures and Chemistry curriculum are analogous to classroom courses’, as for the disposition of the subjects as for the hourly load, despite the differences between distance and classroom modalities.

Another relevant aspect concerning Portuguese Language and Literatures and Chemistry curriculum structures is the clear maintenance of the technical rationality model. It is characterized by a knowledge ranking through the disposition of the “contents” in the major part of the curriculum, leaving to the end of graduation subjects that use the basic knowledge and its practical application such as teaching practices.

The narratives gathered pointed out that the execution of teaching practices, for example, were literally individualized, considering the students counted on few orientations from university’s tutors and professors and also did not have the effective supervision from the school teachers where they had traineeship. According to the majority of the interviewees, this aspect indicates a large distance between content and method, resulting in a distance of the future teacher’s potential from one of their expectations for teacher formation: to transmit knowledge to their students, considering the observation of omissions concerning the orientations for pedagogical practices during formation in this education modality.
Communication among the ones involved: students, professors and tutors

It is known how much mediation of communication in distance education is essential to guarantee interactivity and interaction among the participants. This must happen during the entire process, from the elaboration of the didactic material able to stimulate learning, the organization and use of the virtual environment to distance and individual communication forms, whether through the provided services by post offices, telephony or email. In this respect, the interviewed teachers emphasized problems of many natures, from the functioning of Moodle Platform, which had a poor signal that complicated the messages delivery and receiving, to communication with tutors and professors, because the majority did not answer promptly the students’ questions and requests, which provoked uncertainties and distresses. The support web created by the students from Portuguese Language and Chemistry courses was fundamental for supplying those difficulties, as the egresses admit.

The interviewees affirm that some teachers and tutors were present virtually and answered them promptly, but this procedure was not usual for the majority. Teacher B, in turn, refers to constant failures of Moodle Platform and the difficulty on browsing and posting activities. According to the narratives, the activities were not corrected and revised in the right period by the tutors. Another important aspect was the distance between students and professors, with rare exceptions, as the referred teacher narrates:

The only subject we really met the professor was the Teaching Supervised Practice, who came here. She came here and supported us on Supervised Practice. She monitored us and it was really like a classroom support. And we had a great difficulty [IN/ON/AT] Latin, because it was very difficult to study Latin [Â] distance, only reading. (Interview given to the authors, on Feb. 06, 2014).

In relation to the tutors, teacher B also emphasizes she has “[…] a good image of the Portuguese Language tutors that passed by me, I have good memories. There were those ones who were present and answered us and those I asked questions, weeks passed and I did not obtain any answer”. Besides, she observes that the most of the students had difficulties on dealing with Moodle Platform and there was not any preparation to overcome this.

In the beginning, we had a forum where the students used to be in touch, but later, it was over. […] I used the platform, saw the materials, but I must confess I was not the kind of searching: I logged in, downloaded my materials, in the beginning when the professor posted everything I could see there. It was great, it made my life easier and I downloaded all the materials and organized them in my files. (Interview given to the authors, on Feb. 06, 2014).

Teacher C evaluated positively his relation with the tutors because of his insistence on keeping in touch with all of the tutors and establishing forms of relationship through messages. According to his narrative, this teacher succeed in the execution of his academic duties and, consequently, in his apprenticeship.

In relation to the internet, for teacher E, it was one of the greatest difficulties due to her lack of ability to use the computer, the lack of an in-person professor and the necessity of creating individualized system to do the homework and understanding the contents and activities. According to her report, this initial difficulty was overcome:

I did not know how to handle it, how to deal with it, I had a computer but I was not interested, that is the truth. After the graduation, I learned how to do researches and, in the beginning, my children helped me a lot with sending the activities, but they also did not have time enough. […] I had to do it on my own and
after dealing with it so much, in the end I already knew everything and sent the activities easily. I had no
difficult anymore. (Interview given to the authors, on Mar. 12, 2014).

We noticed in the egresses’ speech many signs of how much it was difficult to follow up the distance graduation,
not only for the difficulty on communicating with tutors and professors but, mainly, for the limitation of the use of
technologies, especially Moodle Platform. However, some observed some facility on using the equipment,
according to this report:

As for the center’s internet, the little time I used it was enough, even with that little contact, there was not
much, but it was possible to use it and it was enough. It met our demands. As for the platform, I did not
have much difficulty; I could not see any difficulty at handling it. (Interview given to the authors, on Feb.
02, 2014).

The technological mediation is fundamental in the communication process in distance education. Belloni (1999)
distinguishes this concept as being the relation between human and machine and the interaction between people in
dialog, mediated by the machine. Both processes are fundamental for the success of a distance pedagogical
practice. This was evident in the egresses’ speeches who, in many forms, invested in the ability of searching and
learning as well as they guaranteed minimally the dialogue with tutors and professors.

All and any public policy for initial formation in distance education modality needs to incorporate
Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) effectively and consequently in distance education systems and models,
whether in a hybrid form or exclusively from a distance. Undoubtedly, this is a way for obtaining a formation with
reasonable indicators of success.

Didactic material and laboratory

Didactic material in distance education is one of the basic items of efficacy. In this respect, teacher A said there
were printed materials with good quality; however, others were limited and with serious problems that made the
comprehension difficult, with clerical errors and a lack of a text revision (teacher A).

All of the egresses observed delays in delivery of didactic material, which was often posted in the virtual
environment. Other obstacles were observed by the egresses, for example, delays in delivery of the printed
didactic material out of the deadline and its post in Moodle Platform, which indicates, according to her,
disorganization of the pedagogical process. Chemistry graduation egresses reported the absence of laboratories in
the centers and the necessity to travel to the University’s head in São Cristóvão to be able to do the activities,
which was not an easy duty due to the lack of regular transportation for traveling (teacher K).

Evaluation of distance graduation

All of the egresses evinced the importance of a theoretical background and the contact with new acquired
experiences with accomplishment of higher education through distance education, despite limitations. According to
teacher C’s narrative, she did not stand back on difficulties and illustrated it with the fact that without the printed
units, “[...] instead of complaining, I printed them”. In a different direction, teacher F remembered criticisms about
distance education due to the prevalence of the use of computers. According to her report, “[...] distance education is not only about this, but beyond this because the professor’s presence in classroom courses does not mean more quality than distance education’s”.

Likewise, teacher G evaluates how much disbelief there was in relation to distance education just because “[...] everything depends on the student [...]”. This had changed along the graduation, although he considers that “[...] it is necessary to be autodidactic and not everyone can do this [...]”, and detailed the number of entrants in his class, considering there was 50 students but only three finished with the first graduation class.

The teachers’ narratives reveal important issues, such as the prejudice in relation to initial formation through distance modality, the difficulties they had due to the CESAD’s multiple operational limitations, such as in the delay in delivery of printed didactic materials, communication problems among students, professors and tutors and, mainly, the lonely learning without the professors’ direct support. Teacher C says:

In the case of classroom course, many times, we go to classroom, but the professor is there teaching and we are absent-minded, thinking about other things. In distance education, if you do not focus on reading, because reading is the foundation of distance education... and professors in classroom courses needs reading in some subjects, not for all of them, because there are some difficulties that you cannot send the question and the tutor send the answer back. (Interview given to the authors, on Mar. 05, 2014).

Likewise, teacher C explains what she thinks about the insertion of distance education after leaving high school: “[...] initial formation for students that just left high school to graduate through distance education... I think it is very complicated”. According to her, it is necessary more maturity and assurance because “[...] the students need to have some base... so the fact I already had some base and organization helped me a lot. But for students that just left high school I think it is very difficult, they are too ‘raw’ yet”.

In the egresses’ narratives - despite these are contingent examples - it was possible to identify the possibility of student’s commitment in knowledge construction process through another academic activity, as teacher D said in his report:

Interdisciplinary Meeting on Language and Literature. And after this, another opportunity appeared. She is a supervisor in Institutional Scholarship Program for Teaching Initiation and one of her students was writing an article and went to the Education Center and she said: ‘do you want to continue?’. I could not say to the professor. So I did and became a volunteer in her project. (Interview given to the authors, on Mar. 06, 2014).

The egresses’ narratives evince an open field for questionings about the formation, among them, we wonder: the ones that could finished their graduations succeed due to a personal effort at overcoming obstacles? How much the organization and functioning of distance education courses changes students’ learning forms, considering that in the case of Portuguese Language and Literatures only eleven out of three hundred and fifty finished their graduation, and in the case of Chemistry, only three graduated as scheduled.
The egresses’ professional acting: the impacts of formation in Sergipe countryside

All narratives evinced personal, professional and social gains after their graduation: “As for my formation in distance education, I can guarantee that I learned the most I could in this graduation and I feel totally prepared to teach” (teacher A).

The interviewees also registered the possibility of getting in a postgraduate course as a form of continuous training. In addition, we could observe with more emphasis expectations about being approved as a teacher in public tender and obtaining an employment contract related to teaching. However, all the teachers agreed about the lack of public tenders and of possibilities of teaching Portuguese and Chemistry in the places where they live.

In general, all of the interviewees visualize positive aspects in distance education formation and in personal and professional gains; however, most of them, at least until the interviews, do not teach in the areas they had graduated.

Final considerations

The political motivations behind the offer of distance education courses by Open University of Brazil are linked to the demands proposed by Brazil’s Foundations of the Education System Law, which requires teaching formation/training in higher education to be a teacher. Another important aspect is the expansion of higher education opportunities in the countryside and consequently the egresses’ professional acting in public and private spaces where their formation allows. However, according to information collected through the interviewed egresses, we observed that the return of this formation was much more in a personal level, in knowledge construction and in acquisition of a higher education degree, bearing in mind that most of the egresses act in areas not related to teaching, for example: public health agent, paper worker at City Halls, construction technician, merchant, etc.

The narratives of the egresses of Portuguese and Chemistry first classes through distance education at Federal University of Sergipe sign important testimonials related to the potentialities of this education modality. Despite institutional difficulties in offering a distance graduation course, the egresses understand that those facts did not obstruct advances in knowledge construction, enabling the comprehension that autonomous apprenticeship is more meaningful to their expectations in teaching.

The testimonials evince that, in fact, there were positive impacts of this formation in their social lives and in the communities where they live, and bearing in mind they live in the Sergipe countryside, despite the limitations of teaching opportunities in those localities. This study observes the potentiality of educational public policies, accomplished through distance education for teacher formation, despite the urgent necessities of adjustments in curriculum and its application.

According to the information collected, it is possible to affirm that educational policies that aims to improve educational quality, through distance education, must consider participants’ local culture, observing the local context, the individuals’ regional particularities and the institutional interests involved. Likewise, it is necessary more synchrony among federal, state and municipal public powers referring to effective actions that enable a quality education and guarantee spaces so the egresses from higher education for teacher formation may act.
Certainly, if the fragilities indicated in formation process in higher education through distance education were considered, it would be possible to implement educational changes expected by society, visualizing a more favorable panorama for Brazilian education.

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Experienced teaching practice: The discursive movement between curricular projects and the supervised trainee program

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This article aims to analyze the discursive movement through the meanings of the supervised trainee program in curricular projects of two Pedagogical Courses in Brazil and the meaning built by teachers in graduation process and with experience in teaching. For such we start from the understanding of trainee program as an element that contributes for the creation and reflection of teaching practice and as a curricular axis that goes through graduation, allowing the students to research themselves. Beyond that, we used for our basis a comprehension of a teaching practice as being full participant of the pedagogical practice and is directly linked to the duties of a teacher, such as teaching in a dialectic relation with schooling. The research is based on a qualitative approach, also bringing up the Discourse Analysis as method and theory, a theoretical-methodological perspective to allow inserting the meanings built in a historical context that influences the way those meanings are created. Regarding the methodological procedures, a documentary research of two curricular projects (PCC) was used, also a private and a public institution located in Pernambuco’s interior in Brazil, and interviews with teachers with at least five years of experience in the area (teaching pre-elementary and elementary school), which allowed us to access the relations between the "thought" curriculum and the one who was actually lived, comprehending that no discourse is isolated, but it is made in an interdiscursive extent. So, as a result, we identified the materialization of what we call a meaning network, since the projects and the teachers showed connections between the discourses produced. We
could realize the recurrence of some statements, such as: the trainee program as an approach possibility with the occupation, as a reflection of the teaching, as a living possibility for other realities/educational context, and as a path for changes/transformation of the teaching practice.

**Keywords:** Supervised Trainee Program. Curriculum. Discursive Movement.

**Introduction**

This article is within the field of discussions on teacher education and specifically on the supervised training and has been the object of our concern from our experiences as Pedagogy students. So it seemed to us that for students who were already teachers the practice training contributed just a little bit to their teaching practice, not performing "as a space for reflection of their practices from theories of continuous training, reframing of their teaching knowledge and knowledge production" (PIMENTA; LIMA, 2004, p 127), while for those as a first contact with the professional practice field the practice training provided the possibility of learning to teaching.

Years later, this concern turned into scientific research in the master's and bring some of his discussion in this article, with some progress in the results discussion. So we built as an objective to analyze the discursive movement between the meanings of supervised trainee program enrolled in curriculum projects in the two teaching courses in Brazil and the meanings constructed by teachers in training and teaching experience.

To meet this objective, initially we discussed theoretically the stage as a factor that contributes to the development and reflection of teaching practice and how curricular axis running through training, enabling students to find themselves. A survey that shows influences in the constitution of the teaching practice of those students who are also teachers. Thus, it is thought that the teaching practice as one is part of the pedagogical practice and concerns specifically to the teacher, which is teaching in a dialectical relationship with learning.

So, trying to analyze the discursive movement we use the qualitative research although we consider, along with André, who is no longer sufficient to use this as broadly term.

> [...] Not seem to be very appropriate to continue using the term 'qualitative research' as broadly and generically as some prefer [...]. I would allow the quantitative and qualitative terms to differentiate collection techniques or, even better, to designate the kind of data obtained, and would use more precise descriptions to determine the type of survey: historical, descriptive, participant, phenomenological etc. (ANDRÉ apud FERRARO, 2012, p. 132).

Thus, it must be said that this research has a qualitative approach, but is also linked to the discourse analysis, in that it works with categories such as statements, senses, sayings, the unspoken and silenced.

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29 Our research in graduation, as well as master's and doctorate in address this relationship between thought and lived curriculum. Thus, in graduation we participated in universal research project called "Curricular Policies for teacher training: An analysis by the lived curriculum in the Pedagogy course." Research project approved in the Notice MCT / CNPq / MEC / CAPES No. 02/2010 - Humanities, Social and Applied Social, 2010 to 2012. As we now we participate of the research project funded by FACEPE and PROPESQ / CNPq (Public Call Notice MCTI / CNPq No. 14/2013 - Universal / Universal 14/2013) entitled "the curriculum practices of student-teachers: A motion analysis of the training content and teaching practice."
Dealing with discourse, we do not mean just talking or writing, but based on Laclau and Mouffe (2000) we realize that

this majority that is included inside the linguistic and extra-linguistic, is that we call discourse [...] but this needs to be clear from the beginning that we do not mean a discourse as combination of speak and scripture, but the opposite, the speak and the scripture are internal components of discursive totalities. (p. 114)

There is, therefore, distinguished between what is discursive and what is not discursive, a distinction seen in Foucault (Laclau, 2004). The discourses here understood in its entirety, so, realizing that "every social configuration is one meaning configuración" (Laclau and Mouffe, 2000, p. 114).

With regard to methodological procedures, we use the documentary research on both curricular project (PCC) of the Pedagogy courses, a private and public institution located in Pernambuco - Brazil, and interviews with teachers with at least five years of experience in professional practice (working in early childhood education and elementary education), which allowed us to access the relationship between thought-lived curriculum, understanding that there is no isolated discourse, but is embodied in an interdiscursive dimension.

Theoretical Discussion

Elements of professional learning: thinking about teaching practice

The teaching practice concerns the teacher, that is, work that is inherent in the teaching activity. Therefore, it is possible to ask: what actually is part of this teacher doing? What is his or her specificity? Responding to this, it is understood that the teacher's role is to teach (ROLDÃO, 2007), it is this feature that distinguishes it from other professions, a function that does not exist free from conflict, not consensus, but that is their recognition and historical statement from the struggle of the professional group of teachers.

Teaching is configured so, in this reading, essentially as a specialty to learn something (we call curriculum, whatever its nature is what you want to be learned) to someone (the act of teaching is only updated on this second transitivity embodied the action of the recipient, under penalty of being non-existent or free the alleged act of teaching) (ROLDÃO, 2007, p. 95).

Since teaching is to learn something from someone, education emerges as a relational activity from the dialectical relation with learning. Thus, there is no way to consider the isolated teaching learning conditions as one which takes the other's place. This is configured, then as a discursive production that builds a sense of teaching that does not assume only as transmission of knowledge, but as inseparable dialogue with learning.

This is why teaching is not transferring knowledge, content or a form of action by which a subject creator forms, style or soul to an indecisive and accommodated body. [...] Who teaches teach something to

30Meaning that it can also be seen in an article of the Revista Eletrônica de Educação, in which Melo and Almeida (2014) discuss the Supervised Trainee Program and teaching practice in scientific publications of ANPEd, Digital Library of Theses and Dissertations of UFPE and EPENN.
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someone. That's why the grammatical point of view, the word teaching is a transitive verb-relative. Word that asks for a direct object - something - and an indirect object - someone (Freire, 1996, p. 25).

This changes the conception, this shall also be understood as gradual appropriation, meaning that the teacher's role is learned in the course of working life from the synthesis of the knowledge conveyed in training courses and experiences with teaching. So if teaching presents a double transitivity, it is not limited to the transmission of knowledge and learned over the years of teaching, this activity has no fixed character and can change depending on the situations faced by teachers in professional practice.

Thus, the teaching practice regards making the teacher in his specific function is to teach. It which is both subjective action, is also a collectively socialization between teachers, between teachers and students, and between teachers and institutions where they operate. It is therefore in place between the subjective and the collective that teaching practice is built, it is not solely the product of experiences from an individual teacher with professional practice and not only as a result of this relationship to the context.

More than implementing an educational act, the teacher is part of a school building with its organizational standards, established values and created expectations. It relates to students, intra- and extraclass with teachers, a sharing of opinions, a murmur of frustration and a individualism safeguard dialogues with educators and caregivers, accountable to the government and is part of an educational territory. In a word, the teacher is part of a learning culture, giving it meaning and significance from the moment you internalize and express their beliefs (PACHECO, 1995, p. 28).

However, despite staking out the sense of teaching practice from all the elements listed above, the academic literature it has been used as a synonym of pedagogical practice. Although this association between the two practices are common in the literature, the sense built in this article points out that the two are related, but differ as to what cover. Including the possibility of transit directions, since different words can have the same meanings and the same words can have different meanings, our intention is not to impose a sense of teaching practice considered right, but defining our research object.

Our investigation is occupied therefore with the discursive movement between the Supervised Trainee Programenrolled in curriculum projects in two teaching courses in Brazil and the meanings constructed by teachers in training and teaching experience. The pedagogical practice was not then the object of our research, with its defined sense from different characteristics of the sense of teaching. We declare the distinction between these two elements, although they are articulated.

We understand also that the teaching practice which had not investigated the utility sense, so a practice referring only to the actions of daily life based solely on experiential knowledge. But seeks to establish a close relationship with the theory, a practice that so conceived can be configured as supervised training shaft and effectively contribute to the initial training of teachers do not substantiate fragmentation.

Methodological Discussion

This research presents as a methodological alternative the qualitative approach, understanding, therefore, that this addresses the dynamics of the educational field to understand reality as suitable for further processing. A
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dynamism that can be seen in the changing nature of education, where your senses are always historically reinterpreted, and the place it occupies makes disputes, epistemic and political. It also associates, qualitative research with Discourse Analysis perspective guided the relationship between language, discourse and ideology, which from that entanglement build our object.

A relationship that has developed in relations with the materiality of ideology took place in the discourse and the embodiment of the speech was given in the language. Thus, these elements are formed as key concepts without which we could not have initiated the investigation because "the individual is questioned on the subject by ideology and that's how the language makes sense. Consequently, the discourse is the place where you can observe the relationship between language and ideology, being understood as the language makes sense for / to subjects "(ORLANDI, 2010, p. 17).

We must also say that our understanding of discourse is not distinguished between discursive and non-discursive elements, so, we started from the understanding of that

[...] This conception of discourse precedes the distinction between linguistic and extra-linguistic, even if its condition of possibility. If, on the construction of a wall, a bricklayer asks his assistant a brick and receives, the first act is language and the second is extra-linguistic, but both are part of the same transaction and would have no meaning in isolation, that is, outside the reference to the construction of the wall. (BURITY, 1997, pp. 4-5).

With this in mind, we chose students, subjects of this research based on their teaching experience, working for at least five years, not represented as beginning teachers. So why teachers in training, occupy a discursive position from their status as students and at the same time that experienced subjects in teaching, a position that influenced the meanings attributed to the supervised trainee program. Thus, it was necessary to consider the position of the subjects in the social hierarchy, and as we have said anchoring in teaching experience also was part of the analysis of the investigated senses.

In addition, to achieve these senses was no easy task making it necessary to use data collection instruments to address subjective meanings. With this in mind, we set out to use interviews "as an interpersonal encounter in which the subjectivity of the protagonists is included and may constitute a time of building new knowledge [...]" (SZYMANSKI, 2004, p. 14). 5 teachers in the private IES\(^{31}\) and 4 teachers in the public IES, which are nine teachers that met our criteria of being both students and be operating for at least five years in teaching were interviewed.

In addition, we conducted a documentary research of curriculum projects of the two decided courses discursive movement with what the teachers were saying. Thus, in order to preserve the identity of individuals and institutions, we will refer the private institution as IES A and the public institution as IES B. As for the subjects interviewed, the teacher will be named by their institutions plus a number, for example, teacher IES A1, and for those part of IES B the code will be teacher IES B plus a number. Our intention with the confidentiality of the names was to preserve the right to confidentiality and discretion of the individuals.

\(^{31}\) Higher Education Institution
Discursive movement between the stage directions supervised enrolled in curricular projects and the meanings constructed by teachers in training and teaching experience.

In this analysis of the data, we started from the understanding that there is no isolated discourse. We are therefore referring to the network senses that enables the emergence of sayings on the supervised trainee program and their implications for teaching practice of teacher with experience. In that direction, "there is a sense of respect (intertextuality): every discourse is born from another (its raw material) and points to another (your future discourse). So in reality, it is not ever a discourse, but a continuum "(ORLANDI, 2012, p. 22).

We signed up, then, in trying to analyze how to build the discourse of teachers in training who already have experience in teaching, signaling to new sayings circularity ratio with the words of the curricular projects of Pedagogy. Being circular, there is no telling where it starts and ends a discourse, this will always continuum, as stated in Orlandi (2012).

Also in this circularity ratio, we insert the teachers’ discourses and curriculum projects in theoretical dialogue with other authors. We can then consider the existence of two groups that produces discourses. We share therefore the understanding that the "discourse analysis seeks to capture the uniqueness of language use at the same time as it seeks to build a general framework, that is, the attempt to insert the particular use in a common domain"(ORLANDI, 2012, p. 31). So, although we consider the existence of two groups of speech production (teachers and curriculum projects), these, even though they share directions, they may also produce natural senses. Thus, we tried to put these unique senses in a common area, which prevents us from falling into a particularism in which "every discourse was a discourse with nothing to do with others" (ORLANDI, 2012, p. 31).

Thus, the five teachers from IES A and four teachers from IES B produced despite the singularities, discourses that are inter-related, reaching set out very close, namely: relation between theory and practice, reflection on teaching practice and changes in teaching practice.

Concerning the recurrence of theory and practice relationship, despite teachers initially leave the common sense of the discourse by claiming that the stage would have greater importance in the formation of inexperienced teachers, they see that the stage experience allows the association between theory learned in space training and their professional performance.

Because teaching is more technical. Graduation, I've seen criticism saying it's just theory, it's just theory. But we have greater vision, it begins to make that connection between that theory and practice, because the theory gives us practice for subsidies, right (Teacher IES A1).

We do a bridge, right between theory and practice, and the people on supervised trainee programa begins to also observe what kind of practices are used at school (Teacher IES A2).

I think it's important but especially for those who has never been to a classroom. I was working, you know, but who was there will never leave the College of Education never have gone in a classroom just seeing theory? I think it's important because you go there to connect theory with practice. Not always the

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32 We analyze the curriculum in the perspective of thought-lived, in endorsing therefore in Almeida and Silva (2014) when they discuss in an article published in the magazine e-Curriculum on the overlap between the curriculum as text and as materialization.
case, because it is very difficult for you to go out alone, leaving the theory and put it into practice, because sometimes it's a very big challenge, because the theory is pretty much everything, everything is very easy to do when you go to practice you have a bit of a shock, it is a start (Teacher IES B3).

The approach to professional practice, from the stage, it is important to identify the differences between school, practice space, and the initial training, theory space. So the teachers begin to point a stage of sense as a place of dialogue between theory and practice, where mostly inexperienced teachers would have the opportunity to confront what they study at university and the complexity of the teaching work. This dialogue would help to understand the differences between what is studied and what is practiced.

This is also a recurrence in the curricular projects of both institutions where it argues that the relationship between university and school must go all the way. The IES B Project, for example, considers including "Practice is the place of confrontation, reconstruction of the theory, the reformulation of theoretical elements and the construction of new practices and possible theoretical conceptions" (PPC IES B, 2010, p. 10). In the IES A Project we realized also that the statement of the relationship between theory and practice is what else is repeated, making this relationship as one of the principles that should guide the formation of the teacher in the course designed by IES A. Thus, the course Pedagogy of this institution is based on the teaching and management as an axis running through the entire training course, relying on the principles of "Respect for life, identity, multiplicity, diversity and interculturalism; autonomy; democracy; interdisciplinarity; theory driven and practice; affectivity and esteticity "(PPC IES A, 2007, p. 25).

We see that both the projects and the teachers recognize the inseparability of theory and practice, realizing the theory as one that interprets, analyzes and clarifies the practice. It can identify these discourses extracts that training and in particular the supervised trainee program allowed learning to teachers of how to relate theory to practice, teachers who hitherto were performing the teaching already having the knowledge / expertise from experience, but they started to understand the training process that the theory can bring new possibilities for the teacher's work.

This is the common domain of the discourses of the two discursive production groups, which is the supervised trainee program of sense as a curricular component that contributes to the learning based teaching exercise in theoretical and practical activity.

As for the recurrence of the statement reflection on practice, we see that the meaning built by the projects of courses on supervised training has as one of its brands discursive reflection on practice, signing the dialogue discursive reflection on practice, between the knowledge of the teacher and his action. Still having the relationship between theory and practice as a structural axis, not allowing the practice be limited to the end of the course, but pervades the entire training inextricably linked to the theory way.

We are talking, therefore, reflective practice, because the word of reflection permeates the curriculum projects, not in its adjectival sense, but as a concept regarding the appreciation of experience and a possibility of this experience turn into systematic knowledge. So it is that the IES A project states that "a permanent reflection on the actions developed guides the construction of the teaching of intellectual autonomy in training, which should know and know-how" (PPC IES A, 2007, p. 37).
Reflection also guides the discourses made by the teachers; so although the statement of reflective practice is not a saying in his discourses, reference is made to the supervised trainee programs an observation space of other practices, which make them reflect on their own doing.

[...] There are many teachers who already have a degree, but there are many who have such a great experience that has a way of teaching that helps us. Sometimes we say, "Jeez, this guy used this technique, teaching that every little thing." And it can serve as a north for us too. The observation of the teacher to say so, we begin to police, say no. I do so, but maybe that way ... more enriches our ... how? ... The way we teach (Teacher IES A1).

[...] And I think the stage comes to people who are already teachers, observe them trying to observe things we had not seen before in your practice, in practice the other, not as a means of condemnation the other, but in order thus to want to see (Teacher IES B4).

The discourses of the two teachers did not explicitly bring the wording of reflective practice, but he is an unspoken, in that for them the observation of other practices allows to enrich their repertoire of techniques and teaching methods, but to also make them reflect on their teaching practice. Take a detached position as research professor investigating the practices, enabling to interpret this action and to learn about other forms of professional practice.

So, keeping in mind that the supervised trainee program for the teacher with experience needs the intersection between the daily work and the theoretical foundation learned at the academy, we understand the supervised trainee as a reflection of teaching practice, which includes experiences and tacit knowledge of the teacher, without disregarding the knowledge historically produced.

As tacit knowledge we understand the set of knowledge acquired by the teacher throughout his daily practice, constituting by implicit theories about how to do and the knowledge historically produced that systematized and prepared for humanity that has a theoretical reference from scientific research (Duarte Neto, 2010).

Nevertheless, we recognize the possibility that the stage is set up as a privileged locus where the daily working relationship and theoretical foundation is built, developing bridges between the tactical knowledge of the teacher and the knowledge historically produced by humanity towards the reflection of teaching practice and reinterpretation thereof.

Thus, teachers build the sense of supervised trainee as a possibility for change / transformation of teaching practice (third recurrence of statements), which is the common domain of discourse, but recognize different changes that have occurred from the experience with the stages in early childhood education and in primary (uniqueness discursive), namely: theoretical basis, own practice review from observing the other, respect for the student as a thinking and planning of lessons.

The teachers IES A2, IES A5 and IES B2, for example, refer to the observation of another teacher as a possibility to change their own practices. It is therefore from the practice of research that reside on the other the opportunity to rethink their professional performance.

So I felt I changed my classes on how to prepare them, how to give a lesson to this class. Because from the supervised trainee you start to analyze the practices, because sometimes the mistake of another
teacher you observe, you say, "no, I will not make any more mistakes, I try to go the other way, maybe that way I can have more success with my class" (Teacher IES A2).

I also realize other changes in behavior geared more to a learning that is not limited only to the pencils, the blackboard and the book. [...] The supervised trainee he lets you go beyond your practice. Are you watching, are you doing a self-assessment, is to make this exchange of knowledge, are you realizing its previous practice and observe the practices adopted by other teachers in the classroom and also apply in your classroom those practices elsewhere, say the practices of other teachers and see that it works well (Teacher IES A5).

[...] I believe I saw change, especially as I have I work in the area of early childhood education often I saw with respect to, things I did as if I'd see me at the same point I saw that there are actually things Jeez I did not see what needed to be improved. It's like well, I was seeing a mirror and from there I needed to improve on some points and then maybe "Jeez, lacked an idea there, I had an idea at that point." So from there we start to see things that we do not get to see, we only get to see from the other not from himself (Teacher IES B2).

The three present beyond the common area of change in teaching practice self-evaluation as a product of observation of practice of other teachers. Thus, observation and reflection on the making of another teacher would allow the correction of flaws in their teaching practice. So the sense of the supervised trainee as a possibility to change teaching practice linked to the importance of exchange of knowledge, as well, socialization with other teachers, while she was on "a variety of processes of interaction between social actors that provides the people's capacity to participate in society " (SOARES, 2004, p. 86). The process of exchange of knowledge from the socialization was also responsible for the ability to have access to other forms of teaching and use in their action these other forms, making sure that they are appropriate to their reality.

Specifically on teacher IES A2, we see that the change provided by internships in kindergarten and elementary school was mainly in their lesson planning. Demonstrates, therefore, the sense of importance of planning the educational act, despite this being shrouded in complexity and often evade any planning. In this direction, the course curriculum design puts as profile Pedagogy egress "professional that plans, executes and evaluates educational activities in school and non-school spaces, aimed at people at different stages of human development and seeking learning in several levels and modalities of the educational process " (PPC IES A, 2007, p. 29). In both discourses the utterance planning is present, showing how the context of the curricular project text materializes in the context of the practice of saying the teachers.

Thus, these sayings are evident that the training provided a review of the teaching practice of the teachers by observing the practice of another teacher. They undergo a disaccommodation process to the extent that they see in the practice of other teachers the opportunity to improve their own practice. Reflect about another and begin to reflect on what your doing which causes a tension between the new and the old, in molds designed by Ghedin (2012, p 170.): "Given the ongoing tension between change and accommodation is that It is necessary the introduction of reflective-critical-creative process because, through it, the voltage is kept alive and their liveliness allows the construction of new horizons of action. " It is this process that the teachers are established: first reflect on the practice of another teacher, then from critical analysis examines what can be changed on your own doing, for in order to create a new practice that is synthesis.
This reflection of the practice also allows teachers to think about the relationship they establish with their students. So the way they conceive children changes according to the acquired theoretical knowledge in basic training.

I changed a lot since I came here, I started studying correctly. For example, I have a student now in kindergarten who only likes to play with a doll, if once I was scolding every time "loose this doll, this doll is large, loose her down." So I'll now accept, I let him play, he chose not to play with it? This does not mean that it will now be gay or else if it's his choice. So I've got to respect more the student, not yelled that I screamed too much, too. Gosh, the disobedient boys I started to cry, not now, now I get to the corner, talk, even if they do not obey I keep talking to him understand that that's wrong. And also see that the student, particularly in this policy area, educating students, and giving a democratic form of listening to him, let him speak up front, understand that the child is no beast that you'll only say what she will do, she also thinks (Teacher IES B3)

The teacher IES B3 sees, for example, that before the formation acted in an authoritarian manner and did abide by the subordination of the bodies, minds and desires of children. They should just follow the authority defined by a rigid hierarchical relationship between teacher and students, which in the words of Freire (1987) operates in the deformation of individual learners. The shift from teacher also focuses on the understanding that the habits - that constituted culture, custom and conservatism (SACRISTÁN, 2012) - can through training to act in the cultural behavior of teachers produce new practices.

Thus, the signal teachers that the supervised trainee program can indeed operate in the reinterpretation of everyday practices, this one understood as theoretical and practical activity implies the "personal development with preparation for professional realization of a reflective contextualized educational practice, critical and transformative" (Souza, 2006, p. 3). A stage that considering the differences of the course student profiles has as object of study the teacher's experience that already operates in teaching.

Conclusions

Understanding that the senses are not isolated but constitute network because "these senses have to do with what is said here but also elsewhere, as well as what is not said, and what could be said and was not" (ORLANDI, 2010, p. 30), brought this article discursive movement between the senses of the supervised trainee program enrolled in curriculum projects two teaching courses in Brazil and the meanings constructed by teachers in training and experienced in teaching.

Thus, the sense of the supervised trainee in curriculum projects was linked to the sense of the teacher training, the two entered the recurrence of the statements of the theory and practice relationship, knowledge, reflection, practice, dialogue. Even understanding that the senses is the result of historical and social context in which they were produced and realizing that the two institutions had different contexts, we see links between the meanings constructed by the two in their curriculum projects.

Performed the analysis of projects, it was left for analyzing the discourses of experienced teachers establishing relations with the discourses of the curriculum projects, identifying the embodiment of what we call network sense, since the two discursive production groups showed connections between the discourses that they produced.
This network is part of a production context with certain conditions of enunciation, so both discoursive production groups produced some saying in a social context and emphasis history in serving the epistemology of practice theory that caused effects on the way they were built. The common domain presented in the directions of the two groups also shows that the words are not the property of a subject in particular because he "he says, think you know what it says, but has no access or control over the way in which the senses are in him "(ORLANDI, 2010, p. 32).

Nevertheless, the teachers, to produce such sense in conjunction with the curriculum projects, realize the supervised trainee programme contributions to their teaching practice. These contributions mark the changes / practice changes. Thus it is possible, according to them, the experience of supervised trainee program reframe do already set up years of experience with teaching, so the supervised trainee, to overcome a bureaucratic sense of fulfillment of hours, can be established for teachers experience as a place of reflection of their making.

References


School subject community in times of death of the Subject

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Studies on the history of school subjects (HSS) started by Goodson are one of the most productive investigative developments in the critical theory of curriculum. Through these studies, the epistemological conception of the school subject (SS) is questioned. The SS is then understood in the power dynamics of a specific community that supports and sustains it - and is sustained by it. Through this notion of SS, investigations in curriculum policy also become more complex, as far as it becomes important to investigate the role of contextual differences in policy due to disciplinary perspectives. In the works of our research group in curriculum policy, the notion of subject community is exploited productively in different dissertations. We strive to question the determinism of a power center over curriculum policies, as well as the postulation of a subjectivity capable of transcending any and all determination. We argue that there is no predestination that places a subjectivity/identity in a condition of political subjectivation a priori, outside the battles for significance. In turn, we agree with Goodson that subjects are part of how teachers enunciate their identities. Because of these processes, SS boundaries become even stronger. Thus,
if Goodson’s theory is positioned in relation to structural concerns and, therefore, organized with socio-historical conditions for the explanation of the phenomena, we consider relevant to deconstruct this conception of SS, to the extent that we propose to include other subjectivity senses through post-structural theory. With our perspective directed to the subjectivity in context of post-structural and political-curricular thinking, guided by theory of discourse, we discuss the possibility of thinking about the subjectivity of a subject community. If, in the post-structural record, the subjectivity is not understood with fixed identities, how can one think the significance of subject community? We theorize about the understanding of a subject community in a discursive approach, particularly concerned with the theoretical and strategic possibilities of this notion in the research of curriculum policy. We argue that the subject community is a contingent result of a discursive articulation. It is not the set of primordial knowledge to be appropriated by members of certain groups that, without which it would be excluded. It is not the group of professionals with the same training that are organized in defense of their interests and career. The subject community is the set of subjectivities formed by provisional operations in the discursive field named disciplinary. The community and the subjectivities/identifications do not have a source, a genesis. They are contextual illusions. Knowledge is built up while disciplinary subjectivities are also. Practices and knowledge are always political, because they are always submitted/constructed through disputes over interpretations. It is through different disputes that discursive communities (not discourse communities) are organized, while simultaneously organizing disciplinary identifications. Contextual demands are articulated in face of the representation of a name as a threat to meeting these same demands.

CNPq, FAPERJ

Introduction

In the works of our research group in curriculum policy, the notion of subject community (Goodson, 1993; 1994) is exploited productively in different researches. In a movement we initiated with Stephen Ball (Ball, 1983) and deepened with Laclau’s theory of discourse (1996; 2005), we then began to operate with discursive perspectives and decentered structures. We strive to question the determinism of a power center over curriculum policies, as well as the postulation of a subjectivity capable of transcending any and all determination. We proceed to argue that there is not, in principle, any predestination that places a subjectivity/identity in a condition of political subjectivation a priori from the battles for significance.

In turn, we agree with Goodson (1993) that disciplinarity, particularly in high school, but not only in it, is part of how teachers enunciate their identities. School subjects are linked to teacher’s professional identity and understood as cultures that create a conceptual context in which teachers work and reinterpret curricular definitions (Grossman and Stodolsky, 1995). Affiliations to subject communities are interpreted as capable of influencing the teachers’ ways of teaching, their perceptions and self-image, conceived as a space for the construction of teacher’s needs (Tytler, Symington, Darby, Malcolm and Kirkwood, 2011). In addition, curricula remain operated on behalf of school subjects.

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33Research group Curriculum policy and culturewww.curriculo-uerj.pro.br (in English, Portuguese and Spanish)
Thus, if Goodson’s theory is positioned in relation to structural concerns and, therefore, organized with socio-historical conditions for the explanation of the phenomena, we consider relevant to reconceptualize the subject community category, or even perform its deconstruction, to the extent that we propose to include other subjectivity senses through post-structural theory. While we acknowledge the impossibility of containment of differential senses, we point out that our distance from Goodson’s reading of “community” takes place, also, due to our distance to the assumption of the existence of common, positive data, capable of generating cohesion and/or unity among individuals. These features characterizes the community approach in which Goodson’s is based, namely, the sociological and anthropological/ethnographic perspective. Hence, with our perspective directed to the subjectivity in context of post-structural and political-curricular thinking, guided by our history of research and Laclau's theory of discourse, we discuss the possibility of thinking about the subjectivity of a community, in this case the subject one, or its subjectivations, in a discursive approach. If the subjectivity is not understood with fixed identities in the post-structural record, if there is no ontological foundations outside contingent dynamics, if the Subject (with capital S) does not exist, how can one think the significance of subject community? How to operate with the idea of a subject community as a collective subjectivity without essentializing this subjectivity?

In this presentation, we aim to theorize about the understanding of a subject community in a discursive approach, particularly concerned with the theoretical and strategic possibilities of this notion in the research of curriculum policy. In summary, in these times in which the death of the centered, conscious and cohesive Subject is assumed (Hall, 2003; Laclau, 1996), what precisely do we mean by subjectivity (collective or not) when we are talking about a subject community?

**Discourse and subjectivation (in) policies**

To Goodson (1983; 1985; 1988; 1993; 1994), a community is composed of a history and is mobilized by a range of factors and individual and collective possibilities, engaged in professional missions, also of corporate nature, and, therefore, authorized by a gravitational center - the school subject identification - giving them an essence, a common sense, comm(on)unity. With the incorporation of theory of discourse in the reading of what the subject community may be, the interpretation of the political subjectivity as not being individual or person aware of his/her possibilities in the face of a problematic policy stands out. In Laclau (1996), the political subjectivity consists precariously in the temporariness: differential demands, in view of the representation of a threat (an antagonist), are articulated discursively, precipitating subjectivities in policies. In other words, the subjectivity is not conceived from his/her life story, his/her work experience, his/her political party or corporate engagement, but rather contingently produced, through discursive means, upon precipitation, by social differences articulated in an equivalential moment. Subjectivity (subjectivation) is related to circulating and articulated senses in relation to a name. It is produced by senses disseminated by/in the significance process of the social. It has no ground, but contingent significations.

Based on Lacanian’s psychoanalytic theory, Laclau (2005) considers that the unity of a given object is simply retroactive and resulting from its naming process. There is a heterogeneous array of features whose unity is

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34It is worth noting Laclau’s argument (Emancipations, page 21).
sustained by the name. Without the presence of the name, the community – produced in a context of subjectivation - would dissolve in a spray of disarticulated elements. The same would happen with its antagonistic identity.

According to Laclau (1996; 2005), it is based on the set of differences involved in the articulation that an individual demand will represent, precariously, the entire chain of equivalence. In that condition, this difference begins to undergo emptying/excess of fulfillment of senses. In order to encompass the totality, it seeks to admit the maximum adherence by all other differences involved, so that these are supplemented and integrated in the representation through this identity that opens up to try to represent the others. In this process of openness to other senses arising from other social identifications, in the search for universalization, this peculiarity becomes hegemonic (Laclau, 2005). For Laclau, hegemony is precisely the process (metonymic) whereby a signifier, a name, comes to represent something larger, where the particular assumes an universal function.

In the hegemonization process, a demand shall be emptied of its previous senses and meanings and will conform into an empty signifier (Laclau, 2005). To represent a totality, an empty signifier cannot be signified univocally, precisely and directly. It presents itself "in the fulfillment" of senses. That is the condition for all identities involved in the chain of equivalences, in articulation, to be solidary in the representation, so that they begin to see understood in the same political struggle, even if distinctly in meaning (Laclau, 1996). However, we stress that, in the same field, it is possible to have signifiers whose senses are sharper or nuanced, even if not fixed. The articulations that lead them to coalesce certain demands are sustained on precarious and contingent ground of the political articulations. Such signifier, capable of producing/binding to specific meanings, is conceived by Laclau (2005) as a fluctuating signifier.

When a signifier slides among different processes of signification, interpreted in different ways, catalyzing senses of specific groups in society, but at the same time not acting as a representing the whole, it happens to be conceived as a fluctuating signifier, linked to several specific senses. It is noteworthy that the borderline between empty and fluctuating signifiers is not as sharp, and it is possible, at times, for one to act as the other, since it is by excessive fluctuation that the emptying, never full, operates. It’s conceive such identity constructions streamlined by translation processes that constantly percolate the discourse, enabling the surplus of meaning and, hence, sustaining, by continuous deconstruction, the equivalences produced in the differential wholeness.

We ponder that, if Goodson’s subject community were read directly through these initial lenses of theory of discourse, one might point out that, in other articulations, a given subjectivity may (would) act antagonistically to what it (would) identify as subject community at a given (other) context. This is because, for Laclau (1996), the process of subjectivation is not by a positive adherence to a particular political platform, by an awareness or respect/sense of mission to its socio-historical factors. In another record, the subjectivation is triggered by the opposition to something meant as a threat.

There is not, in Laclau, the possibility of accounting for a hard core, as a symmetry among the differences, of a community that is able to render itself essential, and, hence, function as a guide to decision-making. Antagonism is the element that generates a sense of cohesion to the differences involved in a given discursive construction, against a given negativity, something with which to confront.
The uncertainty, ephemerality and inconsistency of the constitution of subjectivities, from Laclau, leads to conjecture that the community is composed of the most different senses, by fragmentation and differential readings. These senses and readings cannot have a history with the school subject and not be owned (professionally or by a common training) by a disciplinary field to which they are, in a specific context, constituting a community.

By stressing this reading of a subjectivity (subjectivation), we emphasize that the character of its non-consciousness focuses not only on the fact that this subjectivity is constituted, temporarily, by endless dynamics, that it is uncontrollable (logic of difference), and by attempts of coalition, of reconciliation, among these dynamics in places, non-existent, they think common (logic of equivalence). However, also, by the consequent reading that the very problematic motivating politics (or policy) is nothing more than a unique reading/signification of a name, a word, a flag, whose ultimate meaning is never given.

To consider the production of politics or policies, as curriculum policies, as developing through discursivity, entails the conception of social, of subjectivity, of political struggle, of political motivations, as displaced from historicist, structural foundations and of a vision of subjectivity capable of consciously acting strategically in order to carry out his/her projects. Strategies are in the order of the non-political calculation, unable to account for meaning, of eliminating the possibilities of translating, of iterating.

To review the social through the significance is to consider that there are no fixed centers able to stabilize the significance of the past and to (pre-) determine the future of a political articulation, of a policy, of a subjectivity. It is to bear in mind that if meaning is not stagnant, it is not permanently closed, it is because all the elements of which we speak, treat, accuse, defend, are nothing more than provisional meanings of important signifiers, detachable, made prominent at any given time of policy or politics. Due to this reading, the implications over policy, politics, discipline, school subjects and the subjectivity does not go unpunished, and are reconceptualized as meaning, as moments, as postponements of a becoming (devenir).

This discursive interpretation of subjectivation is made possible by an understanding of the discourse as an integrity woven by relationships of signifiers that temporarily hold the significance of certain practices and, once articulated, delimit a discursive formation (Laclau, 1996). In discursive structuring, the attempt of closure is a constant, as it is constant the opening of the field of discursivity to the surplus of meaning. Such closures of significance occur only when its limit is found. This is only defined from the moment that an exterior, an antagonist of differential elements involved in the articulation process is determined. For Laclau (1996), the existence of the system is a direct result of its excluding limit. The exterior is then a differential element that is out of articulation.

The difference, projected as a threat, leads this antagonism toward other differences, dispersed in the social whole, to generate a chain in which these differences become equivalent, although never equal. Thus, the generation of a chain of equivalence is the time in which differences temporarily pause due to a common opposition to a projected threat.

In this perspective, the community is always a heterogeneous set of articulated particular demands, made equivalent, in the face of an identity threat, in a given context created by the same discursive description. The idea of an institutionalized and cohesive community supposedly universalized is due to particular demands that are provisionally and contextually able to represent the same community, ensuring it an always absent plenitude and
homogeneity. The representation of this community is always the attempt to homogenize - thus simplify - heterogeneity. As discussed by Laclau (2005), the institutionalized discourse is always that which tries to make the limits of a discursive formation to coincide with the limits of the community.

When Laclau points to the conflicting relationship between difference and equivalence, he is also drawing attention to the very laws and proper motions of equivalential chain. Nothing guarantees that, at a given time, there are no sacrifices or compromises of certain demands. This notion, according to the philosopher, emphasizes the provisional, contextual and precarious nature of discursive formations. Also, it stresses the lack of a certain convergence determined a priori, the contingent and emergency nature of community production, whose relationship is based on an intrinsic negativity to the very equivalential relationship.

If the identities produced in the articulation are constituted in this motion of annulment or, at least, of a pause of its differential expression, coalescing with other differences against a supposed common opposition, the notion of having an enemy that, like the very chain of equivalence, is also consolidated in an empty place seems to be consistent.

**Subject community as discursive articulation**

We argue here in favor of a school subject as discursive construction. There is no common training or primordial knowledge or even consensual epistemological commitments to be appropriated by the members of a community, without which it would be excluded. We argue that such trainings, knowledge and commitments are built while we become disciplinary. It is through different political struggles that school subjects are made hegemonic and identifications/subjectivities are constituted in these struggles. School subjects, seen in this light, are not linked to the identity setting process, but are discursive communities.

The subject community, consisting of equivalential relations, is based on articulated differences in a specific policy: policies in support of a curriculum centralization, those that propose curriculum by competences, which strengthen the links between curriculum and assessment and many others that we can investigate. From a supposed wider social whole, differences are articulated and certain communities, or equivalential identifications are formed, not by having a foundational property, but because, on one occasion, they are jointly opposed to a constitutive exterior, with which an antagonism is established. They are opposed to a threatening subjectivity and, thus, are constituted as precarious and provisional subjectivity, marked, precisely by the illusion of speaking the same language, building a knowledge, epistemological foundations and legitimacy practices supposed as non-political.

These are the subjectivities produced in the political articulation. We conceive its operations beyond Goodson’s idea of subject community, based on identified groups, in associations, institutions and disciplinary or subject matter timbres. We also emphasize not to be the consideration of other institutions, “external” or non-disciplinary, non-school, the reason for the redefinition of the proposed subject community, but rather to understand that the attempt to stabilization of such influences, even in Goodson’s work, already mark/signal the productive potential of disseminated discourses. It means to take into account that understanding a curriculum policy of a school subject goes beyond enumeration of (pre) supposed actors or institutions. In this record, the subject community is formed by subjectivities constituted in provisional operations in the discursive field of the school subject.
The subject community conceived in a discursive perspective - the discursive community - is a space of ongoing dispute for signification, for the hegemony of senses, not having, therefore, a stable center, an integrative positivity. The threat to which it opposes is also constructed in this perspective. As the differences articulated in the chain in focus does not cease to exist, but are limited due to the equivalence that subverts them in the articulation, the heterogeneous and unstable character of equivalential chain is highlighted and, thus, sets up its opposite, its enemy, in the same way.

In these terms, research questions are changed. We then attempt to understand what is named as a school subject, who speaks on behalf of the school subject and who defends this name in/for the school curriculum, what this naming excludes and against what it operates. If the history of school subjects already made us understand that the investigation of a school subject could not cease in the identification of its name in the curricula plans, so as to affirm or not the teaching of their matter in school, the research of school subjects in the curriculum policy in a discursive approach disconnects, once and for all, that link between the name of the school subject and the subject matter. Supported by the separation between signifier and signified, developed after the post-structural record, the name of the relation between the name of the school subject and the subject matter is designed as a set of epistemological meanings, politically articulated on behalf of a disciplinary significant.

In theoretical and strategic terms, the discursive boundaries of a subject community cannot be defined in advance to political actions. Neither can social actors be listed as stable, stabilized and stabilizing leaders, as authorities constituted of an epistemological record, even if socially constructed, producing senses to curriculum policies, indifferent to policy itself. Through the name of a school subject and the very disciplining of school, curricular interpretations are sedimented. In an attempt to stabilize a curriculum, pedagogical actions are constituted, beyond and below the actions of professional teachers, legitimized as spokespersons for this name. To investigate curriculum, its policies, its organization or its history, seeking to contain once and for all the boundaries of what is named as subject community becomes a vain and necessarily imprecise task.

Final Words

In conclusion, the subject community is a result - precarious, temporary, contingent, - of a discursive articulation. It is not the set of primordial knowledge to be appropriated by members of certain groups that, without which it would be excluded. It is not the group of professionals with the same training that are organized in defense of their interests and career. The subject community, through the argument we have built, is the set of subjectivities formed in provisional operations in the discursive field named disciplinary. The community and the subjectivities/identifications do not have a source, a genesis, they are contextual illusions. Knowledge is built up while disciplinary subjectivities are also. Practices and knowledge are always political, because they are always submitted/constructed through disputes over interpretations. It is through different disputes that discursive communities are organized, while simultaneously organizing disciplinary identifications. Contextual demands are articulated in face of the representation of a name as a threat to meeting these same demands. With this, we succumb to interpretation, and commit ourselves to the construction of arguments that render reasonable what we stand for. In this or any other disciplinary field.
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Curriculum and curriculum contextualisation: Theory and practice of student teachers

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With the economic, social and cultural changes in the globalised world today, the school becomes a stage and a place of encounters among different cultures. It needs to be viable with regard to training individuals with cognitive and social skills, preparing them to face the reality of everyday life and to be able to produce their own stories. The required educational paradigm must be capable of providing individual(s) with a set of abilities and competences which will enable them to learn continuously throughout their lives. For this to happen, the teaching-learning processes must be centred on the students such that they may become the builders of their own knowledge and not focused on processes of accumulation and reproduction of knowledge from the perspective of a uniform curriculum. The curriculum should not, therefore, be considered from a normative and prescriptive perspective, but rather as a project covering the different interests of the educational agents participating in the process.

Consequently, we will talk of curriculum contextualisation, a polysemous concept which needs to be clarified in conceptual terms. We associate this concept to the territorialisation of the curriculum proposed at national level,
which favours activities and learning experiences that are familiar to the realities of students, so as to increase successful outcomes for all.

In geographical education, one of its key concepts is space. The originality of geographical reasoning resides in exercises of conceptualisation and confronting problems at several scales, preparing students to better “know how to think about space” and to consistently “act in the environment in which they live”.

The problems studied should be approached in an active manner, because students, when confronted with concrete problems, should be able to idealise solutions, employing geographical knowledge, procedures and techniques. It is important that the students’ territories be taken as the point of departure and arrival for the didactical pathway, alternating learning in specific spaces and different territories throughout the world, at different scales. In other words, when studying geographical themes, one should go from the local to the global and from there back to the local. The concern with attributing meaning to contents studied in the classroom, relating them to their daily lives and experienced reality, also encompasses the idea that elements of a broader, more global reality can be found in the local place.

This paper intends to present a study we have been conducting into the extent to which the practices followed by geography student teachers are interpretations of the geography curriculum guidelines, aimed at developing geographical education. To what extent do they contextualise the curriculum, or not, when developing geographical education. Even though their training has been directed at promoting such a contextualisation, the truth is that, in practice, it has not really been applied.

**Introduction**

In today’s globalised world, the school has become a stage for encounters among different cultures and for intense transformations in the social sphere. Education therefore should be regarded as a training process that serves to foster the personal, social, cultural, educational and professional development of young people, allowing them to develop the ability for continuous lifelong learning. This means each individual should be given the possibility to develop their specific abilities, so as to integrate and act in an increasingly complex society, embedded in a wealth of knowledge. In this rapidly changing society, the interests of young people are no longer those they once were, which may explain the rejection of many in relation to school. Schools and their teachers are confronted with the need to find different paths to stimulate their interest in learning, which also requires a different form of professional teacher training.

Thus, the teaching and learning processes need to be rethought and will necessarily have to be contextualised and centred on the students, leading them to be the builders of their own knowledge. This is a difficult task for teachers who, given the diversity of school publics and easy access to countless sources of information, are forced to consider learning as continuous construction.

Consequently, the curriculum can no longer be approached from a normative and prescriptive perspective, but should rather be regarded within the logic of a project that encompasses the different interests and characteristics of the educational agents involved in the process, particularly the students.
Although many institutions and even society still consider that learning is receiving, decoding, understanding and storing information of different orders which should be reproduced when solicited, our conception of learning involves better understanding the environment in which each individual lives and knowing how to make use of that knowledge. As advocated by Zabalza, we believe “learning is a process of individual empowerment that enables each subject to adapt to their environment and integrate it as competent individuals capable of making, to the best of their abilities, pertinent decisions” (2012, p.19).

If the concept of curriculum contextualisation is polysemous, it can be considered according to different dimensions or perspectives. It is still a concept in development, which has not yet completely stabilised, but which is gradually achieving a level of consolidation.

This paper thus begins by exploring the concept, its meanings and senses. Different curricular subjects can contribute greatly to the development of curriculum contextualisation. Geographical reasoning and the objects of study in school geography allow students, when confronted with real problems, to idealise solutions and apply their knowledge, taking as points of departure and arrival their didactical paths, their territories and alternate the acquired understandings in specific spaces, different territories and at different scales. The study of geographical matters should go from the local to the global and from there back to the local. Thus, the second point addressed in this paper is the conceptual renovation of school geography. The third point focuses on the approach to initial teacher training developed by geography teachers within the Master’s course in Teaching History and Geography offered by the Faculty of Arts and Humanities of the University of Porto. In order to frame this research, brief references will be made to the National Geography Curriculum for Basic Education and the recent changes operated. Finally, the methodology applied is described and the study’s final considerations are put forward.

1. Curriculum contextualisation: meanings and senses

The concept of curriculum contextualisation in Portugal has been broadened in educational language. As stated by Zabalza (2012, p.2), “this concept has gained greater strength among academics than among politicians”, but it appears as an alternative discourse to rethink the school, its very territory, local culture and the needs and resources of the context.

When we explore the meaning of curriculum contextualisation, its polysemous nature becomes quite evident. Seen from different angles, political, curricular, social, cultural and educational, according to Mouraz et al (2012, p.33), “the contextualisation of knowledge [or curriculum contextualisation] is linked to the perception each individual has of teaching and learning, as well as of the social function it is attributed”. Consequently, curriculum contextualisation can also be understood as “a set of didactical-pedagogical guidelines and practices that intend to work on curriculum contents such that they become more cognitively and socially relatable to the students and the contexts in which the teaching-learning processes unfold, making them more familiar and consequently more meaningful and understandable” (ibidem). Although it is difficult to find a concrete definition, curriculum contextualisation seems to be related to the idea that the curriculum has to be appropriate to the context in which it is applied but, above all, appropriate to the students (Fernandes et al, 2011) it is targeting.

Curriculum contextualisation thus enhances the interconnection between scientific knowledge (the curriculum defined nationally) and the students’ knowledge (acquired in the local context), with room to intersect official
knowledge with the students’ experimental knowledge and the school’s local culture. This opens the way to implementing pedagogical strategies that can be used systematically in the teaching-learning process.

In line with Fernandes et al (2011) and Machado et al (2012), we consider curriculum contextualisation as a “mode of pedagogical work that intends to relate the teaching-learning processes, the curriculum and the students’ social and cultural realities, their prior knowledge and cognitive styles, so as to give learning orientation and meaning. The main goal consists in the students being able to give meaning and sense to the leaning taking place at school.”

Accordingly, instead of teaching contents separated from the students’ contexts, hoping they discover how to transfer what they have learnt to their lives outside schools, teachers are obliged to implement teaching-learning processes based on their real-life contexts and use them in each stage of the process.

Contextualising the curriculum thus means adjusting it to the teaching-learning process according to the personal, sociocultural and professional characteristics, needs and interests of the students and represents the necessary condition for each student to make sense and use of what they learn, thus appropriating the meanings of the contents. This is possible if the students’ prior experiences and conceptions are taken into account, as well as their motivations and paces of learning.

Curriculum contextualisation is seen in different dimensions and from different perspectives. In the process to develop the curriculum, the environment, the context, is a structural element in the organisation of pedagogical work. The environment in which the school is located becomes an open and problematic didactic resource. It necessarily presents diversities, disparities and particularities in terms of culture, traditions, customs and economic potential, comprising a fundamental element in more significant learning on the part of students, because it is focused on the reality which is most familiar to them. Educational work on the environment requires systematisation, logical diligence, and selective attention, which leads students to work on situations that are real and significant to them. The study of real situations leads us to scientific and linguistic aspects, as well as to the possibility of developing logical-conceptual concepts to describe and explain the phenomena students face in their daily lives. This pedagogical practice instigated by the teachers should involve the students, making them the centre of decision and empowering them to provide quality answers to the challenges they are posed. It is about making the student the centre of school life. The development of differentiated pedagogical practices fosters learning and classroom dynamics that respond to the different needs, expectations, paces and styles of the students. From the classroom experience, based on a process of effectively contextualised curriculum development, each educational institution can design their own projects, essential to implementing a flexible organisation aimed at adapting the curriculum to the characteristics, needs, interests and learning paces of students and, consequently, to the diversity and heterogeneity specific to each territory. Hence, curriculum contextualisation can be regarded as the intention to give schools and teachers autonomy to develop the curriculum based on collective and individual decisions. They can thus relate the contents worked in the classroom to the environment in which they are located and address the demands of their learners. Furthermore, curriculum contextualisation means teachers are no longer merely the executors of decisions taken outside the school, but become rather the curriculum designers and decision-makers, taking their pedagogical practice as a structural dimension of curriculum contextualisation. Therefore, the intention of “giving voice” to the students is present, responding also to the diversity within the school, whether it be cultural, cognitive or ethical diversity. Interlinked to pedagogical practice, subject fields are also a reference, particularly with regard to the pedagogical modes of work
developed and the manner in which they are developed. Understood as an articulated and integrated approach to the contexts of several disciplinary subjects, it serves not only to provide a comprehensive view of the knowledge acquired at school, but also gives students the means to appropriate the reality they experience.

2. Conceptual renewal of school geography

Many authors have developed studies on school geography focused on its conceptual and methodological renewal. A few differences separate the proposals presented by the different scholars, but they all endorse a conceptual renewal of school geography, recommending that geography should be “anchored (...) in the learning of fundamental concepts and key questions around which the subject structures its identity” (Cachinho, 2000, p.75). It is thus important to define topics, contents and techniques which “are able to develop the ability to think about space in students, so that they can, conscientiously, act in their environment, which, given growing globalisation, today intersects very distinct geographical scales, ranging from the neighbourhood where they reside to the far reaches of the globe” (ibidem). Space is the key concept for all. Space as the object of geographical analysis conceived of not as an object in itself to be described in detail, but rather as abstract form, “a theoretical construct, a category of analysis, which allows students to learn about the dimension of the spatiality of/in the things in the world” (Cavalcanti, 2011, p.195). It should thus become an intellectual tool used to analyse reality.

In order for young people to develop the ability to know how to think about space, so that they can conscientiously act in the environment in which they live, the teaching-learning process developed at school has also to undergo a methodological renewal (Cachinho, 2000; Merrene-Schoumaker, 1999). The goal is to develop geographical thought that can lead students to understand the complexity of the reality of daily life, helping them to form spatial reasoning so they can understand the world around them.

In line with Pinchemel (1982a), more than teach geography, we should educate people geographically. Consequently, we should focus on developing real, social, spatial, and dynamic problems, which can be applied in practice (Hugonie, 1989). In his turn, Merrene-Schoumaker (1999), citing L. Cornu and A. Vergonious, advocates a didactical path as a methodology to teach geography that includes concepts placed in a network, which then provides a real research model to read the territories. It is thus possible to “unite the most dispersed knowledge acquired, making the students’ conceptions coherent and making them evolve, [and] concepts are also research tools since they relate phenomena which can then form the basis for new research”. Cachinho (2000) defends that learning is all the more significant the closer the students are to reality and to situations that affect their daily lives and the society in which they live, ultimately serving to establish relationships with what is happening in the space of others. Consequently, “it is by reflecting on the major social and environmental problems that today affect mankind, teaching students to raise questions and formulate assumptions and hypotheses on those same problems, as well as critically question the information they receive about them, that we can truly develop the geographical reasoning that is fundamental to raising responsible, geographically competent citizens” (Cachinho, 2000, p.77).

The problems that comprise the objects of study should be analysed in a comprehensive and systemic manner, in their elements and relations, confronting analyses at different scales and recognising that spatial relations and processes vary with changes in geographical scale (Lacoste, 1980; Cachinho, 2000). According to Cachinho
the originality of geographical reasoning resides in the exercises of conceptualisation and confrontation of problems at several scales, preparing students to better “know how to think about space”, and to conscientiously “act in the environment in which they live”. Furthermore, the problems studied should be addressed in an active manner, because students, when confronted with concrete problems, should be able to idealise solutions, employing geographical knowledge, procedures and techniques.

Furthermore, as defended by Merrene-Schoumaker, it is important that the students’ territories be taken as the point of departure and arrival for the didactical pathway, alternating learning in specific spaces and different territories at different scales throughout the world. In other words, when studying geographical topics, one should go from the local to the global and from there back to the local (Calai, 1999).

There is however great difficulty in successfully articulating the scales involved in apprehending reality, often falling back on “teaching based on the local, the experienced, the lived” (Cavalcanti, 2011, p.197), without changing the modes of pedagogical work in which knowledge is facts, concepts and objects. The processes are not addressed, and the intention and opportunity to help students form, on the basis of theoretical reasoning, broad concepts which will take them farther, beyond their immediate world.

Merrene-Schoumaker (1999, p.105) defends that “knowing how to think about space means understanding the world better so as to act in it more efficiently” aspects that are essential to the planning and development process of any space.

We are thus dealing with a school subject that, due to its fundamental concepts, key questions and teaching methodology can contribute to curriculum contextualisation practices in institutions.

3. Training teachers for curriculum contextualisation

Students of the Master’s in Teaching History and Geography of the Faculty of Arts and Humanities, University of Porto, are first introduced to teaching these subjects for basic and secondary education in the 1st year modules, ‘Geography Teaching Methodology’ and ‘Teaching Resources in History and Geography’. Students become familiar with geographical and pedagogical discourse, coming into contact with the theoretical concepts that guide curriculum development, which highlights the role of the teacher as researcher and promoter of autonomy, and the concepts of planning and evaluation in the teaching-learning process. Students are encouraged to master correct and original forms of fostering the didactics of geography and become teachers in this subject.

It is believed that students come to school with prior knowledge based on which they build new knowledge and are far from being empty vessels. There is a need to put into practice a teaching of geography based on cognitive and metacognitive strategies, intended to make students aware of their own knowledge. From a methodological point of view, we believe teachers should promote cognitive conflict and apply activities based on discovery.

We have proposed methodologies anchored in the use of different languages, verbal, musical, that of images, cartography, and technological resources, which link the classroom to reality and the students’ daily lives. We believe that they help students identify the contents studied and adapt them to a meaningful learning. Teachers should not however stop only at raising students’ awareness, but go further, and use the contents to foster the students’ intellectual development, based on training in geographical reasoning.
This geographical reasoning shall always imply links with the territory, highlighting the answer to the question(s) “Where?” and “Why there and not somewhere else?” (Merrene-Schoumaker), as well as learning to confront analyses at different scales and select the best spatial level to deal with the question, that is, it is multiscale and necessarily dynamic. Dynamic in the retrospective and prospective sense, seeking to find, in the evolutions of the past, the explanations for the spatial structures of the present and, based on current trends, separate the elements to conceive scenarios of the future. Geographical reasoning is rooted in a scientific path and includes the representations each individual conceives of the territory.

In this constructivist context, the planning of the teaching-learning process should depart from pre-concepts and focus on conceptual maps, bearing always in mind that new concepts will only be appropriated by the students if they are meaningful and if they are perceived in light of the conceptual frameworks they possess.

A planning model is developed, a conceptual planning, which is based on the students’ prior conceptions from which problem-situations are proposed. The students are guided through successive stages, until these situations are resolved, thus promoting meaningful learnings and consequently the construction of knowledge and conceptual change. Given this view, planning should include a process of curriculum development, which conceives, implements and evaluates the educational act. To embrace this approach, teachers have to become more involved with and committed to the school community in general and to their students in particular, so as to understand their prior conceptions and thus help them to build upon their knowledge. “Planning is assumed as a method and a work instrument, always open to new experiences and any type of innovation, being thus a flexible, interactive, open and incomplete activity” (Braga, 2004, p.29). Planning “involves creating stimulating environments that provide activities which are not predictable at the outset and which, (...) address the diversity of situations and different points of departure of students. This assumes that activities should be planned that present the contents in such a way as to make them meaningful, helping to develop competences in learning how to learn” (ibidem, p.27).

In the school context, teachers can devise several types of planning according to the different moments of the teaching-learning process. It is common to talk of long-term, mid-term and short-term planning. In terms of the teacher training we defend, when we talk of long-term planning, we mean devising an annual plan. Although there are several models, it should cover the topics and contents to be developed (thematic, procedural and attitudinal), presented throughout the year within the time available to work, defining the number of classes necessary for each topic. It is also framed by the national and local legal documents, namely, the National Curriculum, the School’s Educational and Curriculum Projects, and the Class Curriculum Project. Given its time range, the annual plan is generic and undetailed, but should serve as the basis for all the other plans developed during the academic year.

Mid-term planning, which is the case of the Didactical Unit Plan (DUP), allows the teachers to develop each teaching unit, interlinked to the Annual Plan. It is a working tool which allows the teachers to organise their educational practice, adjusting the teaching-learning process to the students’ needs. The students, future teachers, are encouraged to design the DUP to include all the structuring elements (initial evaluation, thematic, procedural and attitudinal contents, educational and evaluation situations), which can serve as an organisational vector. They are encouraged to take decisions of a didactical nature so as to organise teaching-learning situations anchored
around an Aggregating Educational Situation (AES)*35. In this way, they students should make an integrated management of the geography curriculum, that is, conceive of the teaching of the subject “not in an automated manner, not centred on or dedicated to concept a, b, or c, and not in a linear sequence, class after class, concept after concept, etc.” (Martins, 2011, p.237). It is our goal “to show that it is possible to conceive of planning in an integrated manner, so that it can be used in the field, break with routines and yield new practices, as well as appropriate new ways of developing geographical education” (ibidem).

4. The National Geography Curriculum for Basic Education

At the beginning of the 2010s, the National Geography Curriculum for Basic and Secondary Education was changed. Up until then, school geography for basic education favoured specific competences in the subject and their appropriation should make young people geographically competent. That is, it was believed that a geographically competent citizen could master spatial skills and prove he was capable of spatially visualising the facts, interrelating them, of correctly describing the environment in which he lived or worked, of elaborating a mental map at different scales, of understanding spatial patterns and comparing them and of finding his way on the earth’s surface.

It was also thought that, apart from these spatial skills, a geographically competent citizen should also “be able to critically interpret and analyse geographical information and understand the relationship between territorial, cultural and heritage entity and regional individuality” (ME, p.6).

Thus, during the teaching and learning process, teachers were expected to promote educational experiences that aimed to develop, among others, research skills. Teachers should develop experiences and create situations in which students would learn to observe, record, and process information, raise hypotheses, formulate questions, and present results. At the same time, geographical skills should be developed both at the level of fieldwork and group work, which were believed fostered the promotion of ideas and the production of conclusions.

Based on the different learning experiences suggested, geography teachers could organise the teaching-learning processes as they considered most appropriate to the contexts of their school(s) and their class(es), creating the conditions for their students to undertake activities which would enable them to develop the ability to know how to think about space and be able to act in the environment in which they lived.

As mentioned earlier, at the beginning of the 2010s, the National Curriculum changed. Today, it has come to be understood as a “set of contents and aims that, adequately intersected, comprise the basis on which teaching and the students' performance evaluation are based” (D.L. nº. 139/2012). The curriculum is implemented in study plans and knowledge and abilities to be acquired and developed by the students, taking as their reference the subjects’ programmes and the learning goals each student is required to achieve in each school year and educational cycle. The goals establish that which can be considered as the essential learning the students should achieve and comprise the reference which teachers and tutors/parents should take as their reference (ibidem).

*35 Identify a situation (an idea, a sentence, a motto) which gives each unit coherence, aggregating the knowledge to be learnt, as well as the students' and teachers' interests, the potential of the people involved and the environment in which they live, as well as the available materials and resources.
The focus is once again placed on the students’ cognitive development, taking as a reference the aims and formal learning contents established by the programmes and learning goals.

With the institutionalisation of curriculum goals for geography in basic education, the topics are now organised hierarchically and sequentially, which was not the case before. The domains are divided into subdomains and general aims which are specified into rigorous descriptors of cognitive performance which serve to evaluate the aims formulated. Many aims and descriptors have been hierarchised to be taught in only three academic years. It will be very difficult in Portuguese schools for students to learn geography based on a teaching-learning process where the student, by discovery, is motivated to become geographically educated. That is, to learn how to discuss real, social, dynamic problems which can be applied (Hugonie, 1989). It will be very difficult to provide students with teaching-learning situations which will allow them to respond to basic questions for which geographers have always tried to find answers. What we foresee, rather, is a teaching of geography based on simple memorisation of facts and concepts, distanced from what today is widely understood as that which should be taught to young people. What we also predict is a teacher as consumer of the curriculum rather that its designer.

However, we intend to continue providing initial teacher training based on modes of pedagogical work that encourage curriculum contextualisation with regard to the contribution made by geography. To this end, we continue to promote the geographical education that should be developed with young students and to endorse the contribution the subject can give to the integrated education of young people today.

5. Research methodology

In the measure that the National Geography Curriculum for Basic Education changed so radically in recent years, we intended to understand how it has been interpreted by future geography teachers in initial training. We should highlight that these young people had been secondary school students three years earlier, and that their perception of the teaching process was still closely tied to the descriptive process. For them, the concept of learning was intimately connected to receiving, decoding, understanding and storing information that was to be reproduced afterwards.

We thus asked the 19 students attending the subjects of Geography Teaching Methodology to design a DUP of a conceptual type. Thus, during the 2013/2014 academic year, each student was required to design a DUP, bearing in mind the teaching methodology developed and the school context. Based on the official and local documents of each school selected (Educational Project, School Curriculum Project), each student planned a didactical unit at their school. It was a complex task given the diversity of topics and each student’s points of view on the conceptions of teaching-learning. At the end, we obtained 19 unit plans. These were analysed according to the content analysis technique, based on pre-established categories.

From the 19 plans developed, 14 were indeed plans of a conceptual type. Not only did the students take into account the official national documents but also the local ones, having identified an AES and proposed educational situations that were truly problem-situations. They proposed a pedagogical practice involving the participation of the students making them the centre of the decision-making and leading them to accomplish tasks related to the research. In this way, they were able to plan diversified educational situations that were truly innovative, which led
the students to observe the environment, record the phenomena, process the information, raise hypotheses, formulate conclusions and present results. These plans presented an open, dynamic and flexible scheme.

Only 5 students opted for a different type of didactical unit plan. Their plans were of a linear type, structured into sequential stages of teaching that were the same for all the students and, in the educational situations, the student was hardly considered as the centre or focus.

As we intended to understand how the students who had designed the DUP of a conceptual type interpreted the Geography Curriculum Guidelines and Curriculum Goals in the school context (2nd year), that is, in a real situation in the environment in which they were located, the school, we once again asked them to design a DUP that would be the object of content analysis.

Hence, the following academic year (2014/2015), these students were accomplishing their teacher training internships at different schools. In their Supervised Teaching Practice course unit, they were required to design didactical unit plans related to the topics they were going to teach in their classes. Each student completed 3 unit plans, some quite extensive given that the topic thus required it. For this reason, we selected 10 students among the 19 teacher trainees, who has likewise prepared conceptual plans the year before. We thus obtained 30 DUPs which were analysed according to the content analysis technique, following the same categories applied in the first stage of the study.

It is here that we discovered that none of the students designed a DUP of the conceptual type. On the contrary, all had plans of a linear type, configuring educational situations much more centred on the transmission of didactical contents and each topic's goals and descriptors, often stated and prescribed by the school textbooks used, and much less on the national legal norms.

**Final considerations**

As we mentioned previously, curriculum contextualisation is seen as a pedagogical mode of work which intends, through the teaching-learning process, to interrelate the curriculum, the environment, the students' social and cultural realities, their cognitive styles and prior knowledge, so as to attribute meaning and sense to the learning taking place at school.

This means teachers should structure the teaching-learning processes based on the real-life contexts of their students, such that can be used in each stage of the teaching-learning process, giving them autonomy to develop the curriculum and thus become curriculum designers.

In terms of teaching school geography, reconceptualising the curriculum is based on making young people aware of the ability to think about space in order to be able to act in the environment in which they live and, as such, understand the complexity of daily reality, helping them to develop spatial thinking and understand the world around them.

If in the 2000s, this was the focus of the National Geography Curriculum for Basic Education, in the 2010s, teacher is no longer centred on the student, but rather on the formal learning contents established by the curriculum goals. Even with this curricular inversion, the initial training of teachers continued to develop a geography teaching methodology and didactical practices involved recontextualisation of teaching in this subject. But from the data
collected in our research, we found that curriculum contextualisation in schools is not being accomplished. The teacher-students who had been able to devise pedagogical modes of work that included learning situations that intersected the curriculum, the environment, the students’ social and cultural realities, became the mere executors of decisions made centrally and outside the school.

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References


The curricular demands of the Penguin Revolution in Brazil fighting for quality education

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Identify and analyze the articulate curricular demands in the discourse of the social movement known as Penguin Revolution, who struggles in order to achieve a free, egalitarian and quality education for the Chilenian. Based on the curricular theory developed by A.Lopes and B.Macedo, and the theory of the discourse developed by Ernesto Laclau in society with Chantal Mouffe. Understanding that these demands are inserted within a broader group of distinguishing demands whose antagonists are the government’s neoliberal project, represented by the “Concertación de partidos por la democracia”. In this way, there are two discursive chain: on one hand, the student's discourse is built on the demands of quality and equality of the education, specifically the curriculum reform demand. On the other hand the Chilean government that has hegemonized temporarily certain discourse on what is quality education.

They both try to establish their own meaning for “quality” in education, developing a war of representations. I sustain that the broadening of the discourse chain, due to the incorporation of the new demands representing different social actors, has allowed strengthening the movement of the Penguin Revolution, which has permitted the articulation of a chain of equivalences between the demands which has led this discourse to remain hegemonic through time.

Among the curricular demands of the student movement, we can point out the demands to the curriculum that should have been implemented, aiming to replace the previous curricular model, which was considered to be functional to the neoliberal model, situation that was debated within the movement itself, mainly among those who proposed a centralized and standardized curriculum at a national level, model proposed by the most conservative wing of the movement (CONES) and those who reinvidicate a descentralized curriculum with emphasis in the community, led by the most radical wing of the movement (ACES). The full schood day (JEC) also starts to be questioned, to reformulate the technical-professional curriculum for one more in line with the market demands, one which would offer real possibilities of employment. In addition, reforms to the main systems of centralized evaluation were proposed; SIMCE and PSU, even the elimination of the last one as college selection system, as well as the return of the subject of civic education in the curriculum, curriculum reforms to physical education, or the incorporation of content related to the exercise of democracy across the board in the curriculum.

Precisely thanks to the constant addition of new social demands. In this sense the signifier “quality” of the education has turned into a empty signifier, unable to represent temporarily the totality of the social movement. This is, the totality of the demands registered in the articulatory chain. In this way, the political struggle of the Chilean student movement for a quality education has put on the national debate the issue of the education, periodically setting in motion the society, and achieving important transformations within the structure of the national education system.
Introduction

In the year 2006, one of the biggest social movements of most recent Chilean history boomed. The students mobilized a whole nation, they strike, they took schools, colleges in the entire country, they were organized in democratic gatherings and convened to massive demonstrations on the street of the main cities, being one of the biggest social movements since the military dictatorship of Augusto Pinochet.

This movement was led at the beginning by secondary students, who soon were joined by university students, teachers, public workers, parents, retired, LGBT, indigenous groups, and others; all of them had in common differential demands and the recognition of an educational system in crisis of terms of its quality, funding and equity, demanding a series of reforms to the system through a political fight the movement aspired to attain.

Through the social booming, known as the 2006 “pinguin” movement, the bases of the political fight were established, for the construction of its identity opening a process of a social effervescence in the period of 2006 and 2013, which still continues till date. During this period, it warns a constant movement with more and less agitation and under the clear motto to reach improvement in the education that would allow to overcome the crisis of the system in terms of its quality and funding.

2. Articulation from the discourse of the “Penguin” Revolution

2.1. Why do the Chilean students fight?

The educational demands in general and curricular demands in particular that they articulated the discourse of the student movement they are countless and divers through the time, this being transverse to the process of the political fight for the constitution of its identity and the social imaginary. In this way the movement does not represent an identity previously given, or fixed through the time, but this had being constantly building since a set of different demands that they articulated provisory and contingency in a determined discourse that it is in a direct opposition to the hegemonic discourse about quality education.

The bases of the models, according to the students, was inherited from Augusto Pinochet's dictatorship, especially from the 1980's reform that was introducing the free market logic. Since then, education started to be understood as an object of consumption. The education goes from depending upon the State to relying on as municipalities, becoming one of the principal critical points by the students movement. The subsidized system of education is another critical points as well, in the extent that the inequality was increase between the private and public system of education, at the same time the quality was deteriorate even more, creating an education for rich and poor (VALENZUELA; 2006), this is highlighted by the OCDE that says:

36Public subvention to the demand, in which the State provides a certain amount of money for each student in the classroom, in the same way the share funding was created, which consists in the authorization to charge money monthly to families, which added the State contribution, in theory would contribute to improve the quality of the education.
(...) the Chilean education seem to be structured consciously by the social classes (...) it is influence by an ideologic that it gives improper importance to the market's mechanism to improve the teaching and learning (OCDE, 2004. p.290).

To a simple view the conflict exploded facing upwards school transportation's values (TNT transport card) and testing the university selection (PSU\textsuperscript{37}), this two specific and conjectural demands were transformed in the short term of the movement, but with the mobilization advances, different straggle flags were condensing in the discourse, representing different stakeholders that historically were struggling with the neoliberal politics expansion, that had transform Chile in the region's outstanding example as well as the implementation of this reforms (GARRETON, 2003).

Within this specific conjunction it warns an aperture spread of the student demands. To this is added several short and long term structure demands, many of this related directly with the curriculum, that at the beginning it look secondary and diffuse but promptly were gaining space within the demands that were majority associating to economic factors (higher state investment).

This way the demands link to the curriculum gain centrality, demands by the centralized and decentralized curriculum, rethinking of the “full scholar day” (JEC), the end of the profit, a mayor presence of the state in financial and control, the des-municipalization of education, abolition of the organic law constitution of the education (LOCE) among others. With the student movement it was able to place in debate and in the public agenda diverse thematics about education, fields that historically were completed ignore, but now they get importance within the fight of the students.

This took to the construction of a social imaginary, in which the nodal points of its fight for a quality education, equitable and free to transformed its horizon to reach. The reviews are centralized in the small guaranty of quality and equality of education that is offered to the public system, having as a result a growing inequality that it added to the students according to their social origins either in the municipal system, private, subsidized or particular. This constant inequality has been develop to the passive eyes of the government of the concentration that according to the students a few things and nothing has been done to change this reality.

3. Antagonistic cut: the border between them and us

The antagonism between the student movement and the government is evident due to the constant refusal from the government of the Concertación to negotiate the demands of the students. This is due to the huge amount of demands that they propose. This situation radicalizes the positions and the political struggle for the articulation of it identity towards the Concertación, political party that does not allow it to become such, establishing an undeniable frontier between both discursive chains. This situation was corroborated from the president’s speech on May 21, 2006, in which the president did not mention any kind of solution that would respond to the student's demands.

\textsuperscript{37} PSU is a test applied nation wide, being the test a fundamental transition for young people that every year finish their secondary studies and wish to go to college. The students are selected by the score obtained in this test to enroll the different universities of the country.
Instead, she used the national television network and harshly criticize the students, criminalizing them for paralyzing an important part of the educational system, and for the violence of their actions.

In this way, the student discourse is constituted by identifying the predominant Chilean neoliberal model, which is represented, according to the students, by the Concertación Government's, political party accused of defending the neoliberal project introduced and elaborated during the dictatorship.

In front of this situation, a feeling of discontent and frustration can be observed, as well as solidarity among the different social actors and their varied demands that are rejected by the government. In that way, the antagonist relationship is established between the student discourse and the educational discourse of the Government of the Concertación which has led to the establishment of a frontier. In other words, a demarcation that creates two ways of identification; on one hand, an “US”, the chilean students and their demands, through the demarcation of a “THEM”, the Concertación and the neoliberal model, which has homogenized a certain discourse about education. In which is not possible to cross the frontier and continue being “us”; but it is not possible to come from there and continue being “them”.

Within this group of demands, it is possible to observe that they became equivalent at a given moment through the representativity that the student discourse reached through the incorporation of varied demands within its discursive chain. Besides of sharing the rest of the social actors their opposition to the logic of neoliberal cutting, that according to them has oriented the political and economic future of Chile, and therefore the education, being responsible of the social problems of equity and quality.

4. Debates and struggles around the curriculum

4.1 Demands of the curriculum that articulated the discourse of the Penguin Revolution

The students denounced the existence of a curriculum that is unable to account for the needs, problems and current social demands. They consider that the curriculum is characterized for being elitist and for reproducing the inequity between the public and private education, which according to the students discourse can be observed, among other numerous factors, in the important difference between the curriculum used by private and public schools (19: FACEBOOK/CONES 2012). Henceforth the critics against the bases of the construction and logic neoliberal, from where is considered the Chilean curriculum was elaborated, after the return of the democracy in the decade of 1990, and the Concertación itself for being unable to reform this model, and for promising radical transformations to the system when they were opposition, but once in power adopted and became functional to the model they so much criticized.(20: FACEBOOK/CONFECH 2011).

Among the curricular demands, deserve a special mention those regarding the model to the curriculum that was going to be implemented, situation that resulted in a debate inside the movement, mainly among those pro-curriculum centralized and standardized a national level proposed by CONES, and those who demanded a curriculum decentralized with emphasis in the community, led by ACES. The full school day (JEC), re-formulate the technical-professional curriculum by one more in tune with the market's demands, offering real chances of finding a job. Adding to this, the demand for reforms to the main centralized evaluation systems, SIMCE and PSU, even they propose to eliminate the last one as a system of college selection.
They propose the creation of pre-colleges financed by the State, because right to that moment these institutions were private. This situation has contributed to preserve the social gap between those who have resources (an elite) and can be trained to take the PSU and go to college, and those who cannot pay a pre-college (the majority) due to the high costs. In this way, they have to take the test without a proper training that would help them to re-inforce the contents and cover the deficiencies of the public system, as stated by CONES (2010) and ACES (2011). The majority is forced to find jobs without a professional training that would allow them to form part in a better way the chains of production, preserving in the way the circle of power (ACES, 2011).

4.2 Centralization or decentralization of the curriculum

In the context of the crisis of the educational system, there is a group of differential demands that became equivalent at a certain moment. Amongst them were two demands that triggered the mobilizations, directly associated to the increase on the price of the student transport fare (TNT) and the price of the PSU, circumstances that resulted in the demand for gratuity for the transport 24 hours and 365 days, and the PSU. These two demands were more structural demands to short and long term added, which starting to take shape along with the mobilizations, and with the addition of new demands of social groups that were represented by the Penguin Revolution, such as: put an end to the profit in education and reform the subsidized system de-municipalization and creation of an education comptroller, derogation of the LOCE, even demands that comprised the political and administrative spectrum of the country, such as the reform to the bi-nominal system and the redaction of a new constitution, in other words, a group of differential demands that would respond to the varied demands from the social groups, whose demands were adopted by the students movement (ACES, 2011).

The curricular demands of the movement allow to understand the unrelenting power struggles among the social actors, as well as the attempts of setting certain meaning about what quality education represents, and also about the kind of curriculum that should be adopted to guarantee the quality of education. In this way, the demands were no longer linked only to economic or administrative issues, or to the specific demands such as the increase in the transport fare or the PSU, but to the slow increase of the demands associated to the group of demands the proposed deep transformations to the curriculum. The movement considers that in order to achieve transformations to the system, it is necessary to re-structure the basis of education, for this, it is important to consider different aspects associated directly or indirectly to the curriculum.

5. Expansion of the chain of equivalences:

On the other hand, the discursive chain has continued to incorporate new demands that represent different social actors, expanding with it the discursive chain through logic and equivalence. Thus, this group of different frustrated demands became equivalent at a certain moment in front to their opposition to the neo-liberal system, heritage of the dictatorship and expanding during the ruling of the Concertación, political party known as the enemy that prevented them from being a social movement, because it refuses to acknowledge their identity as such, refusing to negotiate with the students on strike and harshly repressing them. This wave of repression resulted in the increase of the social uproar, and reaffirmation of their demands and discourse, along with the social approval in their political struggle to improve the national educational system.
This expansion in the chain is the product of the incorporation of many new demands that was necessary to represent symbolically as a whole. In this case, the specific demand of the high school students "gratuity and quality of the education" that represents transversally the different social actors and their demands (college students, teachers, families, high school students of the private sector, etc.) represents the missing whole. That is, a certain particularity taking over the function of representing a social whole that exceeds it; in this case the specific demands of the students take over a wider representation, guaranteeing the predominance of the Penguin Revolution. This is what Laclau (2006) defines as predominance, meaning, "a particularity that takes over certain a universal function" (LACLAU, 2006. p. 24) in a temporal and contingent, as the demands of gratuity and quality are not permanent on time, they would eventually dislocate and re-articulate constantly.

It is through this constant incorporation of demands that the discourse of the Penguin Revolution becomes representative and acquires its force as a political movement. The demands of quality became a particularity that took over the provisory representation of a wholeness that exceeds it. The discourse of the quality of education is emptied of particular meanings, and stops to represent a specific group (the high school students) to represent, for a while the wholeness of the social movement. In this sense, this process of emptying of meanings is also an emptying of identity meanings of the Penguin Revolution, along with providing the expansion of the articulatory chain and its existence as a movement.

**Final considerations:**

It is possible to conclude that the process of articulation of the different demands that have been able to constitute the discourse of the Penguin Revolution, are the result of the antagonism between two discursive chains. On one hand, the students, and on the other hand, the government represented by the Concertación de Partidos por la Democracia. The different articulated demands starting building a certain discourse about what quality education means, signifier that turned into the flag for the struggle of the student movement though a war of representations and dispute of meanings between the discursive chains. In this way, the constant expansion of the equivalence chain has allowed the movement to maintain predominance through time and, despite of the partial satisfaction of large part of the demands, the political struggle continues active, with less or more political activity, constantly incorporating new demands.

Regarding the demands of the curriculum type is possible to conclude that these became relevant through the political struggle, because at the beginning they were not central in the students demands, which were focused in economic and administrative aspects. These have gained and lost new features, constantly reshaping with the arrival of new demands that have produced a constant re-articulation of the discursive chain. In this way, is possible to observe that at the beginning they demanded a centralized and unique national curriculum for all the schools (CONES, 2011), with the objective of reducing the inequalities of the system, according to them, due to the curricular model predominant in Chile. But the expansion of the chain with the newly introduced demands by ACES, by the high school students from the private and subsidized sector, by college students, and teachers. The demand for a decentralized curriculum with emphasis in the community becomes predominant, which is identified as the model that in theory, would reach the objective of a quality education.
The student struggle mobilized a whole country towards a quality, free, and public education, re-formulating the role of the State. The discourse of the Penguin Revolution became representative of different articulated demands, turning into the visible face of different social demands that for years were kept in the oblivion. The political struggle gave birth many expectations for the Chilean population in their attempt to improve the system, which goes beyond the educational System, which was perceived as segregation, elitist and unfair.

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**Brazilian superior education: The new curriculum structure of Federal Universities**

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The Brazilian public higher education system in recent decades suffered the academic restructuring, especially curricular. Universities in Brazil are divided into institutions maintained by federal, state and local governments and institutions maintained by the private sector. In this work, we emphasize the curricular changes in Federal Universities maintained by the Brazilian government. In 2010, it was implemented in Brazilian federal universities the Interdisciplinary Bachelor. This new curriculum proposal, prior to its dissemination on a large scale, was
experienced at the Federal University of Bahia and Federal University of ABC. This new "curriculum architecture" denotes a general training and flexible to the individuals, and structure three training cycles. The first cycle comprises in general education, giving opportunity to pursue the other cycles, this mode lasts one year. The second stage corresponds to the specific formation, allowing the individuals, after two years of study, to obtain a license to teach in the area chosen. The third cycle provides the academics with artistic and professional graduate with specific duration for a Master's Degree and a PhD. At the present time, there is the interdisciplinary bachelors in seventeen Brazilian federal universities, which are distributed into the large areas of knowledge such as Humanities, Mathematics and Health Sciences. To perform this article the systematic review of the literature was used, based in the master's thesis which will be presented by the author at the State University of Campinas (Unicamp). In this sense the data presented are part of a consolidated research.

Introduction

This article is the result of the master's research, titled "REUNI: here comes the story ...", held at the State University of Campinas (Unicamp), Campinas-São Paulo, under the guidance of Professor Deborah Mazza, having REUNI as the subject of this research and the proposals raised in this article are part of the masters' research in progress.

For the realization of this article, there was a data collection in electronic sites of Brazilian Federal Universities and of the Ministry of Education and Culture, in addition to theoretical analysis and discussion provided by the literature found. In this article, there is a brief analysis of what means the Interdisciplinary Bachelor's Degree in the Brazilian context.

Interdisciplinary Bachelor's Degree

To contemplate the prepositions of the Programme of Restructuring and Expansion of Federal Universities (REUNI), implemented in Brazil by the Federal Government in 2007, it was published, in November 2010, the guiding benchmarks for the Interdisciplinary Bachelor's Degrees and similar ones that deal with the origin, objective and definition of the Interdisciplinary Bachelor's Degrees, present in Brazilian universities that have joined REUNI, and ones created after REUNI implementation.

According to the guiding benchmarks for the Interdisciplinary Bachelor's Degrees and similar ones, a restructuring of academic architecture was necessary, so that there was adequacy of the educational process of students.

The Brazilian curriculum structure, according to that publication, was with fragmenting ideas of "knowledge and alienated from the emerging issues of the nature, society, history and subjectivity"(BRASIL, 2010). Contemporary society expresses a new cognitive ecology and cultural diversity, requiring changes in the Brazilian academic structure.

General education was adequate to the need for change in Brazilian curriculum structure, because it provides an academic background that allows the student to understand and connect knowledge to the facts surrounding his academic and non-academic life, emerging alongside with this general education the academic flexibility, allowing
that there is no early professionalization, as it permits that the person opts for professional career after completing the introductory and generalist cycle, with appropriate skills and competencies.

This academic flexibility was instituted in 2001 in the National Education Plan, by Law 10.172, on January 9, 2001, as an expression of the need for change in the curriculum of the Brazilian higher education.

Diversify educational opportunities, encouraging the creation of night courses with innovative proposals, sequential courses and modular courses, with certification, allowing greater flexibility in the formation and expansion of educational opportunities (BRASIL, 2001).

The inspiration for this transformation of the Brazilian curriculum structure in contemporary times is derived from the model proposed by Anísio Teixeira and Darcy Ribeiro, in 1960, in the conception of the University of Brasilia, of the Bologna Process and of the American Colleges, although the creators of this proposal claim that the new curriculum structure has an innovative design to meet the Brazilian academic needs. In addition to that, the proposal of the Interdisciplinary Bachelor's Degree would help overcome the university models of the nineteenth century still present in Brazil.

It is noteworthy that before the Interdisciplinary Bachelor's Degree be widespread in most of the Brazilian federal universities, it was tested at the Federal University of ABC, in São Paulo, and at the Federal University of Bahia. Nowadays, it is found in seventeen Federal Universities: Federal University of Maranhão (UFMA), Federal University of Western Pará (UFOPA), Federal University of Bahia (UFBA), Federal Rural University of the Semi-Arid (UFERSA), Federal University of Bahia's Reconcavo Region (UFRB), Federal University of Rio Grande do Norte (UFRN), Federal University of Southern Bahia (UFSB), Federal University of Campina Grande, University of International Integration of African-Brazilian Lusophony (UNILAB), Federal University of ABC (UFABC), Federal University of São Paulo (UNIFESP), Federal University of Juiz de Fora (UFJF), Federal University of the Jequitinhonha and Mucuri Valleys (UFVJM), Federal University of Alfenas (UNIFAL-MG), Federal University of Pampa (UNIPAMPA), Federal University of Santa Maria (UFSM), Federal University of South Border (UFFS) and Federal University of Latin American Integration (UNILA).

The curriculum structure, present in the above mentioned Universities and in the guiding benchmarks for the Interdisciplinary Bachelor's Degrees and similar ones, comprises:

The proposal now called the New University implies a radical transformation of academic architecture of the Brazilian public university, in order to overcome the challenges and correct [a number of] defects. It is intended, therefore, to build a model compatible with both the US model (of Flexnerian origin) and with the European Unified Model (Bologna process) without, however, mean submission to any of these university education schemes. The main change proposed in the university curriculum structure is the implementation of a system of three higher education cycles:

- First cycle: Interdisciplinary Bachelor's Degree (IBD), providing general university education, as a prerequisite for progression to the following cycles;
- Second Cycle: Vocational education in specific degrees or careers;
- Third Cycle: scientific, artistic and professional postgraduate education.
The introduction of cycle scheme will require adjusting the curriculum structure of both vocational education courses as well as postgraduation ones. In addition, the incorporation of new modalities of selection process is proposed, to IBD and for further options for subsequent university education (CATANI, AZEVEDO, & LIMA, 2008).

The New curriculum architecture or the new academic structure can be exemplified by the Interdisciplinary Bachelor's Degree, which introduces in the educational system of Federal Higher Education Establishments a cyclic education: the first cycle corresponding to undergraduation, the second, specific education, and the third cycle is intended for postgraduation studies.

The graduation in large areas of knowledge such as Art, Life Sciences, Science and Technology, Natural Sciences and Mathematics, Social Sciences and Humanities, occurs at the end of the first cycle.

The federal universities created after the enactment of REUNI and with the curricular organization according to the general and flexible educational proposals are called New Universities, because they present new academic structures.

This new academic structure through educational cycles, along with REUNI, allowed the number of places in public establishments to be extended and the creation of new university campuses, especially in the inner part of Brazil.

The new curriculum architecture, proposed by the Interdisciplinary Bachelor's Degree (IBD), promotes the dialogue between the fields of knowledge and the curriculum components, which are present in the "interdisciplinary feature of the projects that must be guaranteed by joint and interrelationship between disciplines, within and between the large knowledge areas" (BRAZIL, 2010, p. 04).

Therefore, the Interdisciplinary Bachelor's Degree, in Brazil, brought innovation to the prior curriculum model considered not adjusted to the contemporary and needing modern curriculum structure that should express the specificities of generalist education, but this curriculum change allowed other transformations: the academic mobility between Universities that have the new curriculum architecture and the internationalization of Brazilian higher education, because it is compatible with the academic structures of the world's great universities.

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[http://www.scielo.br/pdf/aval/v13n1/a02v13n1.pdf](http://www.scielo.br/pdf/aval/v13n1/a02v13n1.pdf)
In the current educational system, the 1st cycle of basic education (1st CBE) [year 1-4] is characterised as providing a comprehensive education, with the aim of achieving integrated and interdisciplinary knowledge, capable of developing basic skills in Portuguese, mathematics, science and social studies and artistic expression (Ministry of Education, 2004).

According to decree-law, n.º 241/2001 of 30 August, the 1st CBE teacher develops the respective curriculum, mobilising and integrating the scientific knowledge of the areas upon which it is based and the skills required to advance student learning. Therefore, strategies to motivate integrative activities, where students have the opportunity to share ideas, opinions, and experiences as well as possible solutions, should be sought.

The aim of this paper is precisely to understand whether methodology of group work can be an enabling strategy of 1st CBE curriculum integration. To this end, we sought to ascertain the opinion of teachers with regards to group work – whether they consider it important, if it is a common practice in implementing the curriculum and in which curricular areas it is used most often. We also wanted to examine whether teachers use to group work as a strategy for curriculum integration in the classroom as well as the main difficulties they felt.

Empirically, we carried out descriptive research with a survey by questionnaire which was prepared for this purpose. It was applied to 1st CBE teachers working in a school group in the municipality of Viseu schools (central region of Portugal). This was a convenience sample of 43 mostly female (90.7%) teachers, aged between 30 and 59 years.

The data obtained showed that teachers attach great importance to the methodology of group work, but use it with variable frequency in their classroom teaching practice. They also indicate that group work, including pair work is a widely used strategy for curriculum integration in the 1st CBE. Nevertheless, some obstacles to this practice are identified as the vast syllabus of the 1st CBE, importance given to preparing for exams and the excessive number of students per class.

These findings may be important to help envisage changes to the organisation of schools and teaching activities, counteracting the compartmentalised organisation by subjects which tends to persist in the 1st CBE.

**Keywords:** curriculum integration, group work, 1st cycle of basic education (1st CBE), teachers
1 Introduction

Schooling, under the Portuguese Educational System, unfolds in three levels: i) basic education – includes three sequential cycles, the 1st lasting four years, the 2nd two, and the 3rd three; ii) secondary education – includes one cycle of three years (10th, 11th and 12th grades) and; iii) higher education – includes education in universities and polytechnics.

The 1st CBE is marked by a global teaching approach aimed at developing basic skills, such as in the fields of Portuguese, Mathematics, Environmental Studies and Art, of universal and mandatory nature (Article 6 of Law n.º 46/86 of October – Bases Law of the Educational System).

The 1st CBE is based on education provided by only one teacher, using teachers specialized in given fields, as is currently the case of English Language. The teacher of the 1st CBE plays a paramount role in the development of a comprehensive view of knowledge, it being implied that it must allow for significant, socialization-oriented, and integrated learning covering varied subjects, as well as enable globally-oriented education, as noted by the ME/DEB\textsuperscript{38}, in curriculum organization and programs: 1st cycle (commonly known as program of the 1st CBE). In order to achieve this, it is important that the teacher manages the curriculum in an integrated manner.

1.1 The teacher and curriculum integration in the 1st CEB

As outlined in the specific profile of professional performance (Decree-Law no. 241/2001, of August 30th), the teacher of the 1st CBE develops the corresponding curriculum, within the scope of an inclusive school, mobilizing and incorporating the scientific knowledge of the domains that support it and the skills required to promote student learning, as well as develops learning, mobilizing in an integrated manner scientific know-how regarding the fields and curriculum content and individual and context-based constraints which influence learning. In addition, the teacher promotes learning of socially relevant skills, within the scope of an active and responsible citizenship, under the options of educational policy that are a part of the different dimensions of the integrated curriculum of this cycle.

Literature, considered as a whole, points toward the benefit of curriculum integration during student learning, as students share their own life experiences, thus establishing a connection between theory and practice, without segmentation, enabling integrated and interdisciplinary knowledge.

The integrated curriculum is, according to Beane (2002), a curriculum focused on covering the possibilities of social and personal integration, by means of the preparation of the curriculum revolving around important problems and issues, identified by teachers and the youth at school, without taking into account the borders of subjects.

Curriculum integration seeks to arrange the curriculum and knowledge in a way that they become more easily accessible and important to students, helping them to understand themselves and the world around them (Beane, 2002, 2003; Alonso, 2002). This integration presupposes that all areas of the curriculum, as well as other types of knowledge belonging to the personal and social spheres, are approached simultaneously, giving priority to the student for the construction of his own know-how.

\textsuperscript{38} Ministério da Educação/Departamento de Educação Básica (Ministry of Education/Basic Education Department)
Within the scope of schooling, the approach of problems, situations and events intrinsically contributes to a greater motivation of the student while benefits the internal task which promotes the establishment of connections among the types of learning, enabling the development of a meaning of knowledge while stimulating understanding and practice when new situations take place.

Therefore, the teacher is responsible for managing the curriculum, providing students with all resources necessary for the latter to develop know-how and skills which will turn them into active, critical and reflective people, able to fit in the current society, which is increasingly demanding.

Nonetheless, several difficulties must be pointed out in this regard. The arrangement of school textbooks by subject areas is one of the critical aspects, just as the segmentation of the current programs of the different subject areas of the 1st CBE which do not promote the establishment of connections between the various branches of knowledge.

In truth, although the relevance of curriculum integration is acknowledged, it is important to bear in mind that this is a comprehensive approach which involves significant changes in the pedagogic activities that the teacher is not always willing to perform. Implementing the curriculum integration implies changes in terms of the interaction between teachers and students, where democracy and collaboration have a place of prominence.

1.2 Group work and its relevance for curriculum integration

One of the educational strategies accepted as promoting learning of students in the 1st CBE is group work (Niza, 1998; Pato, 1995). Its fulfillment implies a preparation of the teaching/learning process different from traditional pedagogic models, highlighting the active participation of the student (Pato, 1995).

Group work is a type of cooperative work which is structured carefully, so that all students interact, share information and may be assessed by their work on an individual basis (Fathman & Kessler, 1993). It must be properly structured and enable that all participants “work with each other to make certain that everyone in the group has mastered the concepts being taught” (Slavin, 1995, p. 2).

Group work offers excellent benefits for participants, as it enables students which are ill at ease to set themselves free and cut loose, socializing with the other elements of the group. Students also learn to accept and/or respect the opinion of their classmates, enriching the work with the different points of view, making use of the talents of each one, where interest in research is stimulated (Slavin, 1995).

A work group may be formed spontaneously and quickly, or using techniques such as sequences, shared characteristics, specific themes, among other criteria, in order to create democratic, functional and cooperative groups (Castro & Ricardo, 1998). For that purpose, the teacher must be given theoretical and technical training, as well as constantly reflect on his/her experience, with the resulting readjustments.

Beside the formation of groups and supervision of functioning thereof, the preparation of learning requires the teacher to make a special effort and have a particular imagination, “implementation imposes varied roles on him/her and the field of assessment broadens and deepens” (Pato, 1995, p. 60).
Groups may be homogeneous or heterogeneous, have a varying number of elements, depending on the total number of students, their age and the nature of the tasks to be performed (Pato, 1995; Castro & Ricardo, 1998). The teacher must often use differentiated work strategies and always in accord with the features of the group, so that group work is a means for learning for all participants therein (Reis, 2011).

Another aspect to take into account for group work is the necessary material conditions required for a successful performance of tasks. To start with, the classroom must have minimum conditions which make work possible. Tables must be arranged in a way that enables seating four or five students around each table, in order to allow the existence of a good intergroup dynamics (Pato, 1995).

There are also some physical obstacles to communication that must be overcome, such as the classroom’s acoustics, the distribution of seats, the duration of the gathering, ventilation, temperature and lightning of the classroom, as well as the time of the day in which the class takes place. These obstacles are often the main cause for lack of motivation and disinterest (Johnson & Johnson, 2009).

Therefore, we can see that the methodology of group work, involving a group of people who work toward reaching a common goal, requires material conditions necessary for a beneficial operation and subsequent acquisition of knowledge and development of values on the part of students. Without proper resources that suit the required task, the outcome may not be the one which is expected.

Usually, research conducted points toward the benefit of group work for the motivation of the student in the acquisition of knowledge and the development of social skills, as it enables them to share ideas/opinions/interests and mobilize their life experience, and in this way it can contribute to curriculum integration.

Therefore, we drew up a research around the following problem: Is group work a strategy that is a catalyst for curriculum integration in the 1st cycle of basic education?

In order to answer this question, we also set some goals:

a) Finding out the importance given to group work by teachers in the 1st CBE;

b) Checking if group work is used frequently by teachers of the 1st CBE during the implementation of the curriculum;

c) Identifying the subject areas in which group work is more used;

d) Analyzing the importance of group work for curriculum integration from the teacher’s perspective;

e) Learning the main difficulties perceived by teachers for curriculum integration in the classroom.

2 Methodology

2.1 Type of research

This research is aimed at finding out if group work is used by teachers of the 1st CBE as a catalyst of for curriculum integration, as well as the way in which it is used. To this end, a cross-sectional descriptive study (Fortin, 2000) was conducted, by means of the collection of the opinion and perception of the said teachers.

The implementation of this study was performed in two phases: the first was marked by the performance of a literature analysis, which enabled understanding what curriculum integration and group work are and to what extent
group work can be used as a strategy to promote curriculum integration. In the second phase, we carried out data collection, by means of a questionnaire (Ghiglione & Matalon, 2005) administered to teachers, which enabled answering the problem mentioned above.

### 2.2 Sampling and corresponding characterization

Empirical research took place in a group of schools in the municipality of Viseu, being aimed at teachers of the 1st CBE (State Education), selected on the basis of easy access to the participants. It consists of a non-probability or convenience sample (Hill & Hill, 2000).

Questionnaires were handed over to all teachers of the said Group, totaling sixty-five forms. Nevertheless, we did not obtain an answer to all questionnaires delivered, and the sample that was formed included forty-three teachers.

The overwhelming majority (90.70%) of respondents are female, aged between 30 and 59 years, in which age groups between 40 and 49 years and between 50 and 59 years predominate (both with 46.51%). The vast majority of teachers (81.40%) has 20 or more years of service and holds a bachelor’s degree as academic qualification.

### 2.3 Data collection tool

Given that we did not find any tool within the scope of this subject, a questionnaire aimed at teachers in the 1st CBE was prepared for that end, including open-ended questions and closed-ended questions of multiple choice, one using a Likert scale, in order to gather the essential answers to meet the goals previously set (Pardal & Lopes, 2011).

The tool we prepared is divided into two parts: the first is composed of five closed-ended questions on personal and professional data of respondents; the second part is composed of nine questions, including six multiple-choice questions and three open-ended questions.

For questionnaire monitoring and subsequent authorization of its implementation at schools, we submitted the tool to the Directorate-General for Education (DGE). The request was promptly accepted, including the information that it “meets the technical and methodological quality requirements for that purpose”.

### 2.4 Procedure

Beside the authorization request to the DGE mentioned above, permission was requested to the Management of the Group of Schools for the execution of the empirical study, with clarification of the context of the research project, as well as the corresponding goals. Teachers were also asked to give their informed consent during completion of questionnaires.

Following several measures, a specific date and time were set with one member from the management of the said Group, coinciding with a general meeting of the 1st CBE teachers. This facilitated the delivery and collection of questionnaires, which were answered and returned the same day.
2.5 Data analysis and processing

Following the data collection’s conclusion, a work of systematization, analysis and interpretation of data, according to the questions arising from the research problem and respective lines of analysis was performed (Afonso, 2005).

Quantitative data was subject to a descriptive statistical analysis, through the calculation of absolute and relative frequencies expressed as a percentage, using the computer software program Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.

For the analysis of qualitative data, resulting from open-ended questions, we used content analysis (Vala, 2001; Bardin, 2004). Following the guidelines of the quoted authors, we initially performed an exploratory reading of answers, so that we could afterwards create categories, in accordance with the recommended coding standards, and distribute the respective indicators.

3 Presentation and analysis of results

3.1 Importance attached to the group work methodology

Teachers have a quite positive opinion in terms of group work in the 1st CBE: 41.86% of the respondents find group work very important, 34.88% assess group work as being important and 23.26% consider it extremely important. We also observed that none of the teachers surveyed marked the options little importance or unimportant.

This means that teachers are aware of the relevance of group work in the 1st CBE, taking into account its benefits in the development of interaction in the classroom (Slavin, 1995). Nevertheless, it is important to understand if this is a frequent practice in daily educational activities.

3.2 Frequency of use of group work

When surveyed on the use of group work in their educational activities, we verify that all teachers mention including group work in their classroom practice, although the frequency of its use varies: 44.18% mention that they use group work 1 to 2 times per week; 27.91% admit using this methodology 2 times per month and 18.60%, 1 time per month. Only three teachers (6.98%) state that they use group work every day.

Given the above, we can infer that there is still a reduced use of group work as a regular pedagogic strategy in some cases. Whereas some teachers use group work often (1 to 2 times per week), others use it sporadically, one to two times per month, choosing a pedagogic interaction focused on the teacher and on the class group.

This data makes us question if teachers have an in-depth knowledge of the steps which are deemed fundamental to implement group work in the classroom (Lopes & Silva, 2009), since there is empirical data showing the opposite (Guedes, Cardoso, & Rocha, 2014).

3.3 Curricular areas in which group work is used the most
Environmental Studies is the curricular area in which group work is used the most, being pointed out by 90.70% of surveyed teachers. It is followed by Portuguese, mentioned by over half of the respondents (55.81%), and then Mathematics, indicated by less than a third (30.23%) of teachers. Only a small percentage marked Artistic Expression and Education (13.95%) and Physical-Motor Expression and Education (9.30%) as fields in which they often use group work. Musical Expression and Education and Drama Expression and Education are areas in which respondents state they do not use the group work methodology.

This may be explained by the fact that Environmental Studies is a domain of experimental nature, in which it is important to resort to experience and practical experiences of students, in which it is easier to mobilize different branches of knowledge.

On the contrary, Musical Expression and Education and Drama Expression and Education were not identified as being approached through this methodology, perhaps due to the fact that these subjects are not generally taught by teachers or that they are usually used to provide support to other subject areas, at least in the Portuguese context (Lameira, Cardoso, & Pereira, 2012).

### 3.4 Use of group work as a strategy for curriculum integration and substantiation

The vast majority of teachers (95.34%) mentions using group work as a strategy for curriculum integration, and only one teacher (2.33%) states not doing so.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Development of learning</td>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mentoring</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interdisciplinarity</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Research</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enrichment of learning</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individual strategies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brainstorming</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sharing</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td></td>
<td>37</td>
<td>46.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal and social development</td>
<td>Cooperative work</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mutual respect</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Integration into a group</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When asked to account for the relevance of group work for curriculum integration, teachers mentioned several reasons, which were classified through content analysis. Teachers account for the importance of group work by invoking two main types of reasons, the development of learning it enables and the personal and social development of students.

The category regarding personal and social development was mentioned by 53.75% of the surveyed teachers, being divided into the following indicators: Mutual help (15%), promotion of socialization (12.5%), development of citizenship (acquisition of rules, learning how to act at the right moment and adopt the right attitude) (6.25%) and social interaction (5%).

The category regarding the development of learning covers 46.25% of the indicators, out of which sharing of knowledge (25%), brainstorming (5%) and mentoring (3.75%) are the most mentioned benefits (cf. Table 33).

As appears from the above, teachers mainly associate the importance of group work for curriculum integration to the personal and social development aspects of the student (sharing, mutual help, promotion of socialization, acquisition of rules, etc.), which is in line with what is advocated by the ME/DEB (2004), in the document “Curriculum Arrangement and Programs for Basic Education – 1st Cycle (Program for the 1st CBE).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Development of citizenship (acquisition of rules, knowing how to act at the right moment and adopt the right attitude)</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6.25</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Promotion of socialization</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutual help</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group spirit</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social interaction</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promote self-esteem and confidence of students which have more difficulties</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvement of relationships between good and less good students</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Subtotal**                                                                 43                                                                 53.75

**Total**                                                                   80                                                                   100.00

Table 33: Reasons which account for the importance of group work for integration
3.5 Strategies to perform curriculum integration

Approximately half of the teachers (46.43%) point out group work (including work in pairs) as the most used strategy to implement curriculum integration. Nevertheless, other strategies are identified such as research (28.57%), reading, use of audiovisual material and project work (each with 7.14%) and problem solving in an interdisciplinary manner (3.57%).

This result may be easily understood if we consider that work in pairs does not affect the arrangement of the classroom (the traditional arrangement of school tables is maintained), as well as by the fact that it is easier to work with groups composed of two students and provide individual support to the group. Despite of the importance attached to group work, teachers point out other strategies, such as research which is an inclusive activity which enables students to develop contextual and meaning learning (Alonso, 2002).

3.6 Difficulties in performing curriculum integration

A large proportion of the surveyed teachers agrees (41.86%) or totally agrees (23.26%) that the comprehensive curriculum of the 1st CBE is an obstacle to the implementation of curriculum integration.

On the contrary, a large proportion of teachers totally disagrees (41.86%), or disagrees (25.58%), stating that the lack of appropriate training is an obstacle to the materialization of curriculum integration (cf. Table 34).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Difficulties</th>
<th>Totally disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree or disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Totally agree</th>
<th>Did not answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The comprehensive curriculum of the 1st CBE</td>
<td>2 4.65</td>
<td>1 2.33</td>
<td>10 23.26</td>
<td>18 41.86</td>
<td>10 23.26</td>
<td>2 4.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of appropriate training</td>
<td>18 41.86</td>
<td>11 25.58</td>
<td>7 16.28</td>
<td>3 6.98</td>
<td>1 2.33</td>
<td>3 6.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of the number of hours, per subject areas</td>
<td>1 2.33</td>
<td>5 11.63</td>
<td>12 27.91</td>
<td>15 34.88</td>
<td>7 16.28</td>
<td>3 6.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heterogeneous classes</td>
<td>1 2.33</td>
<td>7 16.28</td>
<td>6 13.95</td>
<td>16 37.21</td>
<td>9 20.93</td>
<td>4 9.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Practices and discourses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excessive number of students per class</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2.33</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>6.98</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>20.93</th>
<th>16</th>
<th>37.21</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>23.26</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>9.30</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Importance attached to the preparation for exams</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.30</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>18.60</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>37.21</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>27.91</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of resources</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23.26</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30.23</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>34.88</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.98</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 34: Difficulties in performing curriculum integration

In general, and with similar percentages, teachers agree that the importance attached to the preparation of exams (65.12%), an excessive number of students per class (60.47%), heterogeneous classes (58.14%) are obstacles to their implementation of curriculum integration.

The lack of resources gives rise to some divergence of opinion, where part of the teachers agree (34.88%), another part is undecided (30.23%) and another part disagrees (23.26%) that this is an obstacle that must be taken into account when it comes to carrying out curriculum integration (cf. Table 2).

Data show, therefore, that there are various constraints to the implementation of curriculum integration, out of which the comprehensive curriculum of the 1st CBE stands out. Nevertheless, when provided with the data shown above, a significant percentage of surveyed teachers claim to totally disagree with the lack of appropriate training.

4 Conclusion

Curriculum integration is a topic which is worthy of note, given its importance for the quality of the teaching/learning process, in particular in the 1st CBE which presupposes socialization-oriented, significant and integrated learning covering varied subjects (ME/DEB, 2004). At this level of education, in particular, the teacher must have a greater concern in developing inclusive activities able to create conditions which increase the activities of the student and promote his/her personal and social development.

In this study we sought to find out the perception of teachers of the 1st CBE on group work and its relevance for curriculum integration. We verified that teachers have a positive opinion regarding group work and that it is a strategy which they use, although the frequency of its use varies, in the classroom, and none of the respondents mentioned not using it.

Regarding the issue on which this study is focused, if group work is a strategy that serves as a catalyst for curriculum integration in the 1st CBE, we were able to observe through the analysis of the data collected that group work is considered important by nearly all surveyed teachers as a strategy that serves as a catalyst for the
implementation of curriculum integration. Nonetheless, not all teachers implement it with the same frequency nor attach it the same importance.

This suggests the existence of a mismatch between the notions of teachers and their practices, which may be partly understood for reasons identified at work, such as the comprehensive curriculum of the 1st CBE, the importance attached to preparation for exams, the excessive number of students per class, the distribution of the number of hours per subject areas and heterogeneous classes.

It should be highlighted that all difficulties pointed out by teachers are external to the teacher, and the majority of them disagrees that the lack of training is a difficulty to the implementation of curriculum integration.

Nevertheless, it remains important to invest in training enabling a greater exploration of the theme regarding curriculum integration and its potentialities, as well as deepening the use of group work, reflecting on its advantages, possibilities and care in terms of its implementation in the classroom.

It would also be important to introduce changes in school organization in order to strengthen the collaborative action of teachers, in particular when developing common projects, enabling the promotion of inclusive activities which mobilize knowledge from the various subject areas of the 1st CEB.

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References


Practices and discourses


Quality of the teacher-student interaction in primary school education: From experiential dialogue to emotional education

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The quality of the dialogue that is developed in teacher-student interactions can enhance the listening, sharing, recognition and understanding of emotions. These are dimensions leading to an improvement of the teaching-learning process in the classroom context and consequently the development of a work at the level of emotional education of children.

The teacher-student interaction that creates the necessary conditions for successful emotional education is the focus of our project. The experiential dialogue/sensitivity is the dimension we pretend to study and comprehend the indicators of authenticity, acceptance and empathy.

The sensitivity that is present in experiential dialogue presupposes attention and consideration of the child's needs contributing for a qualitatively higher educational intervention and giving the student emotional skills for a suitable integration.

It will be developed a qualitative research with exploratory and descriptive study inserted in the phenomenological-interpretative paradigm.

This study will reveal the perception of a sample of Portuguese teachers about the student-teacher interactions that support a successful emotional education therefore giving us data to understand and analyse the strategies to promote emotional education in schools.

The study takes place in two phases.

In Phase 1 was conducted a preliminary study that consists of the construction, validation and application of a questionnaire to 100 primary school teachers of the centre of the country. In this phase we intend to know about the perceptions of the primary teachers in this subject.

In phase 2, based on the results of phase I of the study, will be taken focus group interviews with a smaller sample of teachers as well as working with situation narratives. These sessions will be designed, implemented and evaluated according to the needs and conceptions identified in phase I of the study. In this phase we intend to produce a broader and more in-depth understanding of the subject. It is proposed to question, discuss and develop with the teachers a basic structure of work in emotional education for primary school promoter of teacher-student interaction and pedagogical management of feelings and emotions conducive to development emotional skills in children.

This investigation aims to bring a contribution to the promotion of emotional well-being of children and teachers in the classroom. It is funded by the Foundation for Science and Technology (FCT) and supported by the - Research Centre for Didactics and Technology in Teacher Education (CIDTFF) in the University of Aveiro.
Introduction

The quality of the interactions that teachers establish with their students is a predictor of their academic and social progress (Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Howes, 2000; Hughes & Kwok, 2006). Students who experience these quality relationships with their teachers seem to be more likely to display more appropriate behaviours (Planta, 2000; Murray & Greenberg, 2001; Murray & Murray, 2004; Peisner-Feinberg et al., 2001).

Interpersonal relationships that are established between the students and the teacher are based on communication and how this is established during the teaching-learning process. Reflecting on these issues, Estrela (1992) appealed to the observation grid that had been developed in 1986 by Albano Estrela to look for evidence that in the absence of interactions between teacher and students, the latter exhibit behaviours of demotivation and disinterest, deriving many times in a disturbance behaviour of the normal flow of the class. Similarly, Sanches (2001, p.27) states that "the authority of the teacher, as the depository of knowledge collapsed and gave way to an authority that is earned on a day-to-day." This transformation in the teacher-student relationship requires a redefinition of teacher's strategies and practices.

For Woods (2001) a number of educational strategies of creative nature can be used by teachers, such as teaching in a "marginal" or parallel to the classroom, in the hallways, playgrounds or even in the cafeteria. Sometimes, the teacher can pretend to have questions as a way to challenge students to establish with them emotional connections through an enabling imagination environment, creativity, empathy and stimulation, looking for some disruptive situations may result in learning moments for all participants. Still in the same line, Arends (1995) says it is important for teachers to strive to know individually their students. This condition, which is especially affective, is essential, since these create an empathetic relationship with the teacher, the occurrence of disruptive behaviours may be lower.

Hargreaves (1978) states that the climate is something we can feel when you enter a classroom. It is not necessary to observe for long the context so that we can evaluate the type of interactions that are established between teacher and students or among peers. This is because a set of individual, group and social variables that are interdependent. Emotional practice of the teaching profession is emphasized by Hargreaves (1998) and summarized in four points: 1. Teaching is an emotional practice; 2. Teaching and learning processes involve emotional understanding; 3. Teaching is a form of emotional labour; 4. Teachers emotions are inseparable from the practice.

The management of emotions, by either teachers or students, is vitally important in academic success, in the processes perception of justice among students and teachers as well as in the motivation processes and satisfaction of students and teachers. (Day, 1999; Day & Leitch, 2001; Hargreaves, 1998, 2000; Pritchard and Wilson, 2003; Zembylas, 2004). Teachers can thus make their students more motivated, interested and enthusiastic about discipline, or simply demotivate them and upset them.

Good management of emotions in an educational context can be a triggering element for improving the quality of activities carried out by teachers and facilitating transitions between cycles, to which students are subjected. Roldão (2008) considers that the fracture between the range of 0 to 6 and range from 6 to 12 is a critical point to consider in quality improvement policies. In recent years there has been great interest in the development of practices to facilitate the integration of children in the primary school (Brostrom 2002; Fabian, 2002; Margetts, 2002
and Kienig, 2008), considering the positive emotional attitude toward school and the positive relationship with adults and peers essential for a successful adaptation and the development of a sense of well-being. This concern is clear in the National Basic Education Curriculum - Essential Competencies, where it shows that "is an integral part of the curriculum to approach cross-cutting themes to the various subject areas, in particular within the [...] education for health and well-being "](ME-DEB, 2001, p.10).

In this perspective, it is assumed that the specificity of the teaching profession becomes concrete in the function of teaching, understood as intentional action, geared to the promotion of learning, specialized and based on specific knowledge. The professional, social and ethical dimension is understood transversally to the other dimensions (Ordinance No. 16034/2010 of October, 22). Within this dimension we emphasise two functions inherent in the occupation of teaching because they relate more deeply with the object of study in evidence in the 1st CEB Teacher Profile (Decree-Law 240/2001 of August, 30):

[...] D) Promote the quality of insertion contexts of the educational process, to ensure the students' well-being and development of all the components of their individual and cultural identity;

[...] F) Expresses relational and communication skills and emotional balance in the various circumstances of their work.

From the above, it is evident the need of improvement of pedagogical and relational skills in teacher pillars of emotional education in the primary school.

From experiential education to emotional education

Experiential education is one of the most influential educational models in the preschools and primary schools in Belgium and Holland (Laevers, 2004), having spread to other European countries, including Portugal (Portugal & Laevers, 2010; Pascal & Bertram, 2009). Here, the inclusion was made primarily at the level of preschool education, but it is still under explored at the level of the primary school.

Experiential attitude that is the foundation of this model allows the teacher to be an agent of communication in which experiential dialogue / sensitivity is one of its essential dimensions (Laevers, 2003, 2005), creating teaching conditions effectively leading to significant learning (Rogers, 1983 1986; Pascal, 2003; Oliveira-Formosinho, 2004; Portugal, 2008; Laevers, 2009). The highlighted features in experiential dialogue are articulated with Roger’s work (1983, 1986) for whom the teacher-student relationship should develop in an atmosphere of authenticity, acceptance and empathic understanding.

A key feature of Experiential Education is the participation. Children only engage in activities when deeply focusing on them, spending energy and focus. Children who are actively involved are at their best. They feel challenged and work close to their maximum potential. Also the emotional well-being is an essential condition for participation. When children feel useless without the courage to launch the activities or under emotional stress, they can hardly participate in an activity. Furthermore,

for Experiential Education there is a very important educational objective that must be present both at home and at school. This goal is to help children develop as human beings who do not live oppressed by
fear, lack of courage or feelings of guilt that does not suppress your feelings, dealing with them and express them in a natural way (Kog, Moons, 1994, p 5).

The sensitivity, present in experiential dialogue, requires attention and consideration for the child's needs (Laevers, 2003; Pascal & Bertram, 2009; Portugal & Laevers, 2010), accounts for a qualitatively higher educational intervention (Portugal, 2008) providing the student emotional skills for integration (Kog, Moons & Depondt, 2004). Sensitivity is based on the principles of acceptance, empathy and authenticity. The acceptance is expressed in the ability to accept the student as a person with self-worth, accept their feelings and their opinions without judgment. Empathy is revealed when the teacher understands the behaviour of the students presenting a sensitive awareness of the way the process of education and learning is presented to the student. It's reflected in how the adult is sensitive to the feelings and wellbeing of the student, which can be seen in adult responsiveness to their needs: the need for respect (give the child a sense of appreciation and equality); need for attention (listening to the child, know the importance of the need for attention); need for security (recognize and respond to the uncertainties and insecurities of the child); need for affection (responding to the child with warmth and affection); and need for value (give the child encouragement, praise and support) (Portugal, 1996 Portugal & Laevers, 2010). The authenticity implies a balance between understanding and acceptance of others, their own feelings and values, and their communication. Attending to the quality of experiential dialogue allows the teacher to: examine the relationship with each student as well as the relationship between them and pursue to improve it; promote activities that help them explore the world of behaviours, feelings, relationships and values; identify students with socio-emotional difficulties and help them through appropriate interventions (Laevers, 2005).

The role of the teacher on emotional literacy process is essential. This is where the child most needs the feel of Educator / Teacher is active (Kog, Moons & Depondt (2004). Play an experiential dialogue is to establish a communication on a verbal and non-verbal level, so that the other feel truly understood, listened to, accepted and available to share their feelings, doubts and fears.

The need to promote, together with the curriculum knowledge, a positive socio-emotional climate among students (ability to work in groups, solidarity and mutual aid, acceptance of another different incompleteness of consciousness of individuals and knowledge) is seen not only as necessary and urgent but possible, which calls for strong investment in teacher training in this area (Amado et al, 2009).

Education for emotional development, will only be truly successful when the teachers start their self-education and give the example, educating with emotional intelligence. Thus, as a teacher of any scientific area will need to be an expert in this area, a teacher who wants to develop his role consciously in the emotional education of their students must develop in himself the skills necessary to effect (Goleman, 2000 ; Steiner & Perry, 2000).

Nowadays there are different approaches to emotional intelligence (EI). There are two major schools of thought in which this is interpreted on the one hand as a personality trait (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995, 1998) and others, as a mental skill (Mayer and Salovey, 1997).

Reuven Bar-On (1988) developed perhaps the first attempt to assess EI in terms of a measure of well-being. In his doctoral dissertation he used the term emotional quotient (“EQ”), long before it gained widespread popularity as a name for emotional intelligence and before Salovey and Mayer had published their first model of emotional intelligence. Bar-On (2000) now defines EI in terms of an array of emotional and social knowledge and abilities that
influence our overall ability to effectively cope with environmental demands. This array includes (1) the ability to be aware of, to understand, and to express oneself; (2) the ability to be aware of, to understand, and to relate to others; (3) the ability to deal with strong emotions and control one's impulses; and (4) the ability to adapt to change and to solve problems of a personal or a social nature. The five main domains in his model are intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, adaptability, stress management, and general mood (Bar-On, 1997).

Salovey and Mayer (1990, p.189) defined emotional intelligence as "the ability to deal with feelings and emotions, to distinguish between them and use this knowledge to drive their own knowledge and actions." These authors were reformulating the concept and defining emotional intelligence as the ability to understand, assimilate, comprehend and regulate one's own emotions and the emotions of others, promoting an emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Later, Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) conceive of IE as the model four interrelated branches. The model advocated by these authors consider the IE as a form of intelligence that combines emotions and thoughts running through cognitive and emotional systems (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000). They divided it into four areas: Perception of emotions - includes skills involved in identifying feelings for stimuli, such as voice or facial expression, for example. The person who has this ability to identify variation and change in the emotional state of another; Using emotions - implies the ability to use emotional information to facilitate the thinking and reasoning; Understanding emotions - is the ability to capture emotional variations not always obvious; Control (and transformation) of emotion - is the most easily recognized aspect of emotional intelligence - is the ability to deal with their own feelings.

The Goleman model (1998), which includes contributions from Salovey & Mayer (1990) has been the most publicized in the public sphere and believes that emotional intelligence is "... ability to identify our own feelings and those of others, to motivate and manage emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships. " (Goleman, 1998). He divided it into five areas: a. Knowing one's emotions; b. Managing emotions; c. Motivate himself; d. Recognize emotions in others and e. Establish relationships.

Methodology

In this theoretical framework, a teacher-student interaction that contributes to an emotional education successfully became the focus of our project.

Thus, it is intended to meet the conceptions of primary school teachers on emotional education and its impact on the emotional well-being, development and learning of students. This research has as an object of study the student-teacher interactions in the primary school.

It is a qualitative research, with an exploratory and descriptive study, inserted into the phenomenological interpretative paradigm. Although the first part include specific techniques of quantitative analysis, its purpose is qualitative and we chose the place it in this paradigm. Qualitative research is defined as "a set activity that locates the observer in the world" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2006, p. 17) focusing particularly the understanding of the problems from the perspective of the subjects of research (Bogdan & Biklen, 1994).

This study will reveal the perception of a sample of Portuguese teachers about the student-teacher interactions that contribute to a successful emotional education. We will study the dimension experiential dialogue / sensitivity on the indicators of authenticity, acceptance and empathy (Rogers, 1983; Laevers, 2003, Pascal & Bertram, 2009;
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Portugal & Laevers, 2010). The authenticity implies a balance between understanding and acceptance of the other, understanding and acceptance of their own feelings and values and their communication. Acceptance is expressed in the ability to accept the student as a person with self-worth, their feelings and their opinions without judging. Empathy is revealed when the teacher understands the reactions of students presenting a sensitive awareness of the way in which the process of education and learning is presented to the student.

Study phases

This project is divided into three phases:

In Phase I a preliminary study consisting in the construction, validation and application of a questionnaire to primary school teachers in the central region of the country was carried out.

In Phase II, we intend to question, discuss and reflect on the work in emotional education in the primary school. This reflection will be a promoter of focussed teachers-student pedagogical management of feelings and emotions that lead to the development of emotional skills in students (recognition, distinction and appointment of their own emotions and those around them).

In phase III emotional education based teaching activities in the classroom will be required. A narrative writing situation on the images presented based on the work done in two initial focus group will also be stimulated.

Participants

In phase I the sample will be of convenience (Almeida & Freire, 2003) and consists of about 100 teachers from 8 school federations of a region in the centre of the country.

For stage II and III will be selected a sample of eight teachers, among those who agreed to participate in focus groups and will be held three interviews in this format.

Procedures

It was proceeded to the authorization request with the directions of the schools where the instruments were administered for collaborative application in this investigation.

The participation of teachers is voluntary and anonymous and required after clarified the objectives, methods and procedures of the study, being them also guaranteed the confidentiality of information provided, as well as the possibility to refuse or give up to participate, without any negative consequences for themselves.

The various methods involving the use of distinct data collection techniques allow the Methodological triangulation participating with evidence for the study of reality (Denzin, 1989). The study presented here will be developed with the data collected by:
1. Questionnaire

The questionnaire was developed based on the Theory of Meaningful Learning (Rogers, 1983), more specifically the conditions inherent of the classroom climate that are to be provided by the teacher lead to learning, namely congruence, acceptance and empathic understanding. Later in the Model of Experiential Education (Leavers & Van Sanden, 1997), the authors created the Adult Style Observation Schedule that focuses on teacher-student interactions inherent of the sensitivity / Dialogue Experiential, characterized by attitudes of empathy, authenticity and acceptance between others not complemented in this investigation. The dimension studied is the emotional literacy that has been divided into two categories: Development of Emotional Competence (emotional literacy, self-awareness, recognition in the other) and Experiential Dialogue (acceptance, empathy and authenticity).

2. Focus Group

Based on the interest shown by teachers participating in phase I, a convenience sample of eight teachers who will participate in three focus group sessions will be sought. These sessions will be designed, implemented and evaluated according to the needs and conceptions identified in phase I of the study.

The advantage of focus groups is that, when properly managed, they can produce a broader and more in-depth understanding of a subject or topic, because the process of interaction stimulates memories, discussion, debate and dissemination in a manner that is less likely in individual interviews (Wilkinson, 2003).

3. Narrative Approach

The narrative approach is a way for people to give sense and meaning to their experience by presenting past events the perspective of the narrator, who has, retrospectively, a holistic view of what occurred (Bruner, 1991; 1996; Atkinson 1998; Alves, 2002). The written narratives will be requested at the end of the 2nd focus group session and collected in the pause between this and 3rd focus group session.

Results

A preliminary analysis of the results shows that on the dimension that measures conceptions of teachers about the pedagogical management of feelings and emotions that lead to the development of emotional skills in students, the responses of teachers allow us to verify the existence of a higher percentage of teachers who consider that pedagogic management of feelings and emotions of students and the development of emotional skills in them are important. In the dimension concerning the reported practices of teachers in the classroom we observed a decrease in the percentage of teachers who develop emotional literacy practices in the classroom compared to teachers who declare to be important to develop them. Reflecting on this we can think that given the importance given to this aspect, the practices do not correspond in this teachers group.

As with the dimension experiential dialogue teachers have a reference to acceptance, authenticity and empathy as important, but it is revealed as incongruity in practice. Authenticity and acceptance present lower values and empathy higher values in both conceptions and teaching practices.
Regarding training, a percentage of 87.9% report never having received training in the area. Of these, 25.3% reported not having had the opportunity and other 31.9% said they had not received training proposal in this area. Yet 81% of the participants are interested in participating in training. Of these, 55% say they have curiosity, the other 15% refer they feel the need. To 9% of the subjects the training they received was not enough and feel the need for more. Only 8.8% report not be interested in training in this area. We understood by the data analysis that teachers would have curiosity, interest or even need to attend training actions in this area but that hasn’t been made available for them.

Of all teachers, 40.7% volunteered to participate in the next phase of the study. It will be created a sample on them. Again we note the interest shown by theme.

**Final considerations**

Paying attention to the results we believe we can begin to notice a general interest within the group studied for the subject of emotional education and the need to develop practical classroom based on this philosophy. We note on the other hand a mismatch in the practices reported by teachers. Also seems to be a great demand for training in this area that is not matched by teacher training centres. We believe this study can bring impactful contributions to teacher training in this area.

**References**


Will science without borders program bring relevant changes for brazilian curriculum?

_Bido, Maria Cláudia Fogaça; UNISINOS University, Brazil_

Although being recent and carrying uncertainty in its continuity, Science without Borders Program (SwB), created by the Federal Brazilian government, on December 2011, represents a turning point in higher education, mainly in undergraduation level. Offering scholarships abroad is not something new in Brazil, but Science without Borders gets distinguished as never before. It changes the flow of scholarships granting from post-graduation to undergraduation level, what brings some impacts. Until 2011, post-graduation had always been the focus of scholarships grant. After a bit more than a decade, from 1998 to 2012, according to Geocapes Portal, from Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES), undergraduation representativity changed in the amount of scholarship granting from 5 to more than 50% and the slice which corresponds to this educational level has been growing. This study brings former scholars accounts as well as reports of academic mobility representatives who work at six universities in Rio Grande do Sul, located in Southern Brazil, as an attempt of empowering their experiences and as a result of a public policy, which brings a perspective of development for the country.

**Keywords:** Science without Borders. Internationalization. Higher education. Academic mobility

Science without borders program

In December, 2011, the Brazilian government created the first phase of Science without Borders Program (from 2011 to 2014), aiming at placing the country at an international scenario, through the grant of a hundred and one thousand scholarships for university students to study abroad. The Program continuity in its second phase (from 2015 to 2019) was approved on June 2014, a little before the poll in which president Dilma Roussef would be kept as the country's leader. Late in August 2015, however, Brazilian media published the temporary suspension, what has been called ‘freezing’.

Science without Borders comprises hundreds of universities abroad in 22 countries. The main motivations for scholars are the financial scholarship grant, settlement support, air tickets and health insurance. According to Decree 7,642, of December 13, 2011, scholarships would be granted for strategic areas, for candidates with excellent academic performance of the following levels: undergraduation; professional and technological
education; split-site doctoral program or doctorate-sandwich; doctorate program; postdoctoral; foreign researcher
visitors; young talented.

By promoting academic mobility, it is expected that partnership actions may be triggered through shared
researches and agreements between higher education institutions. Interculturality is one of the most relevant
aspects in this process of academic mobility as it offers to the ones who take part in it the skills considered
essential for employability and global interaction nowadays. Some of these skills, not only the ones related to
specific areas of knowledge, but also to intercultural ones, are reported in this study by 58 students from three
“gaúchas” higher education institutions (HEIs), through the use of online questionnaire, followed by two individual
interviews. The former scholars stated some possibilities of transformation in the dynamics of academic mobility
management in Brazilian HEIs, as well as in pedagogical practice and also curriculum changes. The following study
also presents the analysis of the information obtained through individual interviews with International Relations
(I.R.) departments of four universities from Rio Grande do Sul, two public and other two private.

Science without Borders, according to preliminary data collected by CAPES and CNPq showed that undergraduate
students were granted with 78% of the whole number of scholarships, what suggests a strategy of investments in
this age range and level of education.

In this context of such representativeness for Brazil, this study aims at following and evaluating this public policy,
since the Program has several merits, but also necessary adjustments, what will be useful for the continuity of this
program as well as others in the future. One of the main perceived obstacles in the operation of the Program, was
the lack of candidates with proficiency in foreign languages. The second limitation was the requirement of 600
points at Exame Nacional do Ensino Médio (ENEM), also a a condition for students coming from public school to
have access to higher education. The combination of these represented two limiting factors in candidates' 
selection.

By analyzing these concerns, it is possible to question:

How was Science without Borders developed and what outcomes and challenges are possible to be
identified, in order to empower the experiences of students and higher education quality?

The university and its internationalization

The main reason for the existence of universities in contemporary times – more than being responsible for
students formation in terms of delivering content – is to provoke students' curiosity to lead them to the practice of
investigation, to creativity and to the search of innovation, in order to make life in global society better.

Hélio Trindade, in his opening speech at the XXI Reunião anual da ANPED (National Association of Pedagogy),
in 1998, in Brazil, entitled University under perspective – society, knowledge and power, reports that some schools
came up with the arrival of the Portuguese Royal family, in 1808, but Brazilian universities got organized only from
the twenties in the twentieth century. Thus, historically speaking, it can be affirmed that there is a real delay in

39 Gaúcha means from Rio Grande do Sul state
Brazil, compared to other countries, since eight centuries separate the creation of the first European universities and the Brazilian ones.

Nowadays, however, universities face a crisis of hegemony and legitimacy and they need to be rethought. By mentioning the crisis of university, Boaventura de Sousa Santos (2014) draws the attention to its inertia as an obstacle to getting out of this crisis.

To change the university, however, goes far beyond from its willingness, since it involves public policies, economic, political and social contexts among other factors. So, what does the future hold for higher education in Brazil and in the world? Will we be going to the way of education mercantilism and the definite lost of the nation state power? Are academic mobility programs, such as Science without Borders, promising alternatives to place Brazil in international level of knowledge?

Internationalization in educational area, as a global phenomenon, seems to be a logical consequence of universities original uprising, since they emerged in an intercultural environment. In As Universidades na Idade Média, Verger (1990) explains that the first complexity evidence of the bonds that connected universities to the society of that time was the diversity of international students recruitment.

Internationalization means different things to different people. It seems there is no consensus in its concept because it varies from one country to another, based on particular interests.

A definition must be generic enough to many different countries, cultures, and education systems. Coming up with such a definition is no easy task. While it is not necessarily the intention here to develop a universal definition, it is imperative that the definition be appropriate for use in a broad range of contexts. Knight (2005).

Knight introduced the word process in her concept: Internationalization at the national, sectoral, and institutional level is “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education” (Knight, 2005).

It is perceived that internationalization is a quite wide phenomenon, that expresses itself through students, professors and researchers mobility, internships in companies and universities, as well as joint-degree programs, among other ways. There are essentially two groups of people in academic communities, who may represent internationalization: foreigners studying in a specific country (inbound) and locals who travel to another country (outbound) in search of qualification.

By comparing peers, people, institutions or nations, a relation of value comes together and it seems to be intrinsic to the internationalization process. The possibility of mobility enables students to a quality confrontation of the compared experiences in different educational environments.

Students qualification in international level may provide them educational background aligned with the most innovative and current experiences in the world, what may also guarantee employability anywhere in our planet.
However, it is necessary to avoid overvaluation of what is external to the detriment of what is Brazilian. Competitiveness among HEIs, even very strong locally, becomes globally wider as an account of internationalization. Students’ recruitment turns into a war and having a good reputation needs to be taken with their international former students to their countries in order to make the gear of new comers to rotate.

Under the point of view of the ones who shelter international students abroad, foreigner presence is very welcomed, including Brazilians for business reasons. According to the publication of International Intercultural Education (IIE), entitled “The Open Doors 2013-2014”, almost nine hundred thousand students took any sort of course in the United States during the above mentioned period, what brought to that nation 27 billion dollars.

Until 2014, academic mobility was one of the main ways of Brazilian manifestation towards this process on account of Science without Borders Program.

Students in academic mobility: what they say

The results to be presented here refer to two distinct groups: former scholars and managers of the departments responsible for academic mobility. Among university students in general, the ones who had their experiences abroad over or finished were the chosen group instead of including the ones who were living the experience at the moment of this investigation. The reason for this choice was because after their return, students’ capacity to analyze facts seems to be more consolidated than while living the experience. During the experience it is common to face emotional ups and downs that could distort the results of this study, polarizing those feelings inappropriately.

An online questionnaire was sent to around 350 former scholars with 58 respondents, from three HEIs. Two out of four institutions are private, located in the metropolitan area of Porto Alegre, the capital of Rio Grande do Sul State. They are referred as HEI “A” and HEI “B”. The third is a public institution, located in the countryside of this state, to be referred as HEI “C”. All of them are among the top fifteen institutions that sent the biggest number of students from Rio Grande do Sul to partner institutions abroad through Science without Borders Program.

Academic travelers:

The majority of the scholars was born between 1988 and 1993, that means their age range was from 20 to 27 years old at the moment of their departure.

Among the interviewed students, 63.3% live in nuclear families with an average of 4 to 6 people. They belong to B2 social class, according to Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística’s (IBGE) social bands division, who earn from one to five minimum wages (around 5,000,00 reals at the moment). The other 40% belong to B1 band, who earn from 6 to 10 minimum wages (from 6,000,00 to R$ 10,000,00 reals).

Considering former scholars’ parents level of education, mothers and fathers are almost tight. Around 35% of them have high school level. There is a slight female advantage in terms of higher education.

The preferred destination for former scholars was English-speaking countries. In this sample, United Kingdom was the preferred destination followed by the United States of America and Australia.
Among the 58 interviewed, 52 had taken any sort of English course before their international experience. Only 24 out of 58 had taken a course of more than 300 hours before the international experience. All the others had dedicated less hours of foreign language studies. Having the Common European Framework of Reference (CEF) as a basis for this analysis, it is assumed that the majority of scholars, after studying a foreign language from 150 to 300 hours, reach a level in which they are considered Independent Users (B1 e B2). It remains questionable the real value of their linguistic knowledge whether it may be sufficient or not for the international academic experience.

Among the interviewed students, 76% did not attend English without Borders Program, what changed into Languages without Borders later on, both created by the Brazilian Federal government one year after the release of the Program Science without Borders, in 2012. It seems obvious that there was an inversion of priorities, since linguistic proficiency was a requirement for candidates and it turned into a bottleneck for SwB.

On the account of linguistic results presented by students, more than half of the interviewed scholars had to take a language course abroad, as part of the Program. Among the 58 interviewed, 32 traveled to their destination countries before the beginning of undergraduation classes with the objective of deepening their knowledge in the official language. Twelve had more than 300 hours of studies abroad. This possibility of studying the local language in the country where it is the official language spoken, counting on all the support that the Program offers (fees, scholarship/ settlement aid, health insurance and others) represents a unique opportunity for most of Brazilian university students.

**Previous preparation by the universities of origin**

The previous preparation for the international experience is of extreme importance to the success of the Program and HEIs were in charge of it. However, more than half (57%) of the respondents declared not having had any previous preparation by the university of origin.

**Experiences, impasses, academic travelers’ learnings**

Considering academic performance, 70% of the former scholars guarantee having been approved in all subjects. Among the reasons that justify failure, they found some difficulty to catch up with some subjects, what was mentioned by seven students out of seventeen who failed in one of the subjects. Students also mentioned lack of requirements to do some of the subjects, difficult tests, difficulty with the language (e.g. classes in Catalan), health problems.

Among 58 interviewed students, 53 stated having attended lessons until the end of the academic year. Four out of 58 did not attend them until the end. Two justified it by saying they did not understand them, one failed in one of the exams and the last considered the course weak. One of them did not justify his/her failure.

By being requested to speak freely about their experiences as Science without Borders scholars, all the 58 students pointed out fundamental aspects for adjustments, which could be considered in accordance with the result presented by CAPES and CNPq related to the end of the first phase of the Program.
The classification of responses was made according to the following categories: Studies, Language Learning, Culture, SwB Program Empowerment for the Society, Personal Problems, Professional Perspectives and Governmental Investment. These categories contributed to the analysis as it follows.

To understand scholars’ experiences and the details of the Program were the main objectives of this study. That is why university students meant the most important source of information. All the 58 interviewed former scholars approved the Program, though, with some reservations. Ninety per cent of them demonstrated satisfaction in different levels.

It is important to point out that some former scholars are totally aware that SwB was possible due to the fact of being a public policy, mostly with governamental investment, though there was some private contribution from companies as well. Students believe that showing a good image of Brazil in different countries may bring positive outcomes for individuals and the society. On the other hand, the opposite also means closing doors for Brazilians or at least having reservations towards them and possible agreements. Several students expressed their disapproval with the lack of commitment of other Brazilian university students in academic mobility, but also with governmental agencies monitoring in relation to absence and performance.

Especifically about academic studies, comparisons between Brazil and other countries were inevitable. Among positive aspects, students considered HEIs abroad advanced, technological, well-equipped and welcoming. Others pointed out lack of organization, mainly in early experiences with SwB Program. The majority of them demonstrated satisfaction with learning in general, with some exceptions, and also mentioned their expectations to return to those countries to take a post-graduation course. They highlighted some positive differences such as: access to a new academic culture, new methods of projects development, new materials and techniques (Architecture), different didactics, acquisition of a global understanding of their areas of study, access to professors with international relevance in their fields of study, bonds generated with classmates (networking). Among negative aspects, students pointed out tests characteristics, considered too focused on content and the lack of possibility to participate during the classes because they were very much focused on professor’s speech. The validation of credits after students’return to Brazil was also mentioned as a key factor. According to the results presented by the agencies of investment CAPES and CNPq, in July 2015, 63% of the credits were validated after the first phase of the Program.

It seems to be revealing the way students’ interaction take place. Through this interaction, both parts, namely Brazilians and the hosts, may benefit from it and complement one another. There are several examples of success posted at Science without Borders Portal. One of them refers to S.J, from HEI “C”, who went to Scotland, in the United Kingdom, as an academic mobility student. After an adaptation period and after surpassing the language barrier, he had an excellent performance and also taught his foreigners and Scottish classmates to use some specific software. He had already used it in Brazil and then, felt confident enough to help them.

To use the local language in an international context was a remarkable outcome as much positive as it meant a limitation for Science without Borders former scholars. Students mentioned language learning as an opportunity to practice it daily, but they did not inform whether it was enough for an appropriate performance in HEIs abroad. Difficulties were expressed openly. They were considered obstacles or something that impaired the understanding of the classes. The amount of Brazilians studying at the same university may have been a restriction for linguistic strengthening, a comfort zone, very common in stressful situations caused by difficulties with communication on
daily basis. Some students pointed out other aspects such as: the differences for understanding English accent, which Brazilians were not familiar with.

The possibility of internship, as part of SwB Program, was of great value for former scholars, however, some of them could not do it according to their expectations. For the ones who had this possibility, internship meant experiencing recruitment and selection processes, in some cases, long and careful. It was also a chance of performing within highly professional atmosphere, with top technology, doing appropriate tasks for their positions.

Throughout this year of studies at Université d’Orleans, I worked at the Institut de Combustion Aérotermique Réactivité ET Environement (ICARE), with analysis of soot formation in diesel-engine combustion for Centre National de La Recherche Scientifique Français (CNRS), as a result of partnerships with Reanult S.A.. This was an unbelievable experience that allowed me to have specific learning impossible to be measured, since the cultural and professional outcomes I absorbed will be with me in every single phase of my life. (R.P.B., student from HEI “C”)

Some students did not have the chance of doing internship. They tried themselves to get it, with no help from the Brazilian agencies of investment or even from the destination university. Others could do it, but did not have their credits validated after returning to the Brazilian HEI of origin.

Culture category was widely highlighted among interviewed students, since they faced deep positive transformations in terms of world view. Their maturation by experiencing daily contact with new cultures, the exposure to different people and habits within a significant amount of time of 18 months represented a valuable aspect.

Undoubtedly, it was the best experience of my life […] It contributed not only for my professional growth, but also as a human being. I do believe I got more mature and besides learning the French know-how and getting fluent in French language, I got to know amazing people and places, I learned new habits, about food and I lived with a French family where cultural exchange was enriching. It helped me to open my mind and to perceive the world in a different manner (P.B.R., student from HEI “C”)

Former scholars truly believe that Brazil may benefit from their experiences somehow since the access to new cultures will bring positive reflections for them and therefore for the nation. The other way round also took place, when Brazilians could take this culture to people of other parts of the world, what allowed Brazilians and locals to a better understanding about international diversity. This is the rationale for academic mobility. The few cases of dropout are related to health problems, mainly emotional ones. Approximately 2% of the scholars dropped out, being the majority for psychiatric interventions such as depression.

In Professional Experience category, the majority of students demonstrated satisfaction with the perspectives the international experience may bring to them. They consider professional connections and bonds very relevant, as well as their different points of view over the labour market in global dimension and the possibilities of being part of it, as a result of SwB

Concerning Empowerment for the Society category, several students demonstrated worrying with the lack of possibilities of sharing ideas about their experiences abroad in Brazil.
In Governamental Investment category, the most mentioned topic was lack of monitoring of the students' performance, since some of them did not even attend the classes.

**Coordinators come into operation: what they tell us about it**

Four interviews were made with the coordinators of four HEI departments connected to academic mobility between January and May 2015 and these people are referred to coordinator B, D, E and F, according to his/her correspondent HEI from Rio Grande do Sul, two public (E and F) and two private (B and D).

Under their point of view, there was unanimity regarding the success of the Program. The group of interviewed coordinators is made of faculty members, who turned into coordinators or directors of the International Relations or Academic Mobility department after a long period of teaching at the HEIs they work. These coordinators are in favour of academic mobility and defend this idea for several reasons. Some of them had their own experience abroad and so they believe in it as an expression of innovation, of acquiring global performance and also of having access to other cultures.

Personally speaking, the coordinators think academic mobility programs in general offer them the possibility to contribute with students’ qualification, what means a great pleasure for them. Considering institutional level, coordinators' testimonials show there is a concern with the alignment of HEIs with what still exists in terms of internationalization the world.” We have to find a place to our country”, states HEI “B” coordinator.

All the interviewed ones pointed out some difficulties to operate the Program the way it was set up, but they recognize it as something of great importance for Brazilian nation. The established criteria for the enrollment of candidates are listed in Decree 7,642, from December 2011. However, Brazilian HEIs have freedom to establish others according to specific HEIs' policies, what varies from one to another area or course. HEI “B” coordinator, for instance, believes that cultural matters are the biggest constraint for Brazilian students because they are unaware of their potential to face international experience.

They do not search elements to justify that they can be inserted in another culture and establish some distance that, in fact, does not exist. They say: This is not for me. (HEI “B” Coordinator)

Finding their own identity is an essential condition for the success of the student's experience abroad. Brazilians, mainly descendants of immigrants, still have vestiges from the political period in which bilingualism was legally banned in Brazil. According to Decree-Law 1,545, from August 1939, foreign languages would not be allowed to be spoken in public, on behalf of “the use of national language” , to cultivate Brazilian history, to incorporate the official language in associations of patriotic approach and through every media available to contribute to a common awareness formation.

The imposition to use Portuguese language and to turn Brazil into a monolingual country turned Brazilians scared of speaking foreign languages for some generations. These people did not motivate their children nor to learn the language of their predecessors neither a universal language like English. This situation justifies, to some extent, the current levels of proficiency Brazilian nation has, that still has limited relations with the globalized world, also due to the lack of fluency in other languages, since Portuguese does not have universality condition.
Several challenges take place before, during and after the international experience of academic mobility, such as the student’s communicative capacity, that demands efforts towards solutions or, in some situations, lead them to dropout. Among the interviewed coordinators, it was a consensus that this phase of the Program is more complex, since scholars’ experience monitoring depends necessarily on the interaction among teams responsible for academic mobility or I.R. at the institutions, as well as scholars. Some of the scholars had health problems, being the majority emotional, leading students to depression, but the number of these cases was very short. In situations like that, HEI “D” made arrangements to give psychological support not only to the students, but also to their families. The coordinator who represents HEI “B” emphasizes her belief about emotional matters by saying that they are decisive for the scholars’ experience results.

When the student is in his ‘habitat’, where he recognizes himself, and then, suddenly, he is placed in another this affects their emotional side – mainly between youngsters of the target age range of SwB. We have been discussing a deeper adaptation method of those expats after their return in order to prevent their loss of academic performance in this process of changes. In case the student drops out, we have to be careful with their self-esteem. This is a valuable component. The one who drops out, has to be prepared on this matter to avoid personal and academic obstacles. (HEI “B” Coordinator)

There are two topics that deserve to be highlighted among all. They are two HEIs’ representatives testimonials regarding changes still occurred in the institutions they work at. The first refers to the performance of I.R. or academic mobility department teams. In three out of four HEIs there were changes in the structure of their teams. Consequently, those teams became bigger in terms of number of staff people. The second relevant aspect mentioned by all the interviewed was the internal alignment of I.R. or academic mobility as HEI’s strategic policy, involving people from the president to the student, specifically through close and regular contact of those departments with undergraduation committees. These two aspects seem to be the main outcomes till the moment this study was closed, since they mean considerable results regarding know-how to deal with academic mobility.

Academic mobility also raises awareness about the quality of classes, assessments, faculties, methodologies, credits validation and so on. Even traditional universities that have good reputation see themselves driven to rethink their rationales, missions, values and targets, to take decisions whether to validate those believes or not when they face comparisons. For all undergraduation student interviewed, the international experience was a great learning opportunity. It is worthy, though, to reflect upon the equity level of global competencies Brazilians may have acquired through this experience, what is a current requirement.

When it comes to validation of credits as a result of an international experience, things get more complex. Brazil still has in its university curricula a subjects’ system with established timetables, time loads, etc.

The results of the compilation of reports made by CAPES and CNPq agencies are the ones that follow:
Science without Borders (SwB) scholarship grantings: from 2011 to 2014: 101,266

Source: Science without Borders Portal, according to CAPES and CNPq reports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Number of scholarship grantings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>3,621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>16,240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>39,196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>42,209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand total</td>
<td>101,266</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 35: Number of SwB scholarships grantings per period

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Majors</th>
<th>Number of scholarship grantings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>45,1 mil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biology, Biomedicine and Health Sciences</td>
<td>18,3 mil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative Industry</td>
<td>8,4 mil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exact and Earth Sciences</td>
<td>8,3 mil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computing and Information Technology</td>
<td>6,2 mil</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 36: Five top majors that received scholarship grantings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of satisfaction</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 37: Level of former scholars satisfaction with SwB

Total of respondents of the report: 20,879
Methodology

The nature of this study led it to a quality research approach, considering that Science without Borders Program is a very recent project, what comprises academic life experiences abroad. However, we also make use of some data related to those experiences that SwB offers and we consider that quality and quantitative researches can be connected.

Regarding this theme, it is established a historical policy that, under our point of view builds a fake dichotomy between quantitative data and qualitative ones. The probability goes into the direction of a trend to attributing imprecision to qualitative ones, since these kinds of researches do not allow ‘precise’ tests, as well as the ones that scientific approaches demand. When it comes to verification, many analysts turn to quantitative data. (MINAYO, 1994)

In order to carry out this study about Science without Borders, what counted the most was the experience of former scholars and Brazilian HEIs teams involved with the management of the Program. To understand what the concept of the word experience is we made use of the definition of Larrosa (2002), which says, in Spanish language it is what “nos passa” or even in Portuguese, “o que nos acontece”. However, due to the fact that there are many things happening, the author says there is a poorness of experiences, what makes it rare. Thus: “At first, due to the excess of information, information is not experience” (2002).

The first step of this study was dedicated to establishing the problem. After that, there was an exploration of the problem and its consequences in people’s lives, a sort of diagnosis moment. The following step was the moment of definition of research questions, the ones that guide to important conclusions. The empirical field was determined based on the researcher’s intentionality. The people involved, why those people, which are their universities of origin and destination institutions are some of the questions used in this study. When this step was over, though they had not taken place lineally, the analysis of documents came (decrees and edicts) and also data collecting, through a semi-structured interview by using a questionnaire with some closed and others open-ended questions. Students from two private were interviewed as well as others from one public institution from Rio Grande do Sul State. Coordinators from four universities also were heard.

The instruments of research were:

a) Interview with representatives of International Relations department from four institutions, being two public and two private;

b) Online questionnaire answered by 58 former scholars from three institutions;

c) Interview with two students from two different HEIs.

In this data analysis, Triviños (1987) was the guiding author, who says we should make the first reading with “open eyes”, followed by a second reading, when we should “underline the ideas that are connected to some theoretical basis” After that, the categorization of responses came. Only at the end of this categorization it was possible to detect conflicting and coincidental points the statements of the interviewed.

For Pádua (1996), the writing moment is the one when all the others are interconnected, since after each phase or finding "we have a bend ourselves over writing again"
Conclusion

To have the first phase of Science without Borders (SwB) successfully finished, the composition of a mosaic of positive and negative aspects pointed out by former scholars in international academic mobility was of great relevance. The quality of the outcomes can be related to the logistics of the process, but also to psychological aspects.

There was some difficulty for HEIs in recruiting candidates, in the first edicts, especially due to student's linguistic lack of preparation. This was a quite limiting aspect for students to join the Program in a bigger volume. Also, among so many challenges SwB presents, the main difficulty seems to be how to give follow-up to this Program of such a huge dimension and relevance, avoiding the restriction of outcomes only individually, but also sharing the learning of the granted ones.

Aiming at understanding what was available about Internationalization in Education, specifically about Science without Borders Program, we searched information from books and articles in electronic journals. The authors considered references in Internationalization are: Philip Altbach (EUA), Jane Knight (Canada), Boaventura de Sousa Santos (Portugal), Sônia Laus (Brasil). Jacques Verger. From those authors, we excerpted ideas to the state-of-the art and we could realize the trends in internationalization field in higher education, what was important to dialogue, lately, with our findings.

A mobility culture starts to find room within academic communities, with more frequent circulation of information and efficiency. After four years of existence of Science without Borders, there was a perception of evolution by the interviewed ones. The compilation of students’ reports may indicate adjustments about the importance of internationalization management process.

Certainly this Program's results will be evident and noticeable in the medium or long term. Under certain circumstances, they will have impact over students' lives and the country’s history. It is essential that Brazilian institutions promote sharing moments for anyone to enjoy it and learn from it.

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Schools' External Evaluation in the perspective of the Department Coordinators

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In Portugal, Schools’ External Evaluation (SEE) is established in Law no. 31/2002 of 20th February, having been implemented from 2005/06, by the General Inspection of Education and Science (IGEC). This model constitutes itself as an identifier of good organizational, procedural and pedagogical practices. It intends to create a lasting and systematic culture of quality and improvement through levels of efficiency and efficacy that enable the contextualization and interpretation of the results to achieve credibility and success in the education system. SEE is framed in national and international educational policies that promote the legitimacy of the concept of evaluation placing accountability, quality, improvement, efficacy, efficiency and results as main objectives of the evaluation of institutions. A question arises: What are the consequences of SEE in the perspective of school department
coordinators of Portugal’s northern region?. To understand the concept of evaluation we analyzed different definitions and the content analysis of the interviews of department coordinators of school clusters (n=17) in the northern region of Portugal, based on the evaluation perspective of Nevo (2007) that comprehends five functions: decision making, improvement, accountability, professionalism and certification. Through the analysis of the interviews we found a connection between SEE and the functions identified by Nevo (2007), since it’s a process that legitimizes the decision-making of the intermediate leaders looking for improvement and holds responsible various actors certifying, at the eyes of society, organizational, pedagogical and curricular practices carried out by schools. The data point to the recognition of the importance of the educational context and the work done by the department coordinators.

This paper is inserted on an investigation project “School External Evaluation on the non-higher education” (FCT – PTDC/CPE-CED/116674/2010) led by Minho’s University.

**Keywords:** school external evaluation, decision making, accountability, improvement, certification.

In recent years, evaluation has become a practice publicly debated, based on different concepts that promoted the idea of a State-evaluator and regulator. The need for setting objectives and measurement evolved alongside a new public management, based in a globalized economy. Thus, evaluation focuses on performativity and accountability, following neo-liberal ideals (Carpenter, Diem & Young, 2014). In education, this view promoted the idea that schools are public services, accountable to the public and to national and transnational organizations. Evaluation is recognized as a key tool in the reform of the institutions which seek to respond to the market, having in its rear the state in order to "produce more quality, relevance and public order to all the academic, scientific, technical and administrative activities, as well as, social, inter-institutional and intra-institutional relations" (Sobrinho, 2003, p. 10). In response, schools changed their administrative practices, adapting to the market management "focusing mainly on the future demand for labor, social efficiency, market competition, and league tables of performance between schools, systems of educational testing that are tied to the criteria for market competition." (Saari, Salmela & Vilkkilä, 2014, p. 184). In its diversity of subject and in his questioning, institutional evaluation has obeyed almost exclusively to a regulatory function, weighing summative evaluation, as noted in several international reports (OECD, 2013; European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015).

According to the theoretical framework that supports it, evaluation is essentially formative and summative (Scriven, 1967; Nevo, 2007), being seen as two sides of the same coin, one that provides the improvement, development and learning (Scheerens, 2003; Pacheco, 2010), while the other promotes accountability (Afonso, 2009; Fullan, Rincon-Gallardo & Hargreaves, 2015), a comparison of results logic and competitiveness (Ozga & Grek , 2012) using key concepts such as quality, effectiveness and efficiency. Even if in certain models and practices there is a tendency to focus one, evaluation presupposes school improvement, contributing reflexively to the internal continuous sharing (Bolivar, 2003; 2012).

In Nevo’s (2007) perspective evaluation contains five functions: decision making, improvement, accountability, professionalism and certification. These five functions are related to the needs, purposes and levels of education, and are present throughout the educational domain. A reflection of this is the scope of the decision-making function
that involves students, teachers, parents and administrators. In a logic of innovation and modernization arises the function of improvement which promotes student learning, the improving of teachers’ skills, as well as, the update and the constant development of educational materials. The function of accountability becomes incomplete when used only in the interpretation of results, either of students or of external evaluation, but becoming complete if it resorts to the ongoing dialogue between teachers, schools and external evaluation. At the level of professionalism it’s intended that the professional needs of teachers have a positive impact on education, by promoting continuous self-assessment practices that intentionally support curricular options. Thus, it will be promoting the active participation of teachers in SEE, becoming an integral part of the teachers’ lives. Evaluation is a widely used resource to the certification of educational institutions, school administrations, educational programs and teachers. This evaluative sphere legitimate evaluation and justifies it to society as a form of accreditation or formal recognition.

Schools’ External Evaluation

The publication of the Law 31/2002, of 20th December, approves the evaluation system in pre-school establishments, primary and secondary levels of education, through the implementation of an Schools’ External Evaluation (SEE) model, which is framed in transnational and supranational regulation processes and policies that promote accountability and responsibility (Afonso, 2009), associated with the autonomy of schools, teacher’s professional development and the effectiveness and school improvement.

The evaluation of schools is an activity of legal legitimacy, according to the Basic Law on Education, responsibility of the General Inspection of Education and Science (IGEC), that assumes it "as a contribution to the development of schools" (IGEC, 2011, p. 51), competing at the National Board of Education (CNE) to review it. Being presented as a formative tool for assessing school quality, SEE model takes into account the first experiences of this central organization linked to the institutional assessment, following the European guidelines set by the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM), and adopting the principles of the Scottish model How Good is Our School.

In Portugal, SEE’s system includes two cycles. The first cycle started in 2006 and finished in 2011, focused in the fields of results, performance of educational services, school organization and management, leadership and the capacity of self-regulation and school/clusters’ improvement. The second cycle, which began in 2012, is focused in the domains of results, performance of educational service, leadership and management. Each of these domains is based on factors and indicators. As the result of SEE arises a classification that is currently the following: Excellent, Very Good, Good, Sufficient and Insufficient.

Throughout the implementation of SEE it’s possible to check that it is intrinsically related to the educational policies of each State (Pacheco, 2014) and, clearly, a social field influenced by concepts generators of changes at the organizational, curricular and pedagogical practices levels (Rodrigues, Queirós, Sousa & Costa, 2014). As advocates Ball (1997), in the policy construction cycle, the context of influence is one of the most crucial vectors in the regulation that is exercised by transnational corporations that are the cradle sharing policies of knowledge and accountability policies.
Methodology

In order to answer the research question, we chose a qualitative approach of interpretative nature "that allows us to establish a more insightful understanding of our object of study." (Bodgan & Biklen, 1994, p.49). We used content analysis (Esteves, 2006) for the analysis of the focus group (n = 2) to the department coordinators of schools’ clusters in the northern Portugal area. To analyze the data (E1, E2), we used the content analysis resorting to semantic registration units (Esteves, 2006) which are connected with the functions referred by Nevo (2007): decision making, improvement, accountability, professionalism and certification.

To accomplish the data gathering we resorted to a table where the functions mentioned by Nevo (2007) are registered and the semantic registration units. In this way we can establish the relationship between the speech of the department coordinators, the functions of evaluation (Nevo, 2007) and the SEE consequences, in order to "isolate the various meanings present in what has been said" (Esteves, 2006, p.114).

Regarding ethical issues, several principles were used, namely in terms of informed consent and ensuring the confidentiality and anonymity of the institutions and respondents (Lima, 2006; Quivy & Campenhoudt, 2005; Tuckman, 2002).

Results and discussion

The content analysis carried out has as its main objective to understand the department coordinators interviewed regarding the consequences of SEE framed in the logic of evaluation argued by Nevo (2007). In order to scrutinize the data emerging from the content analysis we propose to do it based on the functions defended by Nevo (2007). To help to understand the analysis of the overall results and promote a discussion, we use some direct quotes from the two interviews of the department coordinators, which we called: Interview 1 (E1) and Interview 2 (E2).

Although we present two interviews of the department coordinators of different areas of the northern Portugal area, both lead us to similar experiences, despite the practice of self-assessment, in one of the schools, is supported by an external team, there isn’t therefore, a formally constituted team.

As regards the decision-making function, through the analysis of the interviews, it is observed that the department coordinators demonstrate an interest in the decisions taken by the leadership, as their greater involvement is carried out mainly in the pedagogical council, on virtual platforms or through general meetings of teachers. For example, regarding the development of the contradictory of SEE, in both interviews, it appears that the document’s first analysis was prepared with the contribution of teachers: "If you review our minutes you will see how dealt matters the analysis of the strengths and weaknesses "(E1), and then made the contradictory based on the emerging suggestions of these meetings:"(…) in this general meeting we analyzed the most controversial issues that we considered inconsistent. And then the final text emerged." (E2). In the case of E1, to the question:" Had you knowledge of the contradictory?" the coordinators were emphatic when said: "Yes. It was collaborative "! (E1). Thus, data from interviews indicates the exogenous effect of the SEE (Ehren & Visscher, 2006), as the model leads to a standardization of organizational practices that central management prescribes, unifies and centralizes demonstrating that despite the legislation pointing only to the compulsory self-evaluation practices, the absence of a team turns out to be penalizing for schools, as is stated in the E2: "(…) for many years now we do self-assessment. Maybe not in the way they wanted, the way it's legislated.".
One of the issues raised by the department coordinators from E1 reflects the function of accountability, since there is an attempt to approach the processes and results of school to the expectation that the school has on the process of SEE: 
"(...) we have worked in the sense of approaching the external evaluation criteria, we aren’t here to work things that then aren’t evaluated ... SEE is just that, we have to produce in terms of what we are asked." (E1), although during the interview have recognized that: 
"We cannot say we started working more because of it (...) or overthrow our attitudes and practices.". In this regard, in the E2 interview, the department coordinators consider that 
"(...) SEE doesn’t condition our conduct or influence our daily conduct.", showing some resistance in recognizing the impact that has had on their schools.

On the curricular level, in both interviews, it’s clear the concern to bring students assessment criteria with the criteria of external evaluation of learning (examinations and national tests): 
"(...) the attitudes and values worth 20%, but we thought we were valuing too much this domain because it was not included in the external evaluation (...)." (E1). In E2 it’s claimed: 
"(...) we are getting closer to the criteria of the national tests.". At pedagogical level this look focused on results is not beneficial, however, as they demonstrate to be prevalent in the results of SEE, the school seeks to channel its resources to control the supporting practices that result in improved academic performance: 
"I think the results of external evaluation is conditioned by the assessment of students." tending to produce the perverse effect of distracting the educational actors and the surrounding community for a short term, resulting in myopia effect (Ehren & Visscher, 2006). Considering the data resulting from the interviews, there is a propensity for making pragmatic decision centered on school results, which promotes the continuous targeting and school particularization, reflecting itself in increased bureaucracy fostered in the concept of the necessity to impose itself before the results.

In the function of improvement, to the department coordinators (E1 and E2) SEE doesn’t cause an obvious improvement: 
"They said that our school had improved from the first to the second SEE, we don’t agree anything with it! (...) we think we were as good at the first as at the second SEE, even though the marks have been different..." (E1), and in E1 and E2 is clear that on the basis of the schools’ improvement and development are external guidance and the process SEE, as is the case of an earlier inspection previous of SEE: 
"(...) two years before we had here another inspector which resulted in an improvement plan." (E1) and the autonomy contract that is in place in the case of E2: 
"(...) under the autonomy agreement we have to achieve some goals (...).". It’s evident the concern shown by one of the department coordinators who says: 
"It worries me how important it’s given to the school and educational success. The school is becoming funneled" and is far from IGEC intentions that aims to 
"contribute to the development of schools" (IGEC, 2011) with the process of SEE.

At the level of professionalism, the interviews refer to the differences of the SEE teams between the 1st and the 2nd cycle of evaluation. It is highlighted in the school of E2 the existence of consolidated practices of self-assessment and, therefore, the 1st cycle of SEE was seen as an opportunity for improvement. In the perspective of E1, the 1st cycle of SEE was seen as a threat that promoted, among school actors, the construction and rooting of the school’s identity and caused the adoption of the external reference for self-assessment. Crossing the analysis of the interviews and the schools’ portrayal, we can say that on the 1st SEE’s cycle, in these schools, the inspection’s approach was tended directive (Pacheco, Seabra, Morgado, 2014), being emphasized, in the E1, the posture of external evaluators as "So unpleasant, arrogant ... I didn’t find their attitude intelligent.....", whereas in the 2nd SEE’s cycle, schools (E1 and E2) envisioned this process in a more optimistic way, a fact supported by Rodrigues and Moreira (2015).
Regarding the certification function in E1 is argued that there is a stigma attached to SEE: "If there isn’t stigma or prejudice, and the Inspection comes without fixed ideas, I think this school cannot be misjudged.". From the perspective of the Coordinators (E2) the "formatting" of the SEE’s process doesn’t allow the educational context to be a weighting factor in the evaluation that is made of the school, there is a gap between the results of the SEE and what is experienced in schools: "I think sometimes they come too formatted for certain things (...) and sometimes I think they don’t give a margin of differentiation between schools.". Both interviews are unanimous on the issue of reflection that SEE’s reflects in the school and so, on E1, is assumed a critical to the model used by IGEC: "I think that is to be created a model that can reach this level (...) for that arise such inconsistencies with the results of other schools". For being considered a process far from reality, the speech of department coordinators shows the diminutive formative character of SEE’s, stating that the prior existence of a self-assessment culture in schools is what addresses the systemic needs felt in the educational context: "(...) we have always done our self-evaluation." (E2). One of the potential functions of SEE’s is the appreciation of the social image in the community and this is reflected in both interviews: "It is a prestigious point for the community and it doesn’t result from SEE’s, because our parents and guardians will not read the report of external evaluation." (E2) and "I think the community recognizes our work. It was much more at extra level of the cluster.". About the changes at organizational level there is an ossification effect (Ehren & Visscher, 2006), since there is a demand for school to match the specific dynamics pointed out by SEE.

Through the analysis of the interviews we found a connection between SEE and the functions identified by Nevo (2007), since it’s a process that legitimizes the decision-making of the intermediate leaders looking for improvement and holds responsible various actors certifying, at the eyes of society, organizational, pedagogical and curricular practices carried out by schools. The data points to the recognition of the importance of the educational context and the work done by the department coordinators.

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The curricular practices of the trainee-teachers: An analysis of the movement between the graduation curriculum and teaching practices in the portuguese language area

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This research is part of the national debate on the directions of curriculum policies, regarding the curriculum and teacher training, and aims to analyze the curricular practical training of students at the Pedagogy course who are also elementary school teachers from public schools in the Agreste region of Pernambuco – Brazil. The starting point was to understand that the curriculum can not be understood as a ready and finished proposal, which is only performed by those operating in the practice area, since we understand the curriculum as a movement between what is thought and experimented in the daily life at school. Thus, the curricular practices result in hybrid policies in which the senses are built to move and not as a fixed form, being reconfigured by influences within both global and local realities. Therefore, the curricular practices should be open to reconfigurations and new meanings are assigned according to the context where they are being experienced. From this scenario emerges the following research question: What is the movement among the curriculum lived in the Pedagogy course, and the curriculum component within the Methodology of Portuguese Teaching and the teachers’ practices during their learning process like? Trying to answer this question, we developed a field research through interviews and observations in the classroom, with three teachers in the early years of elementary school who were in training at the Pedagogy Course and who had already attended all the classes at the mentioned subject. As we understand the curriculum as being made from various discursive forms, which are established through both the production of texts and practices, we took the Discourse Analysis as theoretical and methodological tools. From the analysis of the interviewed trainee teachers’ speeches, we realized that they highlighted the contribution of the studied subject ‘Methodology of Portuguese Teaching’ for the school curriculum organization and the curricular practice, regarding the selection of the most significant contents. As for the contributions to the everyday knowledge, the teachers’

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speeches revealed that the above subject showed them the necessity of including other knowledge and different moments in their classes in order to meet the needs of what was presented as a demand in their everyday practice. From the observation of the practices of the trainee-teachers, we realized that the organization of the Portuguese language classes covered the contents proposed by the adopted course book, but that was not the only resource to be used since other materials such as photocopied activities and games were also important in their daily practices.

**Keywords:** curriculum; teacher training; Portuguese language teaching

This article's main focus is the research of the curricular practices of the Pedagogy's students who work as teachers in the early years of primary education in public schools in the interior of Pernambuco, Brazil. The interest in the subject has emerged from previous research (cf. ALMEIDA & SILVA, 2014), in which we identified that the curriculum had been in the Higher Education Institutions of Education courses (HEI), the region signaled an often difficulty to implement perspective curricular of the thought and formulated curriculum from the curricular policies of each institution.

More specifically, the results of those surveys indicated challenges when it comes to new ways of approaching the content of curriculum components as Supervised Internship and Research and Teaching Practice. From the conduct of such research, we concluded that it was essential to develop more studies about curriculum policies, teacher professionalization and curriculum practices, while living curriculum.

We emphasize that we believe in this work curriculum as the official curriculum created in the classroom, not neutral, anchored at various locations discourses, national and international, subject to receiving various context of influences that works. Thereby suffers restatements and interpretations on the part of different practicers in the educational setting, becoming thus in ideologies of overlapping (Mainardes, 2006). Based on this understanding, we note that will be in the classroom the initially thought curriculum to a certain reality will be legitimized, considering that teachers "appropriated to the discourses broadcast by official documents, giving them new meanings" (BUSNARDO & LOPES, 2010, p. 99) and contributing to the renewal of these texts.

We emphasize that our understanding is that the curriculum practices can not be interpreted as ready and unquestionable teachers practicals, which are only performed by the subjects operating in the field of practice, without any modification between the prescribed text and the experienced curriculum in the educational environment. Busnardo and Lopes (2010) elucidate that curriculum policies are decentralized production, the result of influences decisions of different discourses in different contexts. So the productions result in hybrid policies in which the senses are built to move and not fixed way by the legal discourse and the practice subjects, legitimizing itself mutually and undergoing changes by influences both globally and in local scale. Thus, the curriculum policies are subject to different interpretations and new meanings are assigned according to historical and socio-cultural context where they lived.

In this process, the tension between local and global is understood from the perspective defended by Ball (2001), in which it is considered that even being a worldwide phenomenon, globalization is differently embodied by each nation. In other words, even influencing local contexts, the overall simultaneity brings together the influences of
local spaces, having thus an overlapping between the local and global levels, so that with this hybridized combination, complex and dynamic between the contexts, which is no longer possible the dichotomizing interpretations of what is considered local or global.

In this direction, we propose in this article, to analyze, from the discourse of teachers who had the status of Pedagogy’s students, such as curriculum component "Methodology of Teaching Portuguese Language" approached the curricular organization of Portuguese Language in the early years of elementary school.

Considering this objective, initially we will present our theoretical lenses and then we will place our theoretical-methodological approach and discuss the main findings of the study developed. Finally, we will weave some final thoughts.

**Discussing with some authors**

Curriculum policies and curriculum practices produced, are cyclical and not linear, and the approach of Stephen Ball and Richard Bowe policy cycle theory is used to understand this mechanism. Mainardes (2006), to discuss this theoretical perspective, explains that an ongoing cycle was proposed consisting on three main contexts, all of them interrelated, timeless and non-linear. They are: the context of influence, which would be the political sphere where power is legitimized; the context of production, where political texts are constructed; the practice context, space in which policies are reformulated and recreated according to the conceptions of political subjects of the field, which are policies producers. Two more contexts to complete the cycle are formulated in that perspective: the context of the results or effect, which is concerned about the impacts of policies on inequality interactions, and the context of political strategy, consisting of actions and proposals dealing with inequalities imposed by the curriculum policies.

We emphasize also that such contexts are not harmonic, because "each of these contexts provides arenas, places and interest groups, each of which involves wheeling and dealing" (BOWE *apud* Mainardes, 2006, p. 50). This is because each subject is positioned from their status in society, defending their personal interests and / or groups representing them. In the curricular area, it means that the curriculum legitimate knowledge indicating what is validated and how it is seen in society. Therefore, each group tries to find its place in the curriculum, thus a space of dispute and conflicts of interests in different contexts, with a complex tension, dynamic, conflicting and hybrid.

Thus, we understand that curriculum as a practice, embodied in the daily life of the classroom, is permeated by the influence of these policies. However, these policies are not materialized as static and inflexible way, since both its preparation, as its context in the daily educational institutions are influenced by the teaching practices of teachers in a continuous motion of recontextualization.

In the overall context of curriculum policies is thought the curriculum and, accordingly, Pereira (2010, p.5) points out that the curriculum is "an ideological selection of knowledge desired for a given society. It is the material and immaterial space of conflicts, class struggle, it could both be marked by the culture in adapter design, as emancipatory". Thus, it is necessary to understand it from the interaction between contexts, text, production and practice.

The curriculum is part of the framework of the official document, as prescribed text and / or list of objectives, content, methodologies and evaluation to a certain level or stage of education (FERRAÇO&CARVALHO, 2012).
We emphasize, however, the importance of assumed practical dimension of the curriculum, or the dimension of praxis, as an element in construction and (re) construction. Thus, the subjects that make up the school environment, teachers and students, are protagonists in the school routine, allowing to understand it as a process historically situated, product variety generating influences of a pedagogical action that integrates theory and practice, with a degree of flexibility, while legitimate field of intervention teachers (FELÍCIO&POSSANI, 2013) and as practice enunciation, production-way (PEREIRA, 2012). In this sense, "it is to understand the curriculum as a complex phenomenon, cross ideologies, demands and conflicting values" (PAGANINI, 2011, p. 05), that enables the directions of movement between the various contexts.

So, the thought curriculum can not be viewed from the distance of their production contexts and subjects who, directly or indirectly, are linked to them and should not therefore be seen as something static, determined, inflexible or neutral but as a continuous movement of construction and reconstruction of meanings. From this perspective, the curriculum as a theory (political context) and as a practice, materialized in everyday school life, it includes a lot of theory, but adds much of a practice that involves the specifics of the reality in which it operates, the subject, the established networks of relationships between them and the goals of the institution and teachers, his conception of the world and various other factors that interact in everyday for which they were designed.

The curriculum, more specifically, in the case of our research, the curriculum related to the Metodology of Teaching Portuguese, incorporates, beyond what was thought in the preparation of curriculum policies, the interference of the protagonists subject of teaching and learning processes. Thus, the curriculum designed under the Methodology of Portuguese Language Teaching for the training of teachers is made from the influences of both the macro contexts of curriculum policies for higher education, as those resulting from the micro context of the classroom that level of education, still having the interference of student teachers upon its materialization in the classroom everyday in elementary school.

The curriculum lived in this curriculum component is therefore not necessarily materialized in curricular practice of student-teacher the same way as has been thought, since it is recontextualised, reinterpreted and contextualized, as the context of practice emerges in reality everyday school, or organization within the course of this component.

Thinking curricular practical means considering that "the curriculum organization is, accordingly, a conceptual device, rationalizing of school knowledge in the context of an institutional and organizational model school" (PINE&CORREIA, 2012, p 03.). This means that despite the educational institutions to take as basis a thought and materialized curriculum in curricular and pedagogical proposals aimed at guidance of teachers' work of school systems, these, in classrooms, from the relative autonomy they have, organize the Portuguese curriculum beyond the proposed and prescribed in the documents.

In this sense, the curricular practices of student teachers, respecting the curricular organization, is not uniform, which means, it is not performed in the same way in everyday classrooms. This is because, in organizing the curriculum, teachers take into account not only the knowledge acquired in the curricular components of the training course, but also those who are proposed by school systems, and especially more practical reasons, that is, which they deem to establish a more meaningful dialogue with the needs presented by the group and its specificities.
Possibilities of methodological approaches

As the curriculum, and also as a context of influence, text context or context of practice (Ball, 2001) made from various discursive forms, which are both by producing texts and discursive practices, we, in this study, use Discourse Analysis (AD) as theoretical and methodological tools (ORLANDI, 2010).

To realize our objectives, we conducted the selection of research participants and to this end, we used a questionnaire that was used in classes from 1st to 9th period of the Pedagogy course at a public university, located in the interior of Pernambuco, Brazil. This procedure was used to identify students who had already attended the Methodology of Portuguese Language Teaching I and Methodology Portuguese Language Teaching II courses and who were in a teacher condition in the early years of elementary school in that region, more specifically in municipal schools in the city of Caruaru, Pernambuco, Brazil.

The result of the survey conducted by the questionnaire showed that there were, in the course, at that time, three (3) student-teachers who acted as teachers in the early years of elementary school and already had completed the curriculum components of the Methodology Portuguese Language Teaching.

Data were generated through semi-structured interviews and observation of the curriculum practices of selected participants. The same data produced from these procedures were handled from the Discourse Analysis (DA), which is a mediator, an essential tool to understand the relationship between man, the woman and the social reality in which the speech is his object (ORLANDI, 2010). Thus, such a theory-analysis allowed us to analyze, in the speech of students-teachers, the curricular Methodology Portuguese Language Teaching component on the approached or not the curriculum organization of the Portuguese language in the early years of elementary school.

Results and discussion of the data

From the observations of the curriculum practices of the students-teachers, we realized that they, as part of curricular organization of Portuguese, performed activities that allow to identify the assumptions that the students had regarding alphabetic writing, as in cases where proposed to write, the way they did, the names of the figures on the tasks performed or when dictated words and numerals and textual productions from images. Thus, referring to the possibility of writing in which the student was in, one of the interviewees said:

> It looks like he wrote the word home. It's like you see in Portuguese Methodology. He's already well ... It's always like the sayings: if I ask him to write, he always puts the vowels and sometimes puts some consonants. But most of the time, that's how. If I ask him to write the pair "stinky feet", he writes the "u" and "e" (STUDENT-TEACHER 2).

There is an approach with the Methodology Portuguese Language Teaching, especially with the Methodology Portuguese Language Teaching I (offered in the third term of the course), since, in this curricular component, it is argued, based on Psychogenesis theory of writing, Emilia Ferreiro and Ana Teberosky, which is necessary to allow the children to write the way you know, in order to identify the level of understanding them in relation to the notational system.

In this sense, we realize that these curricular components seem to contribute to the development of theoretical and practical knowledge to support the curricular practices of teachers in order to support their actions in everyday
classroom of elementary school. It's what we see when the students-teachers start to make use of the knowledge arising from the initial training about children writing hypotheses to identify the levels of understanding of the writing system of their students in activities they perform, as evidenced the student-teacher 2.

We emphasize that one of the aspects of curriculum organization held by AP1 and AP2, which are another approach to the curriculum components in question, was the encouragement by the student-teachers so that students read, despite not having the knowledge of the consolidated writing system, when asked to the class to do the reading, that is when they read.

The Methodologies of Portuguese Language Teaching unveiled the importance of exploiting various reading practices, for various purposes and available to children storybooks, thus contributing to awaken the taste in children for reading and making them efficient readers. We realize, as well, the approach of the curricular organization of the Portuguese language in everyday classroom of elementary school with curriculum components of initial training.

We demonstrated that their use of knowledge acquired in the initial training does not, however, show a direct didactic transposition, considering that the students-teachers do not reproduce the contents in their classes "as" they were worked on methodologies, but rather make the (re)contextualization they deem necessary for the eLearning teaching processes engendered in every moment of their daily curriculum practices.

From this class perspective, and based on the speeches of the students-teachers, we realized that these curriculum components presented themselves not as a model of what should be done in everyday elementary school in classes of Portuguese language. Before, it was structured to present several possibilities for curricular organization, to the extent that address content that can be worked by student teachers with classes of these levels of education.

The methodologies of the Portuguese Language Teaching approach-curricular organization that the students-teachers make this curriculum component in their classrooms, leading them to contemplate contents that had been seen in the initial training. However, this does not occur uniformly, as there are elements discussed in the mentioned components that are not included in their daily classroom. This is therefore an evidence of movement between these two discursive spaces – university and school – which allows us to understand the curricular practices as recontextualization processes and (re) construction embedded in different sources, including initial training.

In this sense, as stated by Esteban (2012, p. 140), "the vitality of everyday school life creates many lines of flight and space shifts that bring multiple possibilities of curricular composition," which allows the teacher to the reconfiguration of thinking curriculum through relations, positioning and condition assumed that space. Thus, the school routine enables the realization of the curriculum as text context, but also allows the reinterpretation of such text in the context of practice, so that the curriculum practices are permeated by elements directly related to this latter context.

Thus, we understand that these professionals are always building their curricular practice and arranging and rearranging the Portuguese curriculum, as they play their role by the various experiences and situations in classroom everyday. Therefore, we understand that in this same everyday, there is room only for the reproduction of thought curriculum within the curriculum policies expressed in the lived curriculum in training but, yes ,, and
especially to the reinterpretation and (re)contextualization of them, which is made possible by the collective action of both the student, the teacher and the adaptation to different situations and needs that materialize in the classroom reality.

The speeches of the students-teachers make mention of the methodologies contribution to curricular organization regarding the identification of the class needs to carry out a process of teaching and more meaningful learning, that is, who teaches more related to reality content students, their experiences. One example is the AP1’s speech was when he said, "we seek to introduce other activities that could also see their context, and what we see in Portuguese disciplines".

In this sense, the curricular practices of the students-teachers also corroborated for us to discover the contribution when they revealed who worked with the institution's projects, without, however, being limited to it, as did the (re)necessary contextualization of working on other elements they deemed relevant to the context in which they were inserted.

Thus, despite the system requirements that the divisions were "within the stream" (all studying the same content at the same time), they reserved moments to teach contents that were not present in the teaching proposal or that were presented superficially in the textbook.

From this perspective, we realize, to paraphrase Santos (2013), that teachers recognize the potential that is their practice to the extent that dribble what is imposed by the rules, build their reforms and begin to materialize its role building on the conditions that present in their daily classroom. This does not occur in a neutral and uniform manner, but through negotiation processes and internal struggle, in order to preserve the need of student learning.

The speeches of the students-teachers show that such teaching methodologies cooperated so that such subjects are not only breeders of the curriculum designed for the early years of elementary school expressed in the textbook as it leads them to question him, the modified Covering other knowledge, proposing other activities and making diversified educational interventions from them, based on what was learnt in the initial training.

The AP3 pitch distance from the other speeches when you point to the fact that many of the Methodology of teaching discussions of the Portuguese language, specifically the texts presented in the discipline, being something "fanciful", by not emphasizing the adjustments that should be made in the various contexts of school. So reality showed that it would be difficult to "implement" the contents in your classroom due to the peculiarities of everyday life, as we can see in the speech below:

> Portuguese, I realized, then, that many of the things that have been addressed, discussed in the room, the authors and this is a bit fanciful, [...] because when you get in the room to apply those contents which were not clearly said: here is only the theory and practice you will adapt to your reality. This was not well specified in the classroom in college (STUDENT-TEACHER 3, 2015).

But despite this student-teacher highlight the aspect of "fanciful" curriculum component, that is, to distance him or herself from the reality of their teaching practice, she points out several contributions from the curricular component, as explained above. Also, another following speech also reveals that the student-teacher understands that it is necessary to adapt the knowledge acquired in training by materialization of his practice, demonstrating that the theory is not without relevance if it can not be applied as it was thought "but you can not get and do exactly as it
is in theory. [...] Theory does not mean that you will put it into practice, you'll do an adaptation of the theory within the reality that you are and that's what I try to do here "(STUDENT-TEACHER 3, 2015).

In this sense, the methodologies of the Portuguese Language Teaching are challenged to emphasize the various uses that can be made of the theoretical aspects which they have submitted, noting that the contents which are worked have to be by submitted student-teachers with a view to their (re) contextualization in everyday classrooms of elementary school.

Final considerations

We realize that the similarities between the curricular components related to methodologies of Portuguese Language Teaching and curricular organization of Portuguese in the early years of elementary school takes place so that the students-teachers, even before the imposition of the education system, seek to do curricular organization of Portuguese taking into account certain knowledge acquired in these curriculum components.

This movement occurs as the possibilities and needs are being shaped in everyday school life, even for this, the system needs to be beaten, go beyond what is previously established and establishing reinventions. Thus, we identified that the students-teachers (re) contextualized knowledge were improved in the training considering the peculiarities that were presented in their everyday classrooms.

References


The communicative effect of lectures and communications in High School

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At school is asked increasingly to develop other tasks that ensure other learnings than the one’s required. Their mission has as objective the full development of children and young people, and its accomplished by the creation of humanistic, cultural, social and environmental dimension. The school appreciates the informal curriculum, because the promotion of this activities help the student growing and the creation of a learning mood growth. In High School the scientific and thematic lectures represent a common practice of informal education offers with the purpose to broaden horizons of knowledge.

Which importance and effects have this educational offer in the curriculum of students? Answering partially to this question is the objective of this research.

The research attends the student's perceptions, an urban High School System of the Portuguese State Schools, about the effect of conferences in their motivation an in their learning. The objectives are: identify the lectures and conferences characteristics that enhance the interest/disinterest of students; relate those characteristics to the potential of the conferences to constitute an expansion of learning strategy.

The methodology of investigation is quantitative while it was pretended to produce knowledge about lectures characteristics to relate them with the potential of the interest of students, collecting details of an extensive sample of persons to identify the dominant tendencies. The instrument used to gather the details were surveys, applied to one hundred and eighty students registered in High School. The survey allowed us to evaluate the perception of the students, that watched conferences in the last two years, about the organization, conditions of realization, group mood, theme appreciation and the speaker’s attitude. The details were worked quantitatively, having been analyzed in a crossed way, with the student characteristics (gender, course, school year).

The results show that the students search for an escape to the formal curriculum, through the attendance to conferences and communications made in their schools. The interest of 10th grade showed by their attendance is higher to their mood and cooperation of the 12th grade students. Despite this, both years don’t show interest in taking part of their organization. We verify that a lecture should be challenging, appealing to group stimulation, where the speaker should use the multimedia tools and provide informative materials, like leaflets or playful objects. After the participation in lectures experience and also in communications, it was established the agreement between the different research areas (Science and Technology, Languages and Humanities, Socioeconomic Science and Arts) about the resignation and dismissal of actions and activities that have as a purpose an evaluation and the students consider important the reflection and a critical position before the themes.
Foreword

The school values the informal curriculum, because it recognizes that the promotion of those activities will help the student’s growth and enhance the creation of an expansive climate of learning. This was described by (Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2003) and refers to the possibility to develop:

1. collaborative and supportive relationships among colleagues;
2. explicit focus on the desktop as an opportunity for training students and teachers;
3. opportunities for personal development beyond the institutional priorities;
4. action opportunities outside the school and the ability to think differently;
5. possibility and support for integrating external learning in teaching and learning practices;
6. opportunities to participate in more than one group work;
7. opportunities to cross borders (disciplinary);
8. support for working locally in different ways.

The concept of informal curriculum is explicitly associated to aspects that the school works as their priorities, their responsibilities and their decision. Also beyond the explicit learning carried out under the formal curriculum. It differs from the concept of formal curriculum given its freer political and less compulsory in ace promoted learning activities. "It consists of all those aspects in the school environment that as no part in the official, explicit curriculum, and contribute implicitly to the relevant social learning" (Silva, 2000:82). By virtue of its more cross-cutting nature, the activities carried out under the informal curriculum are often associated with other places and other times, beyond the lattice of school hours and in the classroom. From the point of view of strategies and mobilized content they are also much more diverse and cross-disciplinary, than the school subjects. They address and organize themselves from problems identified by schools as general training, and the growth of a comprehensive citizen, contributing in general to the same personal development, social and citizen of students, of the formal curriculum. The fact of organizing from commonly called social problems, often with the participation of members outside the restricted school community, or without strict Term responsibilities. Associated with the informal curriculum are recreational activities, sports, artistic and cultural activities of broad spectrum, awareness raising activities for social problems and other offerings and teaching equipment (Zabalza, 2002). Included in there too scientific lectures and related to relevant and current issues, which are a common practice of informal educational provision of schools bet to extend the horizon of knowledge of the students.

How important and what effect has this educational provision lived in student curriculum? Partially answer to this question is the task to which this study proposes.

Methodological Note

This study deals with the perceptions of students from an urban secondary school in the Portuguese Public Education, and the effect of the lectures and conferences in their motivation and their learning. Its objectives are to:
identify the characteristics of the lectures that enhance the interest or disinterest of students; relate these features with the potential of lectures may constitute in an effective learning strategy.

The research methodology have a quantitative nature because it was intended to produce knowledge on the characteristics of lectures to relate in an extensive way, with the potential of interest developed in students of 10 and 12 years of this high school.

The instrument used for data collection was an questionnaire and this was applied to one hundred seventy-seven students of Secondary Education level with active registration and referred to all students enrolled in the academic year 2014/2015 in the 10 and 12 year School education ensued research. The questionnaire allowed to evaluate the perceptions of the students about the lectures attended by the last two years regarding its organization, delivery conditions, group climate, the theme appreciation and attitude of the speaker. The questionnaire included "identification questions" and "information questions" (Carmo and Ferreira, 1998:138) and the questions were asked in the form of closed questions, for characterization of the subjects; Likert scales for characterization of the degree of importance they assign the lectures attended by the past two years for their organization (a) realization of conditions (b), group climate (c) consideration of thematic (d) and speaker's attitude (e). For this is it was elaborated statements for each of the topics that guided the importance to report by the respondents:

a) It was questioned about the communication/ lecture goals be or may not be identified in advance at the class, related knowledge and previous experience of the students, as well as clarity in the relationship of communication / speech with school subjects. It also explored the perception of the students about the activities developed in lectures / communications have evaluative purposes.

b) About the lecture and/ or communication, cared above all to explore the more operational issues, such as the location, duration and the time that elapses presentation / activity.

c) The level of importance on the point of the group's climate, fell on be understood if it was created an incentive environment to the involvement of students as well as find out whether students are encouraged to give your opinion and to position themselves critically about theme.

d) In understanding the theme of the lecture / communication, realize the common theme was properly contextualized based on experiences and views of the students (if there is a theme related to prior knowledge of the students).

e) As the fifth and last point on the attitude of the speaker is asked to the students to relate the level of importance in the dynamism which is used by a speaker, as well as their interaction with themselves.

Data came quantitatively, by recourse to the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS - version 21) have been analyzed cross-collected data on characteristics of students (gender, course, grade) and the data of perceptions included in each of every dimensions.

The analysis was carried out in accordance and following the mentioned dimensions.
### Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10º year</td>
<td>12º year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>15</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
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</tr>
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<td>20</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>113</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 38: Age and grade**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Secondary Education courses who attends now</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10º year</td>
<td>12º year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sciences and Technology</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Languages and Humanities</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socio-economic Sciences</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual Arts</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NR</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 39: Course that attends in the school year 2014/2015**
Subject respondents

The one hundred seventy-seven students who participated in the study are distributed by years of schooling attended, 63 in the 10th year and the 12th with 113 students. The students of 10th grade, the average age is 15.55 with a standard deviation of 0.688 years. The students of 12th grade, the average age is 17.6 with a standard deviation of 0.822 years. In Figure 2 the students are distributed by subject areas, and you can register significant difference from Techno-Scientific Course of Visual Arts of the remaining Techno-Scientific. Most students attending the Science and Technology course (31.75% 10th year and 12th year 37.5%). In the course of Languages and Humanities attend the 10th year 30.16% of the students enrolled in school in the 12th grade and 39.3%. In the course of Socio-economic Sciences attend the 10th year 38.10% of the students in the 12th grade and 12.5%. The course of Music, articulate his contents with the Porto Conservatory of Music, has 1.8% of students enrolled in the 12th grade. The course of Visual Arts is attended by 8.9% of the students of 12th grade.

In the two years (10th and 12th) there are more respondents surveyed who are female (58.8%) than male (41.2%), although the difference is more pronounced in the 12th year.

Lectures and Communications

The figures 7 and 8 show the topics of the lectures referred to by students who attended in the last two academic years.
The number and complexity of the lectures and communications performed in contact with students from the 10th grade is significantly lower than with students from the 12th grade. The past two years, thirty-two students, representing 50.8% of respondents attended lectures, against the remaining thirty-one students (49.2%), who did not attend. Of those surveyed 36.7% of the students admitted having attended three lectures and 30% of students admitted to having attended one lecture. 20% reported having attended four or more lectures (up to 6).

The themes of the lectures for the 12th grade have more extended options, contemplating actions such as sexual education, the use of Drug Prevention, Smoking, the School Safety and the European Union. Of the 113 students, 90 attended (79.6%) and 23 did not attend (20.4%) lectures in the last 2 years. Of those surveyed 23.0% of the students admitted having attended three lectures and 16.8% of the students admitted having attended two lectures. 36.9% reported having attended four or more lectures (up to 10).

The participation of students or the 10th year or 12th year, is relatively modest (students of the 12th grade participated on average in 3.8 lectures, while the 10th participated on average in 2.6), because of the decisions made and organization of the same: If the lectures are usually organized by teachers and scheduled by them, the power of choice of the students is relatively small. The lectures attended by the students and what better remembered by them was about the "Warnings about the dangers of tobacco (8 references)" about the "Dating violence (6 references), particularly to mark the drama caused" and the "Planning the future professions and employability (6 references)", but were not subjects of their choice. The organization of the lecture is the extent to which students give less importance because they trust and put all the process and work in the full decision of the school staff (teachers mainly).
The items for the five dimensions that characterize the lectures, in the opinion of the students, are summarized in the following figure. In both subgroups constituted, aspects related to the organization were slightly bad scored, in general all assessments made by students are very positive on average. This means that the lectures that are promoted by the school, among its students, meets the needs and interests.

As seen in Figure 9, the level of importance on the five dimensions considered, given by students of the 10th grade is higher than the level of importance told by students of the 12th grade.

The next figure is present synthesis characterizing the importance attached by the students to the characteristics of the lectures.
Figure 10: Importance given the characteristics of the lectures

**Assigned importance with better scoring**

There is a common thread along the lecture ($\mu = 4.64$)

Environment to encourage student participation ($\mu = 4.47$)

Theme according to interests of students ($\mu = 4.37$)

Introduction of funny moments ($\mu = 4.58$)

**Importance attributed with less scoring**

Student participation in the organization ($\mu = 3.70$)

Additional information materials ($\mu = 4.17$)

Students encouraged to give opinion ($\mu = 4.25$)

Theme of the relationship with knowledge of the students ($\mu = 4.08$)

Dynamic pace of printing ($\mu = 4.30$)

The participation of students in the organization and also in the list of topics that can be worked in the lectures, were addressed with the level of students’ knowledge, was the items that have the less score. Already the consistency of topics with school subjects and a clear and logical sequence of their presentation were the aspects most valued in training offered through lectures. It is also important to note the appreciation of aspects to the communicative effectiveness of the speakers, as their use of humor, either by encouraging the participation of students during lectures, as aspects that were also valued by respondents.
Learning in Lectures

The potential of lectures constitute an effective learning strategy that in some way enshrined in positive assessment before referenced. But the open question included in the questionnaire allowed to collect other type of information that allowed a more explicit answer related to the relationship between the campaign and the power of promoting learning afforded to them by students.

10th grade - "I appreciate the interaction and communication with the public, and the possibility to make new experiences." (CM084).

12th grade - "I think the lectures are interesting to spread ideas and gain knowledge." (CM032).

12th grade - "There are issues that we do not speak in class, for example, life experiences or something." (CM048)

Space and environment experienced in the lectures differs from the classroom routine, encouraging student’s interest to being present in lectures. The same to lectures that suit the interests of students and the syllabus of the subject area in which they are guaranteed, makes the effectiveness of the initiative. If you cannot identify the explicit and differentiated effect of the lectures in relation to other curricular achievements in learning achieved by the students, they can recognize a potential awareness and systematization for some school subjects.

It is also necessary to recognize that the lectures fulfill their potential to mobilize issues and knowledge that are normally bound up with knowledge required by the external evaluation that students already have in the formal curriculum. Such as sexual education, the use of Drug Prevention, Smoking and the European Union issues.

Learning the lectures becomes effective for these students whenever it creates a favorable environment for their participation when it promotes discussion and exchange of ideas. If the lecture is a relaxed moment and call the attention of students with current issues; if there is the possibility to ask questions, discuss opinions and work on concrete situations (reference detached about what most impressed the students), learning is guaranteed.

In assessing the lectures students suggested improvements that should be implemented in the scheme of future realization, all associated with the organization of communications. Suggested that the duration of the lectures should be shorter, be adjusted to professional courses and the speaker’s attitude should be of greater interactivity and more appropriate to the recipients of context.

Concluding Note

The characteristics of the lectures that enhance students interest are associated with its challenging character, either for that matter, whether as to the call to participate. To achieve this goal of greater involvement of the students, they appreciated the use of multimedia; the existence of informational materials, such as flyers or recreational objects; the existence of funny situations or communicative forms that mobilize the mood.

In the assessing of the lectures students suggested improvements that should be implemented in the scheme of future realization associated with the organization of communications.
The communication characteristics of the lectures (which is associated with the attitude prayed and willingness to interact with current students) are associated with the greatest potential of lectures constitute an effective learning strategy.

In sum, students recognize the importance of their presence in the lectures for their training and the effects that this has on their under construction curriculum.

References


Analysis of a teaching sequence according to the theoretical and methodological foundations of dialectical mediation

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The class as a structural basic unit of content to be worked with the students, should be in a space of transformation through the development of critical and reflective skills in students. However, it is observed that the planning activities, if underestimated, can contribute actions to transform the classroom playing space of the dominant ideology. In this sense, the methodology of the Dialectic Mediation appears as an option to redeem the class as a space for discussion and overcoming concepts. Therefore, this work, comes as part of the effort to understand this methodology and this approach is used to analyze a didactic sequence found in apostilled material used in the second year of elementary school. As a result, weaknesses were raised that reflect the criticisms leveled by the proposed methodology.

**Keywords**: Class, Methodology of the mediation dialectic, planning, Teaching Sequence.
1 Introduction

This text seeks to analyze a didactic sequence according to the methodology of mediation dialectic. This proposal arises from discipline "Educational activity in view of the ontology of social being: the class" where it seeks to understand the class is an educational activity, possessed of a clear intentionality, one unit being, quality of what is unique and indivisible. We can see then that class, though a unit is owned by a complex social organization, channel becoming for reflection or for sale. Hence the need to understand it in an ontological perspective.

It is known that what is produced by man can be transformed and the class can be an area of individual and social change, provided that there is an ongoing relationship between three elements: teacher, student and concept. This pedagogical relationship is mediated by language, where there is the possibility of the organization and concept of occurrence (universal, provisional and historical), the teaching process (teacher) and learning (student).

Even though clear that education, through school, can be transformative, can not avoid the realization that education, for the most part, is linked to a model of domination in which there is exploitation of man by man. The classroom is a privileged locus for the ruling political action. Therefore, the teaching activity is not neutral and the transformation of the school as well as of society, is linked to the ideological shift.

Although the class is a structural and organic basic unit of the educational system, it is linked to all. It is understood as the ratio between full and part whole, where it has multideterminações synthesis. The class is studying the parts to return them to the whole. The exchange teacher / student / concept should not be manipulated because the class is a big space of struggle where thinking is the differential action of the human being.

So the lesson should provide knowledge developed from responses and inquiries, therefore, this new knowledge depends on the questions that are asked or not.

The class is a research process organized by teacher, developed with the student, through the mediation of the dialectical method, enabling you to record your initial ideas, compare them and to align them with the teaching concept, questioning them. The contradictions between the initial ideas and concept taught, allows the student, the elaboration of the concept, by overcoming their initial ideas (ARNONI, 2014).

It can be said that the work consists of an ontological leap, because the human being uses his conscience before acting. So the lesson should be designed as genuine man's work.

2 Methodology

This study consists of an analysis of a teaching sequence, according to the foundations of dialectical mediation methodology. Such a sequence was obtained from elements found in random search on handouts of educational Anglo System, Editora Abril. It was decided to review the handout number 04, the 2nd year of primary school, used by students in 2014, however, it is observed that the material not on the date of issue. The didactic sequence used refers to the content of science, chapter 16, entitled "Investigating the oceans", between pages 265 and 274.
3 Theoretical and discussions

The methodology of dialectical mediation is on the application of the categories in the dialectical method and expressed the upward spiral movement and progressive class. The concept of methodological organization allows the establishment of mediation between human and social beings involved, transforming scientific communication in class, being understood and preserved.

Totality, movement, mediation, contradiction, overcoming and synthesis are based on assumptions of dialectical historical materialism, the methodological organization of the concept to be developed with students in educational practice.

Methodology is not the same thing as technical and educational resources. The technique enables mediation but depends on the teacher. Hence it is seen that develop concept is not the same as passing content.

Theory and practice always interact in a reciprocal action: practice, by relying on a theoretical direction, and theory, for unravel in practice, the social contradictions, his criminal charges in the quest for transformation of reality conditions (ARNONI, 2014).

Planning is the human act of thinking and define actions before executing them. It is a mental process, and register it is to trace the plan of action before pouring it into practice (ARNONI, 2014). Thus, the procedural educational planning educational practice is the mental process of thinking and predict the intent of the class. It is the educational human activity, if at all, before developing it.

The teacher should understand that the work (class) will cause the student to take ownership of production.

The procedural planning takes place in three phases: the first phase is only the teacher and consists in planning the emancipatory educational activity; the second phase is called the educational practice, where concept development to occur with the student, so as to overcome the initial ideas of the concept and the third phase also only teacher, it is linked to analysis of educational activity in its entirety (OLIVEIRA; ALMEIDA; ARNONI, 2007).

The basis for planning the educational practice is segmented into four steps:

a) first stage - (starting) - Teacher put into practice activities to investigate the initial ideas of students on teaching content. It should make the student think (movement) and understand the concept through external and internal connection (full). Finally this step, analyze the responses.

b) second stage - (questioning) - The teacher should prepare a problem situation to counteract the initial ideas of the students the content of teaching. Put into practice and analyze student responses. The student, the questioning must identify and understand the contradictions between their initial ideas and the concept of education. Through the dialogical activity has to generate doubt to develop and overcome the contradiction.

c) third stage - (systematizing) - In contradiction has poles as the teacher and the student. Who sees the contradiction is the teacher who compares the concepts with the initial ideas of the students. To know the concept that the student must make up investigative activity. And when it is organized methodologically it turns a scientific concept in an educational concept.
d) fourth stage - (produce) - Assessment of student productions. Check that occurred overcoming initial ideas and the quality of new relationships. If students have not learned the concept, return to the second step. If students have learned, the teacher should continue the educational process.

This creates a moving continuous and endless spiral of activity of the social. The contradiction creates two paths. Overcoming or not two poles are always present (OLIVEIRA; ALMEIDA; ARNONI, 2007).

Through brief background of teaching dialectical mediation, analysis of didactic sequence consisting of the current guidance for classes in school education is possible.

The didactic sequence consists in part of a didactic planning, through which activities are planned, according to what is expected of the student throughout the school year. While advocates of this methodology put the constant need to observe the planning, initial survey, content, objectives, stages of learning, flexibility, evaluation, among others, is not what is perceived in reality.

Most of the didactic sequences come ready by the teacher through apostilados systems and sites or recommended by major education companies. Faced with this material and its guidelines, the teacher is aware that following them is very important for your "professional success", since the school system approves and in context evaluates well.

The use of sequences leads to a teacher's accommodation trend that does not need to think deeply planning your lessons, which leads to a reflexive difficulty on the material used. Thus, it has taken the lesson of his power field thus reduces the appreciation of the teaching role.

The time during the lesson is fundamental to social transformation, where the ideological struggles have space for discussion, reflected and can generate transformations. When the teacher accepts a ready material, it ceases to be subject to the action of teaching and accepts the status quo and renounces its power of social transformation agent, becoming alienated and allowing the disposal of its students.

Students spend the content being mere recipients chosen by the existing system with little chance to develop critical consciousness. And if these students in the future, come to become teachers, may feed back into the cycle with less discernment capacity.

For greater understanding, it was considered a didactic sequence of science content of the 2nd year of elementary school of Anglo Teaching System. It is noteworthy that all the teaching materials of the educational system mentioned is edited by the company Abril Learning Systems Education SA, with extensive collaboration of journalists, which is clear when making the reading of the texts, as are short, superficial and informative. A relevant fact is that there is no date of publication of the material, leaving doubts about their update.

The analyzed didactic sequence "investigate the oceans" it is the proposal to make the students understand what will be the ocean. It begins with the rescue of a given content in the previous chapter: the Atlantic Forest. And shortly thereafter, defines Atlantic Ocean and coastline. This happens in four sentences. Following is an explanation about the Earth and how it is seen from space, too, reports the usefulness of a globe. All with the same amount restricted lines (FONTES; AMARAL, s.d.).

Then there are some activities. The first is a question in which the student must answer if there is more land or oceans on the planet. The space is small response, which induces the student to a direct answer, poorly constructed grammatically. The second activity prompts the students paint the world map the five oceans. The
manner in which the task is given, leads to a mechanical response without the need to use previous knowledge of the student.

Another feature of the analyzed sequence, which the note is customary in all handouts network, is the failure to follow the ABNT in text citations, and the almost absolute majority of these are taken from the internet, electronic sites of journalistic nature, and not academic and pedagogical material. What stimulates research online, fast, "easy" and superficial, hindering the close relationship and needed the student with scientific content.

The chapter continues with the bias of curiosity, and the titles of the texts are: "you know?", "Time to create" and "It is worth knowing." Suddenly, the material in the background leaves the main content on the oceans, and offers students a recipe for the shape of bath salts for gifting someone. And ends with the "home" in which is mentioned for the first time, the astronaut Yuri Gagarin and the Dead Sea, without however, further explanation of the relationship of these with the proposed content of the oceans, having the child make connections their own.

Obvious that the teaching sequence explained above, provides explanations for the teacher and goes beyond spelled, but realizes that does not provide knowledge, but playing common-sense fragments may form pawns.

If the comparison with the methodology of dialectical mediation takes place, it can be seen that the didactic sequence analyzed, does not have planning emancipatory educational activity; there is no development or evaluation of the student, which does not allow overcoming the initial ideas in the preparation of teaching concept process (called content in the didactic sequence); Also, there is no evaluation of the educational activity in its entirety.

4 Conclusions

By discouresd and discussed above, one can infer that the teaching sequence analyzed through dialectical mediation there is the mischaracterization of the educational activity, and consequently, of human emancipation.

On the one hand, when using a material ready, the teacher removes the teaching / learning class awareness, which makes it irrelevant to their intent, as it reduces the need to plan, to draw general and specific objectives of the process.

On the other hand, by opting for the dialectical mediation, the teacher recalls the classroom as a place of transformation, the exercise of thought, knowledge and consequently development of citizens with higher propensities to criticism.

References


Limits and possibilities in the process of [re] construction of the pedagogical-political project of public schools: Curriculum [re] articulations and educational policies

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This study is due to an ongoing research – "Dialogue between public policy and educational actions: limits and possibilities", Observatory program of education, Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior, developed by the research group ELOS/CNPq at Universidade Federal de Santa Maria, in Teaching Municipal Network of Santa Maria, in the State of Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil. The study refers to the difficulty that school communities have as for interrelating theory and practice in the process of school management, in particular, as the base, articulate and organize their Political-pedagogical Projects (PPP) in accordance with the needs and potential of school contexts and their students as well as the theoretical and legal regulations related to the National curriculum guidelines for basic education. In this sense, with the purpose of analyzing, in the speeches of managers of public schools and the municipal Council of education of Santa Maria-RS, the limits and opportunities evident in the process of [re] construction of Political-pedagogical Projects, this research has been developed from a qualitative approach and participating methodology next to the schools city network and the Board of Education. In addition, she uses the document review and semi-structured interviews with the managers of schools, aides and advisers to education. Highlights that the partial results relate to [re] signify and [re] articulate the process of construction of the pedagogical political project (PPP) from the signaling the interviewed subjects about the limits and possibilities in their realities, from the perspective of that PPP delineates aspects underlying the school reality, its principles, legal-theoretical aspects, as well as intentions and priorities that require specific educational actions based theoretically and legally. The PPP is closely related to conceptions and curriculum [re]articulations from national and local public policies, which are interdependent. Also, it is important to note that, from the perspective of the policy of democratization of educational management in Brazil, the PPP requires be experienced and [re] built by everyone involved in the educational work of the school and their [re] construction requires responsible study and competent position about educational / school management processes, curriculum options, the epistemological and methodological aspects as well as the planning and evaluation processes. It also requires democratic, collective, collaborative and participatory work among school, Office and Municipal Council of Education, since the PPP as a guiding plan of the school needs to expand its capacity for dialogue with the various
Practices and discourses interfaces of scientific, historical, social and cultural knowledge, especially, interrelating national and local public policies.

Keywords: Political and Educational Project, Curriculum, Theory and Practice, School Management, Public Policies.

Introduction

This research is related to the Observatory Program of Education, of Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior, developed by the research group Elos/CNPq at Universidade Federal de Santa Maria (UFSM) – “Dialogue between public policy and educational actions: limits and possibilities”. It also integrates the Program of Fund of research incentives of the Pro -Rectory of post graduate and research – FIPE JR/UFSM, taking into account the context of the Municipal Council of Education of Santa Maria, in the state of Rio Grande do Sul (RS) Brazil.

So, by means of the articulations among University, Municipal Schools of Elementary and Middle levels, Municipal Board of Education and the Municipal Council of Santa Maria, the need to investigate the following research problem arose: How does the process of [re]construction of the political pedagogical process constitute in the Municipal Network of Education of Santa Maria – RS, and which are the main limits and possibilities related to the school communities of Fundamental and Middle Schools? From this issue, the objective that guides this research aims to analyze, in the public school managers' speech and the Municipal Education Council of Santa Maria – RS, the evident limits and possibilities in the process of [re]construction of the political pedagogical projects.

Therefore, it will seek to promote a theoretical practice reflection about the conceptions and public policies involved in the process of [re]construction of the political pedagogical project of the Basic School in Brazil; presenting elementary aspects of the municipal legislation of Santa Maria – RS, the limits and the possibilities evident in the process of (re)construction of the political pedagogical projects. For this, it will seek to promote a theoretical and practical reflection about the conceptions and public policies involved in the process of [re]construction of the political pedagogical project of the basic school in Brazil: presenting elementary aspects of the municipal legislation of Santa Maria-RS about the norms and orientations relevant on the process of reconstruction of the PPPs of the schools; outlining the process of reconstruction of PPP of the Elementary and Middle Municipal Schools of Santa Maria.

Before what was portrayed, it is emphasized that the research is contributing to verify that the political pedagogical project (PPP) is closely related to the conceptions and [re]articulations from the national and local public policies, which are interdependent. Also it is important to highlight that from the perspective of the democratization policy of the Educational Management in Brazil, the PPP requires being experienced and rebuilt by all involved with the School Educative Work and its [re]construction demands study and responsible and competent position about the processes of Educational/School Management the curriculum options of the epistemological and methodological aspects as well as the planning processes and evaluation. It also demands democratic, collective, participative and collaborative work among School, Office and Municipal Council of Education, since the PPP as a guiding plan of
school needs enlarge its capacity of interlocution and dialogue with varied interfaces of scientific, historical, social, cultural knowledge, especially interrelated to national and local public policies.

**Methodology**

This research uses the qualitative approach, in the sense of critical and reflexive investigative action, enabling contextualize the reality and the social subjects, pointing to the historicity, the intervenient factors, the practices and the totality of the object of investigation. Ludke & André (1986, p. 18) refer to the qualitative approach as the one that “[…] is developed in a natural situation, is rich in descriptive data and open and flexible plan and focuses the reality in a complex and contextualized way. Therefore, it worries about the reality aspects that transcend the quantitative data.

As referential of this investigation, it is used the case study (multicases) and this is constituted as a mode of investigation, delimitating the context, turning it particular and representing a studied action in the scope of the Municipal Network of Education of Santa Maria. The focus of the research is lined in six Municipals Schools of Elementary and Middle levels subdivided by regional representativeness, The Municipal Board of Education of Santa Maria and the Municipal Council of Education of Santa Maria. According to Yin (2005) the case study is used to contribute with the knowledge of individual, organizational, social, political and the group phenomena, besides other phenomena related to these ones.

From the methodological approach of this research, in progress, firstly, it was held a bibliographic study related to the theoretical and legal concepts about the theme of the study as well as it was analyzed the pertinent legislation and the PPPs of the target schools of the research. Then, it was done the semi structure Interviews with the managers of the schools and the Municipal Council of Education of Santa Maria.

For Cellard (2008) the documental analysis offer a tool, this enables the observation of the development process, whether individual or collective, being able to extract knowledge, practices and behaviors.

The semi structured interview, as technique of data collection, is providing opportunities to get information from the research subjects (school managers and counselors/advisers CME) in which are worked questions related to issues already mentioned. It is extremely useful, because besides leading to the definition of a representative group, in other words, for the definition of whom feel motivated to answer the questions and contribute with the research, points to qualitative data.

To Lima (2004, p. 91) the semi structure interview is defined “[…] as a meeting between two or more people so one or more will get data, information, opinions, impressions, interpretations, positioning, testimonies, evaluations about certain subject […]”.

The analysis of content with wide objective to describe, analyze and interpret the data of this research, for Bardin (1979, p. 42, apud Gomes, 2010) refers to a

[…] conjunction of techniques of analyses of the communications aiming to get, by systematic procedures and objectives of content description of messages, indicators (quantitative or not) which allow the inference of knowledge related to the conditions of production/reception (inferred variable) of these messages.
This way, the information collected in the research of the documents and interviews, are categorized, inferred, described and interpreted according to the problem and proposed objectives, following a thematic analysis which has as a central concept the theme that can be represented by a word, a sentence or, even, a summary (Gomes, 2010).

Legal and Conceptual Aspects of the Political – Pedagogical Project

The political pedagogical project, from the precepts of the Guidelines and Bases of the National Education Law, Law n° 9.394/96, is proposed with the aim to decentralize and democratize the administrative, pedagogical and financial decision-making of the school from the effective participation of the school agents. “In the etymological meaning, the term project comes from Latin *projectu*, past participle of the verb *proiecere*, which means to throw ahead. Intent plan, design. Company, enterprise. Working draft law. General plan edification” (Ferreira, 1975, p. 1.144).

In this perspective, for the construction of the school's guiding project, it is necessary to make a plan from the view of the diagnostic context, but knowing which intention to do. Projecting has the meaning to break a comfortable state for, in a certain way, taking a chance. Promise that compromises its authors.

The curricular educational project, according to Libâneo (2005, p. 357) “[...] is a document that reflects the intentions, the objectives, the motivations and the ideals of the school team, in view of an educational process which meets all students”. It is understood that this process should occur in a participative way without centralized decisions.

According to Giordani (2008), project is related to planning in time our intentions and the possibility to make them happen, searching for a direction, thinking in actions, so, it is an intentional action with a defined compromise based on collective work. Political in the view of the author, it is referred to being articulating the collective interests of the school community, making them take part in the decision making in the educational context; a management position valuing the human being and the pedagogical dimension in the search of the internal institution identity.

Veiga (1995) understands the project as an intentional action, with an explicit sense and with a political compromise defined collectively. In the sense of compromise with the training of citizens for a type of society and pedagogical, turned to educative actions and the necessary features of school communities to fulfill their purposes and their intentionality.

Libâneo (2005) highlights necessary elements for the political pedagogical project formulation: contextualization of the school, in order words, social and economic aspects, physical and material conditions of the school, among others; education conception and of the school practices; the students’ profiles and the guiding principles of the didactic pedagogical action; diagnosis of the current situation, from the raising problems and needs to meet; general objectives; organizational structure and management of the administrative, financial and organizational aspects, epistemological, pedagogical, psychological, cultural and social foundations of the curricular proposal, curricular organization with the objectives, contents, methodology and evaluation of the learning; continuing education for teachers; proposal of work with parents and community in general; ways of project evaluation.
There fore, it is realized that the proposed itinerary by the author is related to the indispensable elements needed for the composition of the school PPP and, in this way, it is verified that the diagnostic view of the school context, the establishment of the priorities and goals, the definition of the legal and theoretical foundations about the pedagogical purpose and the management processes, the curricular organization in its conceptual and methodological aspects, as well as the evaluation constitute one dimensional role that underlies and drives the relationship between theory and practice in the processes related to the public policies and the practices of school management.

Based on the enactment of the Law Guidelines and Bases of National Education (LDBN), Law n° 9.394/96, it is believed in the viability of the autonomy of the school, so it can build and, so, actualize its educative proposals. In its Art. 13 contains the participation as a guiding principle in the construction of the pedagogical proposal of the educational establishment. In the Art. 14 of LDBN finds the participation of the educational professionals in the preparation of the school pedagogical proposal and the participation of the school and local communities in school boards and equivalents (Brasil, 1996).

The participation constitutes an important strategy to assure the democratic management. This principle of democratization, the participation, is related to the involvement and commitment of the educational professionals (teachers and employees), the students and the parents in the school management, that is why, the process of (re)construction of the PPP demands being procedural, in the sense of organizing and offering feedback constantly.

The democratic management is supported by principles such as participation, autonomy, decentralization, transparency in the processes of school management, according to Veiga (1995), the equality of conditions to stay in school, the quality that should not be privilege of social and economic minorities. Therefore, the PPP of basic school needs include the pedagogical, administrative and financial dimensions underlying the everyday school and educational management, which demands to be outlined, grounded and prioritized in close approach and interlocution with the public and educational policies.

The political pedagogical project demands to be experienced by everyone in the school educative process and, in this way, propitiate a democratic management that is much needed. The Resolution CNE n° 04/2010, in its Art. 43, shows that:

The political pedagogical project, independent of the pedagogical, administrative and financial management autonomy of the educational institution, represents more than a document, being a way to enable the democratic school for everybody and with social quality.

§ 1° The Educational Institution autonomy is based on the search of its identity that express itself in the construction of its pedagogical project and its school regulations, while manifestation of its ideal education and that allows a new and democratic pedagogical ordination in the school relationships (Brasil, 2010).

The assumptions of the school management, which is participative, are underlying shared responsibilities related to the decision processes and collective compromise in the institutions and network/systems of teaching. So, when the PPP is democratically built and understood by school community as a whole, certainly, it becomes a guide of
the educational actions turned to the school quality, as a way to enhance the achievement and complementarity of the national and local public policies.

In this logic, the political pedagogical project becomes “[...] a own organization of the school pedagogical work as a whole, built and experienced all the time, by all that are involved in the school educative process” (Veiga, 1995, p. 11) and, especially, reflects about the terminologies ‘project’, ‘political’ and ‘pedagogical’.

Project because intentionality in which articulates the perspectives of the solidarity action of the school instituting, perspectives that need definitions, under sentence to predominate interests alien to the community of the ones that serve the school and the ones that make its everyday activities [...] Political project, because it deals with options that are fundamentally ethical in the sense of learning that the responsible and competent citizenship in the plural and differentiated contemporary society, in a wide debate, judge required [...] Pedagogical project, because in it should articulate the shared understanding by the members of the school universe about what to do, how and in the interest of whom, with the organization and conduction of the practices in the limits of possible, but especially, in taking full advantage of the potentialities open to the creative imagination and to the daring of the collective will (Marques, 1995, p. 95-96).

From the definitions, it is emphasized that such dimensions “project, political and pedagogical” constitute axes that are the base to the intentions and school educative actions. Projecting, thinking, defining and acting with consciousness and responsibility require clarity of what one wants, of why one wants, how is it going to be done, with whom and when. Therefore, a “Political” and “Pedagogical” Project is essential condition to the school community, because it needs to be the result of the social historical creation and becomes the basic condition to conduct the educative practices.

The Art. 4° of the Resolution CNE nº 7/2010 rules that it is duty of the State guarantee the offer of Public Elementary and Middle School, and in a quality way.

Single Paragraph. The schools that offer this teaching must work considering this phase of education as the one able to ensure to each person and to everyone the access to knowledge and to the elements of culture essential to the personal development and to the life in society, as well as the benefits of an ordinary learning, independent of the wide diversity of the school population and the social demands (Brasil, 2010).

The schools of Elementary and Middle levels have the duty to guarantee the learning to all children, it is noticeable that they ensure their learning, with equal opportunities, and this education should be similar for everyone.

A look at the context of Municipal Schools in Santa Maria – RS: results and analyses

The processes that surround the elaboration and implementation of the PPP are related, especially, to the principles of autonomy and participation of the school communities. In this base, it was accomplished an analysis turned to the process of [re]construction of the political pedagogical project from the view of managers, in order to outline the way the process occurred and its major implications. Interviews were conducted in six Municipal
Practices and discourses

Schools of Elementary and Middle levels in different areas of Santa Maria next to the City Board of Education (CMESM).

So, in this study, the partial results present that the totality of the managers have, in a certain way, difficulties with time availability to meet the members of the school community and, also, for further studies. For managers:

Lack of time for studies and discussions with rent segments of the school community (Manager of EMEF 1).

Time to meet, read, discuss and/or debate and insert in the political pedagogical project (Manager of EMEF 2).

The process of (re)construction of the Political Pedagogical Project is constant and we should add efforts, partnership with school-Council-Municipal Board- and School community and other areas, universities, among others (Manager of EMEF 3).

In reference to the process of the [re]construction of the PPPs and the EMEFs of Santa Maria, the managers highlight the importance of the school community mobilization to discuss the needs and priorities for the education, although they signalize the difficulty in the time availability to meet the teachers and other segments integrated to the school for further studies and debates about the data that characterizes the school context, as well as the legal and theoretical system of references in the area of the Elementary and Middle Schools. Thus, it was realized that the time availability to review and write the PPP from the guidelines sent by the Municipal Board and by the Municipal Council of Education is a factor that is a limit of the social and democratic participation in the process of [re]construction of the PPPs of the municipals schools of Santa Maria.

The PPP is a permanent process of reflection and discussion of the purposes, priorities and actions of the school, having as a basis the construction of democratic decision practices and achievement of shared actions that can or cannot make potent by the participation of the school community.

A PPP, elaborated and articulated according to the school community interests, constitutes an instrument of collective action, compromised with the interests of the majority, so that there is commitment of the people involved as they make part of the educative process.

The managers of the target schools emphasize the importance of the theoretical practice reflection about the theme of the study and the contribution of the new public policies and/or strategies of democratic management of municipal education in Santa Maria – RS.

Redo the political pedagogical project, observing the LDB, the National and Municipal Guidelines in a participative way, in other words, with the participation of all segments of the school. (Manager of EMEF 1)

According to the Resolution CMESM nº 29/2011, that treats about the purposes and guidelines of the Municipal System of Teaching of Santa Maria for the construction of the political pedagogical project, the essential elements for the constitution of a PPP are: cover; school identification information; summary, school diagnoses; school philosophy; priorities; objectives; goals and school main actions; organization of the school management; curricular organization; continuing education in school; PPP evaluation. Therefore, it was noticed that the researchers used the precept of the municipal legislation and the organizational aspects of the elementary and
Middle school PPPs show this worry on the indicated itinerary. The manager of EMEF 4 signalized what set bounds in the process of [re]construction the school PPP:

We used an itinerary for the construction of the political pedagogical project according to the guidelines of the law, reports and educational resolutions for the basic education and for the elementary and middle schools, and also the Resolution CME of Santa Maria n° 29 of December, 2011. (Manager of EMEF 4)

It was observed in the analysis of the PPPs that the surveyed schools have the essential elements for the construction of the political pedagogical project and that, in special, the Resolution n° 29/2011, according to the managers it was essential for the schools to have clarity as to what look minimally for the elaboration of the new text of the PPP.

The data already collected and, briefly analyzed, are contributing for the understanding on how the Elementary and Middle schools of Santa Maria – RS are contemplating in the process of [re]construction of their PPPs the situation of legal frameworks issued by the national and municipal educational system.

Also, it was possible to notice that in the majority of the surveyed schools there was the participation of the segments involved in the process of [re]construction of the PPP. Therefore, the managers have spoken about how they perceived the participation of the Educational Board in this process of construction of the PPP of the municipal schools of Santa Maria:

It was sent an itinerary for the construction of the political pedagogical project by SMEd. (Manager of EMEF 1)

There were meetings where they set some terms as curricular organization, pedagogical practices from the theoretical conceptions. Also, it was worked an itinerary for the political pedagogical project. (Manager of EMEF 2)

In a meeting, it was discussed the phases that should be broached and worked in this process. (Manager of EMEF 5)

It was found that the Educational Board tried to meet to study and discuss about the underlying theme referred to a school PPP, as well as it worked with the EMEFs with an itinerary, in other words, the steps that should be followed to the (re)construction of the political pedagogical project; certainly this itinerary was based on the Resolution of CMESM.

The managers also demonstrated their perceptions on the role and involvement of the Municipal Council of Education next to the process of [re]construction the PPP of the schools, assuming that the city of Santa Maria has a set Municipal System of Teaching and it is institutionalized by law.

The Municipal Council of Education sent the legislation that should guide the construction of the political pedagogical project (Manager of EMEF 2)

By the part of the Municipal Council of Education there was more information about the legal aspect in the area of the Elementary and the Middle Schools. (Manager of EMEF 3)

The Municipal Board of Education passed the preliminary orientations and the Municipal Council of Education reviewed and pointed out the mistakes. (Manager of EMEF 4)
It is possible to notice that the Municipal Council of Education collaborated with the process of (re)construction concerning to the legal perspective, reviewing and pointing out what should be contemplated in the [re]construction of the PPP, analyzed and redone. As it is a research in progress, afterwards it will be done analysis and discussions about the point of view of the advisers of education on the process of (re)construction of the PPP.

In such case, it was found out that as much the Municipal Board of Education as the Municipal Council of Education were important elements of this process of (re)construction of PPPs of the EMEFs, in the sense to guide the phases and purposes that should be contemplated by the schools, taking into account the National and Municipal Curricular Guidelines for the respective procedures.

**Final Considerations**

The preliminary results are making possible the amplification of the diagnostic view of the process of [re]construction of PPPs of Elementary and Middle Schools of Santa Maria – RS, by means of a theoretical practice reflection, contributing for the qualification of the understanding of how is this process moving in new strategies proposition for its attainment, as well as the consolidation of the educational democratic management in the city.

In this perspective, there is an intention to continue mapping the activities developed by the Municipal Board of Education and by the Municipal Council of Education related to the legal advice and assistance in the municipal elementary and middle schools, according to the referrals already made, such as the main problems, needs and possibilities related to the process of [re]construction of PPP by the Municipal Elementary and Middle Schools. Also, it is intended to promote a wide critical reflexive process about democratization of the municipal education and the collaborative regime among federal entities, organs and educational institutions.

It is worth mentioning that it was observed the importance of the political pedagogical project for the school organization, since it is one of the main mechanisms of the school management democratization. When built, understood and assumed by the community in a participative way, it constitutes as an articulating axis of the educational actions turned to the quality of teaching and learning.

In this perspective, the democratic management implies

> [...] the rethinking of the power structure of the school, considering the socialization. The power socialization provides the practice of collective participation that mitigates the individualism; of reciprocity that eliminates the exploration; of solidarity that overcomes oppression; of autonomy that cancels the dependence of intermediate organs which create educational policies in which the schools are mere executor (Veiga, 1995, p. 18).

It is understood that the management, thought out and articulated in a democratic manner, becomes a profitable opportunity for the critical participation of the school communities, offering and enlarging autonomy, power decentralization and optimization of the shared educational actions.

It was verified that 83,4% of the surveyed schools reports that the process of [re]construction of the political pedagogical project was done in a participative and democratic way with the involvement of all segments; just 16,6 reports that the process was in part participative, considering that the intervening factor in this question, pointed by the managers, is the ideal time.
In this perspective, five of the six surveyed schools consider that it is necessary further studies, discussions and base for the political pedagogical project in relation to the theoretical and legal references in the Elementary and Middle School area, this demands the rethinking of the teachers' time activity, in special, they need to be redefined by the Municipal Board of Education so the debate practices, studies and planning could be enlarged and qualified in the school context.

Finally, it is emphasized that the political pedagogical project has a huge importance in the school cultural organization, once it is a mechanism of administrative, financial and pedagogical management. Although, this document needs to be [re]constructed by all involved in the school ideas, as well as it should be based on conceptions that imply collective participation, power decentralization, educational transparency in actions, pointing to the democratization of the educational environment, whether in the classroom or in practices developed by the school managers.

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This paper analyzes the social representations of teachers and the inclusion of students with disabilities in regular schools. The research focused on teachers of the initial series of basic education in the municipal town in the southern region of Minas Gerais, Brazil, used the approach of the Social Representation Theory Moscovician and the method of Bardin discourse analysis. Fourteen subjects participated in semi-structured interviews. The analysis of the collected data was focus on the key issue: inclusion. The results indicated that there are, in speeches, latent content with myths and prejudices arising from the social history of individuals. Thus, the main contribution of this study was found through understanding of socially rooted ideas because it enables an educational conception of reflection on the part of educators.

Keywords: Inclusion, social representations, disabled student.
1 Introduction

The research presented comes from meeting the current context in which the school inclusion of people with disabilities occurs. However, this process - the inclusion - can be distorted by unconscious mechanisms of exclusion by the educational agents. The teachers of the initial series became subjects of this study by the fact that they have a responsibility in joining the student in elementary school, as well as the acquisition of formal beginning of his literacy and literacy. Part of the expectation of success or children's school failure is focused on that professional. Upon the occurrence of the latter, the student ends up being labeled by the system, carrying with it often, his teacher.

Even with the inclusion of people with disabilities in elementary school from Brazil, realizes in part, that inclusion is a fallacy, because many go only to occupy a physical space.

As there is a standardization of individuals, teachers compare students in the classroom through performance. People with disabilities often have different performance in relation to established as common, fleeing to school standards and can bring acceptance of difficulty by the teacher in his stay in elementary school. The teacher, when faced with this situation or this possibility, you can display attitudes of fear and anguish, raised by their myths and prejudices.

In this context, it is important to understand the "concepts" that the teacher is the special school and elementary school so that they can take place discussion of possibilities in order to bridge the gap between knowledge and practice. To do this, the basis of this study is the social representations. Social representations organize the relations of the subject with the world, guiding their behavior (MOSCOVICI, 1978).

The theory of social representations (RS) is one of the prospects "of understanding the design and placement of concepts (statements, explanations) and images of the 'reality' as the subject to realize and build" (RANGEL, 1999, p. 48) Social representations seeking the interpretation of daily life and relationships contained therein. According Jodelet (1989), social representations are an interpretation of reality system, organizing the relationship of the individual with the world and guiding their conduct and behavior in society.

The reality is the result of social combinations of common events and social representations are significant images of these events that facilitate the interpretation of reality.

An individual has a personal and social history are not isolated, are cultural trends in the group is inserted. Therefore, the study of social representations takes place connecting language, communication, emotions and mind to social relations.

These dimensions are part of the very notion of social representation, which relates to the construction of social knowledge, involving cognition. When an individual makes use of symbolic and imagination seeking to understand the world, brings out the emotions. Therefore, affect and cognition are based on the social reality.

(...) The theory of social representations is articulated with both the cognitive life of a society as with the symbolic constitution processes in which social actors struggle to make sense of the world, understand it and in it find their place, through a social identity. That means make clear how social representations as psychosocial phenomena, are necessarily rooted in the public space and the processes by which the
human being develops an identity, creates symbols and open to the diversity of a world of Others (GUARESCHI; JOVCHELOVICH 2000, p. 65).

Moscovici (1978) reports that the social representations are configured by three dimensions: information, representation field and attitude.

The information relates to the organization of knowledge that a group has about a social object; the representation of field refers to the image of idea of social model, the concrete and limited content of propositions about a specific aspect of the object representation; the attitude ends up focusing on the overall orientation to the object of social representation. (SA 1996, p.31)

According to Sá (1996), Moscovici reports another key feature of the size of attitude. It being the most frequent, eventually occur before the dimension of information and representation of the field, because individuals are informed and represent something after taking a position and function of this position.

Acting is present again, reconstruct, retouching is the mental representation of something else, for example, objects, psychic phenomena, people, among others. For this to occur it is necessary to represent the characterization of their forming processes, termed targeting and anchoring.

The objectification and anchoring are identified when analyzing the social representations within the procedural perspective. They are part of the novelty that appears.

Also in this sense, Moscovici (1978), the objectification is the way in which the social becomes a knowledge representation and anchoring is the way in which this representation transforms the social.

The objectification eventually cause the abstract concept it materializes through the word, occurring reabsorption of excess meanings. The structure of objectification, shows social thinking: imagining and significant. Already the anchor part of the representation to an existing social thought, turning it. By anchoring occurs classification. Jodelet (1989) states that the anchor is responsible for the social roots of representation, that is, it gives you meaning and usefulness.

It is within this theoretical framework that situates the analysis presented in this article. The Social Representation Theory is the basis for check reviews, images, attitudes, emotions, teachers.

Therefore, the aim of this study is to analyze the social representations that the teachers of the first municipal initial series of a city in the southern region of Minas Gerais, Brazil, have on the inclusion of students with disabilities in regular schools; analyze the data obtained in research to understand the favorable or not to the school inclusion indicators.

2 Methods

The municipal school net, where was conducted this study, has eight elementary schools. Six of these are located in urban areas and two in rural areas. There are a total of 31 initial series.

For understanding the social representations of teachers a field survey was carried out, with the procedure a semi-structured interview.
The collected data were analyzed based on content analysis method (Bardin, 2011). Through it, there is the possibility of reflection on how individuals perceive the social and incorporate in their speeches.

Bardin (2011) reports that the content analysis covers the instrumental communication (context and circumstances of the message) and the representational communication (words they contain significant elements). These two analyzes are not separated.

To facilitate understanding of the meaning of communication conveyed in speeches, there was the use of thematic analysis, which is a form of content analysis. "The notion of theme is linked to an assertion about a certain subject. It comprises a bundle of relations and can be graphically presented by a word, a sentence, an abstract" (MINAYO, 2010, p.208).

Thematic analysis is to look at the units of meaning that make up the communication, whose presence or frequency of appearance may mean something for the chosen analytical objective.

All teachers (31), of the initial network series, invited to participate in an individual semi-structured interview, fourteen accepted.

3 Results and discussion

The research was carried out entirely with female teachers, considering that the city has no professional initial first grade of elementary school boys. Sixty percent of the respondents are in the age group 24-27 years old, thirty percent between 30-38 years and ten percent over 40 years. In addition to one hundred percent of the respondents work in the first initial series, 14.28% also work in special education and 21.43% double shift at other schools. Of respondents, only 7.14% have degrees in pedagogy.

This article, which examines the theme of inclusion is part of a larger study, which rose other interdependent themes not be: professional practice; disabilities; ordinary and special school.

Based on the content analysis, the key issue: inclusion, has been identified and explored in the teacher believes will be included as well, as it should occur. The issue is important as it is articulated to social relations and may influence the permanence of shares or not that student in elementary school.

It proceeded to the thematic analysis, with inferences of categories and subcategories representative, relevant to the analysis unit. The categories are on complex structural elements, dynamic and interrelate. Pervade singular universal, mediated by the particular (MARTINELLI, 1999).

The human being has a personal and social history which is a result of the tendency of their cultural group. Social representations are constructed in the socio-historical, psychological and cultural relations (MOSCOVICI, 1978).

On content analysis of the interviews can be seen the similarities of ideas that are expressed in the representations of teachers.
Practices and discourses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Sub-category</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of the inclusion policy</td>
<td>Know through courses</td>
<td>&quot;I did several courses, I was in Congress (...)&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Know through the media</td>
<td>I know the TV, the magazine New school .... &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>unknown</td>
<td>&quot;Do not know.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>just know</td>
<td>&quot;I've heard.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favorable</td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;It brings results if done well and will be very beautiful.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favorable with support</td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;It works, but doctors, psychologists and educational psychologists have to help us.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggestions for how it should be done</td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;First thing is to train teachers to have a specialized assistance at school, and have the explanation of each child.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doubts</td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;It may occur, but will not be for ever. It is the future ... now I do not know, I find it hard to happen. &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>believes</td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Wow!! It's just you go after that is going to happen, get ready the teacher will be real&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not believe</td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;It does not work becausean being is prejudiced. Also, they do not keep pace the room.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Nonsense. They do not follow. It is haze.&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 40 Thematic analysis: Inclusion
Source: authors.

The dimension of information, ideas that express disability and inclusion are organized around the historic building, specialized service and legislation. The dimension of attitude, we can see a negative position with respect to disability and inclusion. As regards the size representation of the field, you can check the image of the "difference" in the set of speech.

Teachers, most of the speeches, reports know the term inclusion by the media and courses. However, no response has a concept about it. The answers are direct, seeming to reflect the desire not to discuss it.

When talking about persons with disabilities in elementary school, at various times mention the inclusion. The teacher demonstrates know you are surrounded by laws that provide rights to disabled student and one of them is to be in regular school. In speeches, to have this awareness of laws and rights, there may be a professional need to try to learn and accept this process of inclusion.

The right of the child to be placed in the elementary school does not break the stereotypical and prejudiced image socially constructed.

In some speeches teachers argue that attend elementary school may be enough because the duties are being fulfilled before the law. Others report difficulties regarding the frequency of children with disabilities in elementary school put away the need for acceptance.

Acceptance seems to be easier, depending on the type of disability. Teachers report that it is much easier to deal with people who have physical disabilities than mental disability. Although, at first, the disability shock more, it
seems that mental it brings more challenges to the teacher, could shake confidence in their professional competence.

The reports on the inclusion indicate unfavorable attitudes, although in some reports, there is the belief of its feasibility. These unfavorable attitudes they are anchored in negative references about the paradigm, either directly or through critical citing unpreparedness to accept it.

It is known that children with disabilities should be included in primary school, but it seems that no one knows how or why.

It can be seen as a resistance to inclusion. This can be emotional and focused on non-acceptance of human diversity. Although teachers say they believe that the inclusion will occur and does occur, hinder, arguing that it is something that will take, now that there is no possibility to happen because before need to change the school and preparing teachers.

Both within the school routine, one has the impression that there is no systematic discussion about inclusion, there is the responsibility of inclusive actions experts. Apparently, the speeches presented, there is a denial of the participation and responsibility of the teacher in the school inclusion process.

It is interesting to note that the municipality in which the survey was conducted, has consistently, throughout the school year, several lectures, courses and meetings on inclusion. Many of these actions are promoted by municipal and state board of education. But the teachers surveyed respond that they know little, little heard, either in town or in the broader media.

The pedagogical dimension for teachers seems to take second place. To raise a child with disabilities, it is common ground between them, there is the importance of the assistance of specialists, especially in the health field. It might experience an overvaluation of specialized class in the sense that disability seems to still be seen as a problem, a disease, and even a way to reveal the impotence of teachers within schools.

Inside the classroom, the teacher, as they develop their work focused on disability or focused on the problems of children and their limitations, may end up reinforcing the idea of disease, causing the psychological model and the work of experts have more importance than the pedagogical work, then consolidating a devaluation of their professional role.

Some do not appear to distinguish inclusion of integration. Report that the child should be worked before in the special school, be literate, then attend elementary school. As a result, in the minds of teachers there will be no deficiency because children are within the rules, they will be the same since, fancifully, its limitations will disappear. To seek to change the child, it reinforces the homogenization model.

The school is the place where the whole social structure turns out to be legitimized by defining who the excluded and included and can label who are the productive and unproductive, or who should be left out.

In childhood, children accept the disability more naturally, but if the teacher enhance the negative over the positive dimension, these children are at risk of not build as adults transformers, and yes, breeders of legitimate values.

In some speeches it is made a brief reflection of society. In that case, teachers comment that is aware that there are segregation mechanisms, but at the same time, have difficulty interacting and impotence in relation to change.
In all speeches, no mention more explicitly to the profession colleague's stance on the non-acceptance of disabled students in the classroom. Professor, speaking of his peers, may be projecting an image of yourself, when you put that one who accepts not have difficulties that other professionals dealing not know, did not want to adapt to the new situation. It is observed that speaks as if the other were an extension of himself. Perhaps that seeks to deny itself reveals another professional.

Social representations are expressed through social interactions, occurring a permanent exchange of information, opinions, feelings etc.

**Conclusions**

It is known that social representations influence everyday life, attitudes and at the same time are influenced by them. They are dynamic, altered according to the social environment and relationships between groups.

It is in this symbolic field that the idea of school inclusion is objective, anchors. By associating the special school as the place where students with disabilities receive everything they need, legitimized special education as the ideal. Regular school can be seen along with the teacher that it operates and students with or without disabilities, as victims of a legislation and a move: the inclusion.

It is perceived ignorance on the subject, which turns out to be founded the negative image of the difference.

Often, students with disabilities in mainstream education, modifies the pedagogical everyday, causing the teacher negative reactions. There seems to be a comparison between the students, and so there is the adjustment that the homogenization is sought, this being, great source of frustration.

The social representations of teachers against the inclusion are still being built. Because it is still a new paradigm ends up being influenced by representations of disability and school, which has at its core the notion of "norm" to follow. It is through these relationships that emerges the image of the other as negative, which refers to the deleted.

The study showed that commit inclusion is not an easy task. It is not enough just to know the shortcomings and the difficulties that schools spend. Not enough training of consciousness, knowledge of meanings, knowing how to live with diversity. There must be systematic construction condition of specific works, adaptations, human resources and learning for the consideration of diversity.

Therefore, the results of this research also shows the need for the formation of discussion groups. This area contains a teaching practice can be discussed, evaluated and reviewed. From the exchange of experience among professionals may possibly occur an exchange of representations, which allows improving of the teaching practice and consequently, increase the chances of inclusion exists effectively.

Understanding and description of the process of social representations of teachers, found in this study, are not absolute truths, because social representations are constantly changing.
References


Theoretical and methodological curriculum perspectives
From focus group to Djumbai, from researcher to messenger – Reflections from cross-cultural curriculum studies research in Guinea-Bissau

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This paper reflects the on the epistemological challenges of conducting research in cross-cultural curriculum studies research. The paper will critically describe the research context (Guinea-Bissau) and the methods used in the field work – focus group, semi-structured interviews and observation. Discussion then turns to the challenges posed for using such methods in cross-cultural curriculum studies research and the changing role of the researcher as insider, outsider and inbetweener. Conclusions consider that in cross-cultural contexts such this, researcher(s) must challenge some of the methodological barrier in order to gain access to the data and co-construct knowledge. The cross-cultural researcher must also be aware of the changing role(s) that he/she may assume, willing or not.

Introduction

This paper charts a critical look at a journey as a Portuguese researcher conducting a doctorate research project in the context of Guinea-Bissau - a West African small state. This cross-cultural context push us as researchers to different positionings. The researcher positioning in cross-cultural research is not new, varies across disciplines and over time. The traditional dichotomies used in cross-cultural education research - insider and outsider - are redundant (Katyal & King, 2011; McNess, Arthur, & Crossley, 2013; Milligan, 2014) and the concept of inbetweener researcher may be potentially more adequate (Milligan, 2014). Additionally, our epistemological background as Western-trained researchers with accepted certain normative paradigms are challenged and put us in such shifting positionings.

The study involved fieldwork in urban public schools in Guinea-Bissau. It sought to examine the impacts and effects of the Portuguese education aid Program called PASEG implemented from 2000 to 2012.

The conclusion puts forward that the researcher(s) must challenge some of the methodological barrier in order to gain access to the data and co-construct knowledge. The cross-cultural researcher must also be aware of the changing role(s) that he/she may assume, willing or not.

The research project and context

The research project is a case study using a quanti-qualitative approach. It used Stake (2004) responsive evaluation organized in two phases. The first phase provided a general look over PASEG and the second phase a focus looks at the impact and effects of PASEG in the schools. During field work the strategy used to data collection was survey, focus group, semi-structured interviews and observation. The use of different sources and methods of data collection allow the data triangulation and the case study reliability (Morgado, 2012; Patton, 2002).

This research involved the participation of 119 people that direct or indirectly where involved in PASEG – students, teachers, principals, Portuguese aid field and head office staff, ministry of education of Guinea-Bissau staff and international and national organizations staff. The data collection took place in de urban areas of Bafatá, Cacheu, Gabú e Setor Autónomo de Bissau regions. However, the majority of the data were collected in the Setor
Autónomo de Bissau regions, which include the country capital. This aspect stems from the fact that the PASEG focused its intervention in the country capital.

Guinea-Bissau is an west African small state with 1,6 million inhabitants, with an average rate of population increase estimated at 3%.(MENCCJD, 2011; Ministério da Economia Plano e Integração Regional, 2011) The country has one of the lowest gross domestic products per capita in the world (USD1270) poor infrastructure, weak social indicators, and a poverty rate of 64,7% (MENCCJD, 2009; Ministério da Economia Plano e Integração Regional, 2011; UNESCO Institute of Statistics, 2011). The country relies heavily on official development assistance, particularly for public services, and education is one of the sectors which depends heavily on bilateral and multilateral aid (Ministério da Economia Plano e Integração Regional, 2011; Monteiro, 2005). Although the official language is Portuguese, only 5% of the population use it as mother tongue and around 10% purport to speak Portuguese. Most inhabitants speak one or more indigenous languages, of which there are 20 (Benson, 2010; Monteiro, 2005; Observatório da Língua Portuguesa, 2009).

Guinea-Bissau has experienced significant conflict and political and military instability both prior to and following independence. Guinea Bissau is considered to be one of the “most fragile states in Africa" and the first Africa Narco-State (O'Regan & Thompson, 2013, p. 1). It is a peripheral country in the world system where a myriad of international organizations intervene due to its post-colonial condition (e.g. Word Bank, UNICEF, PNUD; WHO, WFP, EuropeAid, FAO). The World Bank and OECD have classified it as a fragile state (Banco Mundial, 2007; OCDE, 2009). The fragility of Guinea-Bissau is linked to its political and military histories. An example of this instability is the April 2012 military coup, ending the second turn of the presidential elections, the tenth coup since independence in 1973 from Portuguese colonial rule (Sousa, 2012).

Conditions linked to state fragility such as poor governance, repression, corruption, low levels of social cohesion, inequality and exclusion can affect education provision (e.g. Brannelly, Ndaruhurst, & Rigaud, 2009; INEE, 2010). In Guinea-Bissau examples of such effects include: i) a net enrolment rate of 67% in primary education; ii) 13% of classrooms made of quirintim (bamboo mat) iii) lack of textbooks; iv) limited number of school days due to teacher strikes, triggered by delayed distribution of salaries (MENCCJD, 2011).

Cross-cultural research

The challenges of research in the global south in a sense are not so different from other places. However there are “powerful political, theoretical, methodological, procedural and logistical problems that create very different contexts for the conduct of research in third world settings generally, and in Africa in particular.” (Jansen, 2005, p. 16). In this way the context is crucial for the research challenging the acritical cross-cultural transfer of policies and practices of education and development (Crossley, 2008, 2010; Crossley & Watson, 2003).

Based in a number of authors, we can identify the following challenges of research in the global south, in particular in Africa:

- Access to official documents and statistics (Harber, 1997; Jansen, 2005)
- Access to library’s and documentation centres (Harber, 1997; Jansen, 2005)
- Economic, politic and educational instability (Desai & Potter, 2006; Jansen, 2005).
- Distance in relation to the research country (King, 2005; Wedgwood & Hammett, 2005).
- Conduct research as development (Jansen, 2005);
- Reduced number of students and staff conducting research in Africa from Universities outside of Africa (Wedgwood & Hammett, 2005)
- Type of research conducted (Jansen, 2005; Tikly, 2011).
- Donors support of the research project (Desai & Potter, 2006; Jansen, 2005)
- Research projects from NGOs and other development agencies (Desai & Potter, 2006; King, 2005).
- Fieldwork limited because of the budget (Desai & Potter, 2006; Fife, 1997; King, 2005).
- Time of the year for conducting research (Desai & Potter, 2006);

In spite of these and other aspect being taken into consideration in our research we will focus our analysis in the cultural and epistemological principles. This focus stems from the fact that they assume a critical relevance in the researcher negotiation of his/her position in the field. This also influences the data collection methods chosen because the major methodological challenge is the combination of "reflexivity towards the relationship between ends and means, and context and processes" (Stephens, 2005, p. 42).

During the research, the researcher must have in to consideration that “a major methodological problem concerns seeing things distorted by their own western lenses” and “Non-national researchers can be distracted by the exotic whereas local researchers may be blind to the familiar.” (Crossley, 2010; Jansen, 2005; Lehtomäki et al., 2014; Sikes, 2013; Tikly, 2011; Tikly & Bond, 2013; Wedgwood & Hammett, 2005, p. 11).

With regard to the cultural and epistemological principles we can emphasize the following aspects: 1) standardized guidelines; 2) standardized data collection strategies; 3) researcher positionings and the way he/she is seen by the participants.

The first aspect, in general, is western based and the power is on the researcher side. The limitation can be on the participants incapacity of understand the meaning of signing an informed consent, out to write, or one oral consent in the cultural context may be more valuable and rise less suspicions than a written one. However, the respect for any person involved in the research seems to be a universal and non-negotiable principle.

In the second one, in general, we are limited to consider a set of western based standardized principles if we want to consider the research valid. The data collection methods can influence how the participants view the researcher and cause concerns and limitation in the quality of the data collected.

The third aspect brings to the discussion the issue of the insider, outsider and inbetween researcher. This stems from the fact that in cross-cultural research the researcher may assume a changing role, willing or not, because of the skin colour or country of origin. The insider and outsider “have long been theorised in the social sciences, with their definitions differing over time and across disciplines.” (Milligan, 2014, p. 1). In recent years the notion of
insider and outsider is gaining a new relevance in education research in cross-cultural context in relation to the field work complexity (McNess et al., 2013; Milligan, 2014). Often the insider and outsider is related “on how researchers view themselves in the research process.” (Milligan, 2014, p. 6). However, this can be seen “as a balancing act between the positioning that the researcher actively takes and the ways in which their role is defined by how others involved in the project, research participants and further afield, view the researcher.” (Milligan, 2014, p. 6). In this way, this new perspective (inbetweener researcher) develops

“the notion that in conducting research we are neither entirely one identity nor another; neither fully inside nor outside. Rather, it is argued that researchers take on different positionings dependent on the situation that we may be in, the people we are interacting with and familiarity of the linguistic and socio-cultural norms.” (Milligan, 2014, p. 5).

In this way, we must adopt an ecology of knowledge (B. d. S. Santos, 2007; B. S. Santos, 2010) and “we need to remember that ethics review policies and procedures do not guarantee ethical outcomes – people working together are more likely to achieve that.” (Sikes, 2013, p. 532).

Challenges in the research process

The multiple identities that the researcher may assume in the research process were a constant in our fieldwork. They changed over the time and were also influenced by the participants and circumstances. Also they were attributed to the researcher by the participants and other times were assumed by the researcher. We assume this changing role(s) willing or not. So, in this case, as we will see in this section, we consider ourselves as an inbetweener researcher.

This section draws on data from my detailed field notes through which I reflected on the data collection process in particular and the research in general. These notes reflect frequent inputs about my positioning and how others viewed me.

The more frequent used data collection method in our research was focus group because we considered it more adequate in relation to the aim and scope of the research and the cultural aspects (predominance of an oral culture). However the focus group characteristics where challenged by the participants. In this way the focus group became a djumbai41. This mutation occurred because of the participant’s pressure to involve in the discussion more people than expected, in spite of the involvement in the project under research. These changes were allowed in order to gain access to the data and to co-construct knowledge.

During the data collection the insider position arose in the following situations:

- Identify the gatekeepers and gain access to the research sites. In one of the schools this was even the only way to gain access to the respondents after two weeks of negotiations;
- In-depth knowledge of the education sector in the country through the review of studies carried out before field work. This allowed conducting informal conversions in schools after and before data collection and

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41 Guinean creole word that describes a gathering of persons to “talk; hobby, especially during the night; pleasant socializing” (Scantamburlo, 1999, p. 154).
build a tension-free environment between researcher and participants. This also allowed during the data collection making links between written and oral sources.

During all data collection the outsider position came up in the following situations:

- When the respondents “used” me as messenger who would get to Lisbon a number of concerns. And in this to give "voice" to the respondents;
- Many times I felt that some meetings and / or access to data were easier to access because I’m a foreigner;
- Give to each participant of the focus group 1000 CFA\textsuperscript{42} francs to help them to travel expenses, due to financial difficulties of the country and many of the participants have moved often purposely to speak with me;

These positionings occurs during the data collection, often in the same group sometimes pushed by the researcher other times by the respondents, willing or not.

Conclusion

The article has shown that in our case the cross-cultural research push the researcher to become an inbetweener researcher. This arises due the different positionings assumed by the researcher, willing or not. It also point that in these circumstances the researcher must challenge some of the methodological barrier in order to gain access to the data and co-construct knowledge. We can also conclude that it is crucial that the researcher(s) is aware of this changing role(s) in cross-cultural research in order to gain access to the data to a more authentic portrayal of the participants, and co-construct knowledge.

In order to achieve this, the researcher must pursuit the ecology of knowledge (B. S. Santos, 2010), keeping a critical perspective and some flexibility in the data collection. Although, the flexibility is circumscribed by the research project and the boundaries of accepted scientific knowledge. This perspective presupposes that we are available to “learn there is the South; learn to go to the South; learn from the South and with the South” (B. S. Santos, 2010, p. 9).

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\textsuperscript{42} Around 1,5 €.


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Curriculum and Didactics: A matter of power. The case of the University of Madeira

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From the niche of curriculum studies (declaring from the beginning, the assumption of my involvement and commitment in one of the parts), this paper aims at discussing the not always peaceful relationship existing between the Curriculum, on the one hand, and the Didactics, on the other, in the context of Education.

Retaking a discussion already started, from the revisiting of some authors who have been reflecting on convergences and divergences in this relationship, this paper is an attempt to define and delimit these two fields in their historical and epistemological routes, since their appearance as areas of knowledge, not necessarily scientific ones, their cultural traditions, overlaps and gaps, in order to concentrate later on the matter of power, in which educational institutions and research units in Portugal are involved.

The description of the case of the University of Madeira intends to illustrate the issues listed and discussed at the theoretical level.

Keywords: curriculum; didactics; power

1. Historical and epistemological routes: convergences and divergences

It is important to start the debate locating the exact time of the birth of each one of these fields of knowledge, questioning about who appeared first: Didactics or Curriculum? Curriculum or Didactics?43

The word Didactics originates from the Greek didaskein, which meant “to be a teacher, to educate”. And to be a teacher meant that he (there was no “she”) should be a knower, who mastered a certain field of knowledge: the contents, the subject-matters, the disciplines, to be transmitted to the students in order to be reproduced by them.

Contrasting to Mathetics, for which the focus was the learner and the process of learning, as attested by the Socratic method of eliciting knowledge from the mind of a person through interrogation and logical reasoning (Maieutics), Didactics was born related to the ability to teach something to somebody, to instruct, to inform about content that should be learnt.

In fact, the word Didache with the meaning of “teaching” was the title of an early Christian treatise, dated from the second part of first century: “The Teaching of the Twelve Apostles”, the Greek manuscript which was rediscovered in 1873 and the Latin version only in 1900. The discourse starts with the “Teaching of the Lord to the Gentiles (or Nations) by the Twelve Apostles”, being the oldest surviving written catechism. Probably this influenced the definition of the adjective “didactic” with the meaning of “teaching or intending to teach a moral lesson” (Webster’s Encyclopedic Unabridged Dictionary of the English Language, 1994).

On the other hand, as far as Curriculum is concerned, we can say this word is Latin and means race, the place where one is supposed to run (racecourse), and what is done during the race as well. So etymologically it is obvious that the root of Didactics appeared first, due to its Greek origin.

43 Curriculum and Didactics are written in capital letter along this text whenever they refer to the corresponding concepts.
However, many centuries have passed until both terms arrived almost simultaneously in the educational world taking in consideration what Hamilton (2003) writes:

“Between about 1450 and 1650, a cluster of words, including syllabus, class, curriculum, and subject didactics, entered the European educational lexicon - and thence to the Americas, south and north.”

(Hamilton, 2003: 02)

Whilst contrary to Gundem (1998), who considered that the word Curriculum was first used by Daniel Georgius Morhof (1639-1691), professor in Rostock from 1660, Doll (2002) anticipates its use to almost a century before, saying that

“It was in one of Ramus's works, a taxonomy of knowledge, the “Professio Regia” (1576), published four years after his death, that the word curriculum first appears referring to a sequential course of study”

(Doll, 2002: 31).

Nevertheless these two authors are unanimous in considering that Curriculum appeared as a reaction against the medieval Scholastics which aimed at the validation of Christian dogmas by means of the Platonic and Aristotelian logic, in a context of solitary deep study in the attempt to reconcile faith and reason. The students were let alone unraveling complex and confused information.

So Curriculum aimed at the simplification of knowledge making it accessible to the students with a purpose of “teaching and not thinking”, focusing on Didactics rather than on Dialectics. The taxonomy of knowledge, or syllabus sequentially arranged in an “unbroken linear progression” is by Doll (2002) called a “logical map of knowledge”. Therefore there is a close relationship between “the mapping of knowledge” and “the accomplishment of instruction”. That is to say: to make knowledge clear and understandable it should be simplified as Hamilton says: “Starting with a map of knowledge, Ramus reduced such knowledge into a tree of knowledge, using repeated binary division” (Hamilton, 2003: 08).

And without using the terms Didactics or Curriculum, we cannot fail to mention the Ratio Studiorum published in 1599, under the Jesuitical Generalship of Claudio Aquaviva, after a preparation of over 40 years. In addition to presenting a set of operating rules for the Colleges of the Society of Jesus, it also contemplated a set of rules about how and what to teach, to be applied in the twelve provinces that constituted the Jesuits world at that time (Castile, Aragon, Andalusia, France, Italy, Higher and Lower Germany, Brazil, Ethiopia, India, Japan and last but not the least, Portugal) for the intellectual and pedagogical preparation of the teacher, after the phase of spiritual exercises. We may reflect on the combination of “what” and “how” to teach, if we read the following rules, as examples:

“The lecture should just explain the ancient authors, and never the modern ones. It is preferable that the teacher talks within a certain order and preparation and exposes what he wrote at home, reading the entire book or the speech he has in his hands” (Rule 27, common to the teachers of Lower Studies).

“Even in harmless questions to faith and piety, no one should dare to introduce new subjects that are not secured by a capable author without consulting superiors” (Rule 6, common to the teachers of Higher Studies).

The minimal detail of order and organization of a classroom is visible here:
“In order to prevent precipitation or running at the end of the classes, those by the door go out firstly, while the teacher observes them; or everybody may leave silently” (Rule 44, common to the teachers of Lower Studies).

“Pay particular attention to guarantee that all observe silence and modesty; that anyone roams from one place to another, or changes the place, delivers presents or messages to one another, or leaves the room, especially in groups of two or more, at the same time” (Rule 43, of the teacher of Rhetorics).

Finally in 1638, Jan Amos Komensky, better known as Comenius, gave greater visibility to his *Didactica Magna*, a Latin translation of *Česká didaktika* (Czech Didactics), already published in 1627, generating a debate about whether the teaching would be an art or a science, with the focus on a particular method of teaching that appealed to logical thinking, originated from simple and concrete concepts rather than memorization generally in use at that time. So the word Didactics (*Didactica*) appeared for the first time related to a method of teaching.

Born in the former Bohemia (now a Czech Republic region) and with an extremely rich life experience, with long stays in Germany, Poland, Sweden, Transylvania, England, Holland, Hungary, etc., Comenius was a defender of universal education through a generalized access to school, regardless of each one’s economic status, gender, or disability. Hired by Sweden in order to launch an educational reform, he made literacy become mandatory to all residents of that kingdom, from 1687, making that country the first one, at the beginning of 19th century, with no illiteracy rate.

Having closely lived with Descartes who was also in Sweden under the protection of Queen Christina, the Didactics of Comenius advocated the teaching of everything to everyone (*omnis omnia docere*). Focused on the method, the sequencing of the steps was thoroughly assured: starting from sensorial experiences with objects, or daily experiences, the teacher was supposed to develop an understanding of concepts through reason. The practice was the basis of his method, which was to be fast, economical and not so tiring.

In this way he began introducing texts in the vernacular languages, instead of Latin, strictly observing certain steps. These are the ones I consider more significant to our aim, extracted from a set presented by Libâneo (2002):

“[…] We should always start from the causes whenever we intend to teach the nature of things. […]”

“[…] What is taught should be followed by evidences of practical application with demonstration of its usefulness. […]”

“[…] There should be an order in the presentation of things (each one in due course). […]”

Not so successful as Comenius, Wolfgang Ratke, also known as Wolfgangus Ratichius (1571-1635), devised a new method for teaching languages quickly (despite the fact of being Comenius who published the *Novissima Linguarum Methodus* in 1648), based on Bacon’s inductive philosophy advocating a natural sequence for the acquisition of knowledge: from the particular to the general, from the mother tongue to foreign languages.

Under the influence of Bacon’s Aphorisms, Ratichius wrote his own didactic aphorisms, mentioned by Hoff (2008):

“Go from the known to the unknown. (…)”

The general must precede the particular.

The confused knowledge must precede the distinct knowledge.
The easiest and most necessary exercise should precede the more difficult and less necessary exercise.

Everything should be taught in accordance with the order or with the course of the nature.

No more than one thing at a time.

Everything in one's mother tongue firstly.

From the mother tongue to another language.

All without embarrassment.

Nothing should be learned by heart. The reason: It is against nature.

Uniformity in all things.

First, the thing in itself; then the mode of it.

Everything through experience and research of the details”

As we can see, order, simplicity and organization, akin to what happens in natural life, were the priority axes of both Curriculum and Didactics in line with the spirit of the Renaissance and Enlightenment which gave primacy to reason: Curriculum giving more emphasis to the organization of the contents (the methodization of knowledge), while Didactics was turned to the organization of the ways how to transfer that knowledge.

From then on, Curriculum and Didactics received great influence from the emergent psychology which, at its first steps as a science brought a fresh look at the child. However, instead of saying that “Rousseau, Pestalozzi and Herbart, though with different marks, are included in the psychological didactic phase” (Libâneo, 2002), I would prefer to say that these pedagogues contributed towards a pedagogical shift in the area of Curriculum: from the one-dimensional curricular model centered on the contents to another one-dimensional curricular model focused on the methods, as a psychologized Curriculum.

Nevertheless I have to say that Libâneo has declared right at the beginning of his text, that “this is obviously a look from the didactics, but a didactics which explicitly recognizes the importance of the purposes and contents of teaching in its socio-cultural and institutional frameworks, that is to say, the curriculum.” According to my interpretation, from an interested and implied Curriculum point of view, as I equally assumed in the beginning of this text, I can draw the conclusion that we are talking about the same ideas, only using different labels. Because there is no doubt that, in opposition to the theory of the homunculus, Rousseau (1712-1778), Pestalozzi (1746-1827), Herbart (1776-1841) and Froebel (1778-1852) were absolutely crucial at the stage of the psychologization of the teaching methods: Rousseau with his theory of natural goodness of man, Pestalozzi with his pedagogy of love, Herbart as the father of scientific pedagogy with his “Formalstufen”, and Froebel with his kindergartens and the metaphor of the child as a plant. The pedagogy shows the purposes of education while the psychology, the way, the means and obstacles, according to Herbart (1806) in his General Pedagogy, demonstrating the importance of psychology in the theory of education.

They are, in fact, the announcers of the New School movement formally established through the foundation of the Bureau International des Écoles Nouvelles, by Adolphe Ferrière, in Geneve in 1899, acknowledging or giving rise to new educational experiences focused on active teaching methods such as the one centered on the biosocial needs of the child advocated by the Belgian Jean-Ovide Decroly (1871-1932) at his École de l’Ermitage; the
learning by doing method of the North-American John Dewey (1859-1952) practiced at the Laboratory Schools of the University of Chicago, presented in a book significantly entitled “The Child and the Curriculum” (1902); the atmosphere of freedom (not license) and self-governance provided by the Scottish Alexander Neill (1883-1973) at his Summerhill School; and the early childhood education method of the Italian Maria Montessori (1870-1952), making use of developmentally appropriate sensorial materials, at her Case dei Bambini. These are well-known examples of methods influenced by the emergent human and natural sciences (biology, neurology, psychology), strictly linked to the names of these pedagogues.

Still it is important to underline that a radical psychologization of a teaching method, by influence of Freud and Lacan, for example, could break down the original idea of organization advocated by both Curriculum and Didactics, as it was the case of the libertarian pedagogical trends of the first decades of 20th century.

It is however in the context of the space race led by the two blocks, emerging from the end of World War II that Curriculum and Didactics just overlapped, in my opinion, becoming closer than ever to each other. The launch of Sputnik by the Russians in 1957 succeeded in alerting the Western world to an essential element missing in any planning: the objectives, to know exactly what to reach. Contents and methods seemed to be only means to reach the goals after all. That is the reason why teachers should be trained in Didactics and Curriculum Development, to become good technicians (good planners, performers and evaluators), making the most of their time. From this perspective, “it is further worth noting that didactics subsumes ‘curriculum’ as one issue besides or interwoven with other issues like teaching and learning, schooling, school administration, etc.” (Hopman and Riquarts, 1995, cit. Gundem and Hopman, 1998).

Of course Taylor’s Scientific Management did contribute to invade education with ideas of efficiency, productivity, rationality, elimination of waste, standardization of best practices, competitiveness, mechanization and automation, underlining the principles of organization already enunciated before.

From my point of view (of Curriculum), the phase of the technological curricular model triggered by Bobbitt (1918; 1924) and consolidated by Tyler (1949) and the Rationale Tyler in the following two or three decades was the most acute phase of the didactization of Curriculum focused on the Curriculum Development, addressed to teacher education in agreement with modern times. At that time, Curriculum was Didactics as Didactics was Curriculum.

As we can see, being close in their origins, and having become even more close to each other in this particular post-war period, with their obsession with the taxonomies of objectives, these two fields paradoxically raised a gap between them precisely at this time: having nothing to distinguish them, the expression Didactics became prevalent on the European Continent - in German speaking countries (Didaktik), in Scandinavia (didaktik), in France (didactique) and in the Iberian world (didáctica), while the word Curriculum was adopted in the English-speaking Western world.

And sometimes words are responsible for creating an identity. According to Silva (1997): “I am what the other is not; I am not what the other is”. And difference

“is not established in isolation and independently. It depends upon processes of exclusion, guard borders, division strategies. The difference is never just and purely difference, but also and fundamentally hierarchy, valuation and categorization” (Silva, 1997: 25).
I dare to say that a mere question of linguistics provides conditions to think differently. A new identity as far as Curriculum is concerned was forged from the I Conference held in the University of Rochester in 1973, later influencing Portuguese scholars too, as I am going to evidence in the following point. Unexpectedly, according to Pinar (2010), this Conference inaugurated a new phase in Curriculum. He affirms:

“My PhD mentor, Paul R. Klohr, and I had planned the 1973 Rochester Conference as a “state-of-the field” meeting; we did not foresee that it would initiate a decade of dispute that would result in the field mapped in Understanding Curriculum” (Pinar et al., 1995, cit. Pinar, 2010: 528).

The paradigm shift from a strongly didactized “Curriculum Development” to “Understanding Curriculum” opened the field for an in-depth reading of the social reality in schools, with a special emphasis on the “hidden curriculum” previously reflected and studied by educational philosophers and sociologists like Althusser, Bourdieu and Passeron, Baudelot and Establet, Bowles and Gintis and others. But this time the reflection was made by the curriculists themselves.

As a matter of fact a new identity of Curriculum presupposed to be different from Didactics raised a problem of power in the field of educational knowledge. The establishment of borders was therefore necessary.

In short I can say that the reconceptualization of Curriculum studies claimed to be a specific area of scientific research in descriptive and analytical terms rather than for prescriptive and normative purposes, thus keeping itself away from a set of pedagogical rules, a recipe to be executed by teachers unaware of a macro context under different sorts of social pressures (political, economic, ideological, and so on). From this perspective, Didactics is not an equivalent of Curriculum. Though an extremely important area in teacher education focused on specific disciplines (how to teach Maths is different from how to teach a Foreign Language or how to teach Natural Sciences) it is not its responsibility to make teachers or future teachers reflect on and be aware of outside forces that frame the school.

This is the reason why Curriculum may constitute a real menace to the stability of the pre-established (status quo) aimed at by the politicians and for that reason it may be at risk nowadays.

2. The case of the University of Madeira

The second part of this paper will focus on a specific reality, to better understand at a concrete level the tension existing between Didactics and Curriculum, as already explained theoretically, in an attempt to clarify (without a purpose of generalization) the evolution of these two areas.

As an insider, who has lived the process of the creation of the University of Madeira, with previous backgrounds related to initial teacher education at Escola do Magistério Primário do Funchal, Escola Superior de Educação da Madeira, and in-service professionalization of teachers of 2nd and 3rd cycle of basic education and of secondary education, I would not say that the description I am going to put forward is the result of a case study, with all the known characteristics of a research methodology as Yin (1993; 2005) or Stake (1995) define it. According to Yin (1993), descriptive case studies (one of the types of case studies he stated – exploratory, explanatory and descriptive) require a descriptive theory to be developed before starting the research project. However, in fact my study object was not defined previous to my immersion in the field in a way that observation and note taking occurred in a systematic way.
What I intend to do now is rather a description and interpretation of a phenomenon of my interest, looking backwards, by reconstruction of a story, from my viewpoint as a participant in my natural environment, making use of multiple sources of data, that may eventually illustrate the theoretical discussion above.

Once clarified that this is not a pure research case study, I should say however that this description contains some typical elements of an intrinsic (Stake, 1995) and descriptive single case study (Yin, 1993), with historical features (André, 2005) related to Didactics and Curriculum in teacher education in Madeira, since the foundation of *Escola do Magistério Primário do Funchal*, in 1943, as the remotest antecessor of the University of Madeira for this issue. For economy of resources, the study programmes presented in the following tables are those related to the teacher education for Primary Teaching (the term has changed up to the present 1st Cycle of Basic Education), for children from 6 to 10 years of age.

In order to better frame this particular teacher education in Madeira, it is necessary to recall that in 1942 the Schools of Lisbon, Oporto, Coimbra and Braga were reopened after a closure for more than five years of all Schools addressed to primary teachers’ education, with a study programme published by the Decree-law nº 32242, of 5th September, to be applied everywhere in Portugal.

Going back to this study programme (see Table 41), organised in four semesters, there was in fact no mention of Curriculum (Theory or Development). And in conformity with the trend described in the first part, the Didactics (General and Special) were overweighted supported by the emergent Educational Psychology.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disciplines</th>
<th>1st sem.</th>
<th>2nd sem.</th>
<th>3rd sem.</th>
<th>4th sem.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogy and <strong>General Didactics</strong></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied Psychology to Education</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Special Didactics</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Hygiene</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drawing and Educational Manual Works</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woman’s Education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music and Choir Singing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legislation and School Administration</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation’s Political and Administrative Organization</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral and Civic Education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Practice</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 41: 1942 study programme

In 1960, almost twenty years later, a new study programme, published by the Decree-law nº 43369, of 2nd December, broadened the scope of Pedagogy and General Didactics with the History of Education (see Table 36). With the same duration, this new programme retained most of the subjects. But the previous Special Didactics was
enfolded in Special Didactics of group A, including the Didactics of Portuguese Language, History and Drawing, and in Special Didactics of group B, including the Didactics of Arithmetic and Geometry, Natural and Geographical Sciences and Manual Works, thus reinforcing the weight of Didactics in teacher education. It is also worth noting the preponderance of School Administration in 3 semesters instead of only one in the previous programme, in agreement with the obsession with organization also explained in the theoretical part of this paper.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disciplines</th>
<th>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; sem.</th>
<th>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; sem.</th>
<th>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; sem.</th>
<th>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; sem.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogy, <strong>General Didactics</strong> and History of Education</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied Psychology to Education</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Special Didactics of group A</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Special Didactics of group B</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drawing and Educational Manual Works</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woman's Education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legislation and School Administration</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation's Political and Administrative Organization</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral Education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Hygiene</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Musical Education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Practice</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internship</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 42: 1960 study programme

In 1978, a new study programme (see Table 43) was published by the Order n°157/78, of 30<sup>th</sup> June, already demanding 3 years of education distributed among four areas: Sciences of Education (for the first time with this designation), Expression and Communication, Experience and Teaching Practice, beyond Technical Activities and Moral as an elective. In addition, also for the first time, the word Didactics disappeared. Instead, Methodology and Pedagogical Techniques or even School Organization and Administration were used, evidencing the move towards the Anglo-Saxon world, although with the same concern for teaching methodologies and techniques.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Disciplines</th>
<th>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; year</th>
<th>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; year</th>
<th>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogy</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sciences of Developmental Psychology</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
That move to the English speaking world is attested with the expression “Curriculum Development” which started appearing in educational discourse and in study programmes for teacher education of the so-called “new” universities in Portugal: Universities of Minho and Aveiro, from 1975. And in order to prepare the teaching staff for the future University of Madeira, through an institutional agreement established between the Regional Government of Madeira and the University of Minho, I myself together with some other colleagues during the school years of 1984-1986 attended an extension of Minho’s Master programme in Education, significantly entitled “Teaching Analysis and Organization”, with “Curriculum Development” as one of the core disciplines of this programme. On the other hand, the Decree-law nº 405/86, of 9th October, stipulated a subject called “Curriculum Development” in all in-service professionalization programmes in Portugal.

After the extinction of Escola do Magistério Primário do Funchal, I continued working at Escola Superior de Educação da Madeira, for which a new study programme (see Table 38) was published by the Ordinance nº 325/87, of 21st April. This initiated a new phase since Methodologies also disappeared then. With a teaching staff of the area of education holding that particular Minho’s Masters, there was instead one course of Sciences of Education unfolded in three parts (I, II and III), disguising the paradigmatic shift that was already occurring in our minds. And concerning the specificity of Portuguese and Mathematics, the study plan created two new disciplines:
Portuguese Teaching-Learning and Mathematics Teaching-Learning, precisely to affirm a new philosophy different from Didactics of Portuguese and Didactics of Mathematics, that overweighted teaching rather than learning. This was the first reaction against the prevalence on “how” to teach.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Disciplines</th>
<th>A/S1/S2</th>
<th>Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Introduction to Linguistics and Literature</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Theory of Numbers and Complements of Logics</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sciences of Physical and Social Environment I</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sciences of Education I</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-Verbal Communication and Expression I</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Techniques of Portuguese Expression</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sciences of Physical and Social Environment II</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-Verbal Communication and Expression II</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sciences of Education II</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Children’s Literature</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching Practice I</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Sciences of Education III</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Portuguese Teaching-Learning</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mathematics Teaching-Learning</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching Practice II</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-Verbal Communication and Expression III</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching Practice III</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 44: 1987 ESEM’s study programme

In 1988, the University of Madeira was finally created by Decree-law nº 319-A/88, of 13th September, and a CIFOP (Integrated Centre for Teacher Education) was established similarly to what was happening in other universities, replacing the Escola Superior de Educação, normally linked to Polytechnic Higher Education. And a new study programme (see Table 44) was published by the Ordinance nº 1023/89, of 23rd November, to be applied to teacher education in Madeira, whilst that tendency in favour of Teaching-Learning was accentuated by spreading this
concept to other areas: Non-Verbal Expression Teaching-Learning; Geography Teaching-Learning; Natural Sciences Teaching-Learning; History Teaching-Learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Disciplines</th>
<th>A/S1/S2</th>
<th>Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Sciences of Education I</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-Verbal Communication and Expression</td>
<td>A</td>
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<td>Mathematics I</td>
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<td>Teaching Practice I</td>
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<td>Elective</td>
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<td>Sciences of Education II</td>
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<td>Natural Sciences</td>
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<td><strong>Non-Verbal Expression Teaching-Learning I</strong></td>
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<td>Children’s Literature</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Teaching Practice II</td>
<td>A</td>
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<td></td>
<td>History</td>
<td>S1</td>
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<td>Mathematics II</td>
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<td>Portuguese II</td>
<td>S1</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Geography and <strong>Geography Teaching-Learning</strong></td>
<td>S2</td>
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<td>Mathematics Teaching-Learning</td>
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<td><strong>Portuguese Teaching-Learning I</strong></td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Sciences of Education III</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Natural Sciences and <strong>Natural Sciences Teaching-Learning</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Non-Verbal Expression Teaching-Learning II</strong></td>
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<td>History and <strong>History Teaching-Learning</strong></td>
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<td>Teaching Practice III</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>12</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Learning Difficulties</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>Portuguese Teaching-Learning II</strong></td>
<td>S1</td>
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<td>Elective</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Seminar</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 45: 1989 ESEM/CIFOP’s study programme
The legal determination that all teachers independently of their level of education should hold a graduation of 4 years provided exceptional conditions for us to draw a study programme according to our educational beliefs, approved by a Resolution of the University Senate nº 70/98, published on 20\textsuperscript{th} May 1998 (See Table 46). In the meantime the CIFOP was replaced by a Department of Education, as an organic unit of the University of Madeira, with the inherent scientific and pedagogical autonomy according to the legislation in force. The philosophy concerning teacher education is reflected in this particular study plan.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Disciplines</th>
<th>S1/S2/A</th>
<th>Hours</th>
<th>ECTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>History and Philosophy of Education</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Portuguese Teaching-Learning I</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Mathematics Teaching-Learning I</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Motor Physical Expression Teaching-Learning I</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.5</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Musical Expression Teaching-Learning I</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.5</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Health and First Aids</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Developmental Psychology</td>
<td>S2</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Portuguese Teaching-Learning II</td>
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<td>Mathematics Teaching-Learning II</td>
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<td>Motor Physical Expression Teaching-Learning II</td>
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<td>Musical Expression Teaching-Learning II</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Learning Psychology</td>
<td>S1</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Research in Education</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Physical and Social Environment Teaching-Learning I</td>
<td>S1</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Plastic Expression Teaching-Learning I</td>
<td>S1</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Drama Teaching-Learning I</td>
<td>S1</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Teaching Practice I</td>
<td>S1</td>
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<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Curriculum Theory and Development</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>Educational Sociology</td>
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<td>Physical and Social Environment Teaching-Learning II</td>
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<td>Teaching Practice II</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching Models, Methods and Techniques</td>
<td>S1</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Personal Development</td>
<td>S1</td>
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<td></td>
<td>School Administration and Management</td>
<td>S1</td>
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There was already explicitly a subject named “Curriculum Theory and Development” and another on “Teaching Models, Methods and Techniques”. And the Teaching-Learning term crossing all “scientific” disciplines was a trick to avoid the term Didactics, and aimed at a full integration of both theoretical-practical and scientific-pedagogical approaches. A struggle at the level of (scientific) power, reflected on the study pan, arose particularly in a small university fragmented into several Departments as it was the case of the University of Madeira (Fino & Sousa, 2003).

Later in this same year the INAFOP (National Institute for the Accreditation of Teacher Education) was created by the Decree-law nº 290/98, of 17th September, headed by Bártolo Paiva Campos, who launched the legal accreditation frame for study programmes of teacher education and the definition of the General and Specific profiles of professional performance of teachers of kindergarten and basic and secondary education. The articulation among the four components of education was recommended. This allowed us to create a component with the initials FADDE, meaning Education in the Area of Teaching and Specific Didactics (Formação na Área da Docência e da Didática Específica), congregating two components in one single subject.

When this study programme was submitted for review by the CAE (External Assessment Committee) in 2005 (the INAFOP was in the meantime extinguished in May 2002, under the XV Constitutional Government of Durão Barroso), it was the only one among seven programmes organized by universities to get the mention Excellent, in the field related to the “Study programme”. Yet again a matter of power rose according to my interpretation. The Committee was led by João Formosinho and integrated Maria do Céu Roldão, Isabel Lopes da Silva and Vítor Trindade, substituting Miguel Zabalza, all experts known in the area of Curriculum Studies.

The first decade of 21st century was in fact the flowering stage for the area of Curriculum in the University of Madeira, sharing the idea of reconceptualization already burst and developed abroad. Grounded on an Aggregation on Curriculum defended before a jury integrated by the most representative researchers of this area, it was possible to create a FCT Research Centre in Education (CIE-UMa) in 2003, with a research line in Curriculum.
A Doctoral programme in Education – Specialty of Curriculum was launched focusing on educational policy and critical and post-critical curriculum theories. William Pinar himself integrated the so-called CEPAC (Permanent External Committee of Scientific Advice) of CIE-UMa.

However by imperatives of the Bologna process and the publication of the legal regime of professional qualification for teaching in preschool, primary and secondary education (Decree-law nº 43/2007, of 22nd February), which obliged the reorganization of teacher education in two cycles, new study programmes had to be submitted to a prior accreditation, and at that time… Well! It was not possible to integrate the components of teacher education as we did in the past. Portuguese was Portuguese and Didactics was Didactics, even if we claimed that specialists had considered this idea brilliant.

According to the legislation, the 2nd cycle study programme in Pre-school and Primary Education of the University of Madeira, with a total of 90 ECTS (3 semesters), had to be designed with a component of General Education having between 5-10 credits (in which Curriculum subjects were supposed to be), and a component of Specific Didactics having between 25-30 credits. It was in fact the announcement of a new phase in the process of tension between Didactics and Curriculum, allowing the emergence of (scientific) power obviously granted to Didactics, under the supervision of the A3ES (Agency for Evaluation and Accreditation of Higher Education). In addition, if this ratio was already meaningful in terms of unbalance, the publication of the Decree-law nº 79/2014, of 14th May, extending the duration of that Professionalizing Master to 2 years, corresponding to 120 ECTS, even more dangerously affected this ratio, reorganising the distribution of credits among the components of teacher education. Reducing General Education to a minimum of 6 credits, the balance of power hung clearly over Specific Didactics with a minimum of 36 credits.

To end the description, I can say that at the present moment teacher education in Portugal is becoming more and more didactized, being the A3ES the guardian of the area of Didactics, under the leadership of António Cachapuz, Expert in Didactics of Physics and Didactics of Sciences of the University of Aveiro. The team who visited the University of Madeira for the first evaluation of the cited programme was constituted of three members, two of them integrating the same research unit focused on Didactics: the CIDTFF of Aveiro, while the third one was Spanish. No one doubts that the great care with teaching methodologies manifested by the A3ES has made scientific departments of the University of Madeira look differently, with more respect, at these areas of knowledge. On the other hand however, and at the same time, the Agency has been withdrawing the reflexive, critical and political influence of Curriculum on teacher education.

As no longer Curriculum Development and much less General Didactics, Curriculum is a real menace to top-down directives (“teaching and not thinking”). Is Curriculum guilty or not guilty? Is it sentenced to death?

References


Social and personal curriculum impact
Mapping the city – opportunities for curriculum in urban educational contexts

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Serrano, Ana M. (serrano@ie.uminho.pt); University of Minho, Portugal

Mapping the city is a plural research project that aims to answer to the multiple opportunities for learning, suitable of contemporary societies, helping to promote the development of collective knowledge. It is a project that uses technology of intangible to make tangible the concept of creative and innovative city in curriculum in urban educational contexts.

This project aims to develop approaches that can enable the development of spaces of continuous discovery and co-responsible training and lifelong learning. These spaces will enable all citizens to be active players in their own development processes which will be innovative and creative in order to meet the challenges of the twenty-first century.

These approaches formalize the methods and processes needed to develop spaces that are able to provide citizens with the location and characteristics of learning environments, formal, informal and non-formal, within the city. These spaces should give citizens of all ages and social conditions the harmonization of local cultures, in time, with the prospect of a globalize world in Europe. The challenges of rapid social and economic change should be considered by the approaches advocated within this project, enabling people with different needs and based upon those needs, develop essential skills for flexible adaptation, critical and innovative competencies.

The focus of the project will be the developing of a map that identifies the entities/potential educational/training of the city, directly and indirectly related to professional education and training. This map will enhance the four essential dimensions of the project intervention: culture, technology, education/training and inclusion. A city map will be built that will illustrate a case of how this project proposes to overcome the multiplicity of agents that hinder the use of technology in education/training in the city, and contributes to improve the national education system and training (ET and EU 2020), enriching and creating a space of learning opportunities within curriculum in urban education. Its implementation will use the most advanced Information Technology and Communications, including web technologies and social service-oriented (service-oriented architecture and cloud computing). Based on this technological infrastructure, the city map will be supported by a multilingual platform. The study will use a participatory action research methodology which will promote reflective and critical construction of knowledge by all stakeholders (cluster of schools, enterprises, local development association). The expected results of the project are: Development of a multilingual platform; A reference model for elaborating the city map (guide for multilingual platform instantiation of the reality city); Development of a learning community of teachers/trainers/learners/employers partners of different contexts, for the construction of professional empowerment and active and creative citizenship; Development of core research groups for intervention and mediation, instigating and challenging, in order to create the conditions for reflection, for the dynamics of a multilingual platform and for the construction of knowledge in order to map and monitor the city; Elaboration and implementation of monitoring devices for continuous and periodic assessment of processes/outcomes.
**Keywords:** Curriculum, learning community, technology in education/training, lifelong learning, enabling people

**Key idea**

The creative interaction between Education/Training and Quality of Life generates a process of reciprocity which promotes a smart sustainability (an intelligent sustainability with a smart local curriculum) that gives raise the Creative City. This is the motor of the Urban Education – Intervention and investigation with/in the city.

The Creative City is a space capable of generating educational proposals, which influence the configuration of the city as well as how to live in it, in order to empower its inhabitants to promote lifestyles and life conditions to construct sustainable cities (Viana, 2015).

**Vision**

- Reply to education/training through an innovative performance of the institutions – placing the digital resources to emancipate learning in the century XXI (Weiser, 1991) – the learning of future - promote the learning relations oriented towards work;

- Projecting and support the learning spaces – problematize the education that cities wants;

- Create spaces that represent different learning styles, needs and interests of learners – customize the education/training, engagement with the learning spaces;

- Generate possibility and visibility of the choice – what they learn, how they learn, when and where they learn – learn between institutions and beyond institutional walls; – learn with different people and organizations in search the specialized Knowledge – The ICT to enable the learners to have access/visibility from the place where they are (Viana & Machado, 2011).

- Leverage the education/training through the exploitation of ICT (Viana & Machado, 2011):

  - Supports the development of the city, the quality of life in the city
  - Emancipates the idea of creative education in the innovative city
  - Promotes a communicative approach between the city and education/training – the urban environment as essential content the education/training – integrated perspective of lifelong learning
  - Becomes an inclusive city – approaches the education /training to the Citizens of all ages and social conditions – living the difference, equality of opportunities
  - Highlights the city as an environment that learn and enables learning – construction of meaning of who we are and what we want to be ways of creative learning in the city – what to learn, with whom, for what, when, where to learn?
What is the "educative profile" of the city that proposes itself as creative – "educative morphology" of the city

**Talent/Performance + Active Citizenship + ICT**

**Sustained Intelligence** – oriented to an urban educative policy, competitive and innovative.

**Creative Exploration of ICT** (Landry, 2009) – implicative form to respond to different social and institutional groups – catalyzes alternatives of development, education and training (smart local curriculum).

- **To know the representations** of the population about what the city offers;
- **Doing diagnostic** of needs – characterize the educative reality of the city;
- **Involve the local policy makers** (Vilar, 2007);
- To make the offers visible and promote the shared participation for all.

- **Generate a standard action model** that allows to be adapted by other cities, countries – transfer of the idea, process;
- **Making the processes universal** – to explore the specificity of the city to allow transferability – generate processes that enable developing similar processes without mischaracterize the specificity of the cities;
- **Develop a collaborative space** (Hargreaves, 2003) – to know the perceptions about the city, what is suggest as being good to live in the city, what is the city, what do you want for the city, what you do in the city, what you think should have, how do you think it can be possible to make it accessible and visible for all.
- A tool capable the instigating the reflection about the development of the education/training in the city – lifelong learning – generates a process of self-regulation (Freire, 1982) – continued feedback

- Values the knowledge (Young, 2010), the professional development, a lifelong perspective – takes intelligent technologies as emancipatory communication strategy - reciprocal development of the city and the citizen – a way of investing/developing on people and developing the cities/countries.

- Implication/immersion in the territory (Gregòri, 2005), intervene/act in the potential of the educative map/training of the creative city - generating groups/multidisciplinary teams for develop methodological resources, tools, processes;

- Frame in the parameters of development of the city - a view of the city.
The city government assumes principal responsibility – organizes the education in the municipality (Trilla, 2005) – gives an account of the different dimensions of education, redistribution of resources – is a power over the education – identifies, analyzes, optimizes and proposes the educative processes;

The creative education as device of city development – development based in civil society participation in the project (Dewey, 2002);

Studying the behavior of institutions/educational space/training – highlights the relevance of the competencies of citizens – employer/entrepreneurial dimension, innovative, inter-institutional communication;

The urban requalification and the quality of life of citizens, social inclusion, the valuing of urban identity – valuing the city’s image for residents and visitors.
The Project

Objectives

- To develop the educational/training map of the creative and innovative city in each partner’s country – “educational map” understood as the agents inventory and distribution in the territory (institutions, equipment, ...) that have (or could have) an educational projection on its citizens;

- To generate a roadmap for action, method and materials which can be transferred to other cities;

- To contribute to develop and disseminate a culture of collaboration within dialogue (no boundaries), through ICT, while an environment/context/professional tool of active citizenship, for the development of sustainable intelligence;

- To contribute to generate a glocal learning community of teachers, trainers, learners, employers and policy maker;

- To enhance the unique needs of learners in diverse contexts;

- To promote the use of technologies for digital interaction (HCI, usability, web2.0) to build relational spaces and stimulate and facilitate generational and inter-generational plural dialogue (Fernandes, Machado & Carvalho, 2011);

- To develop the concept of educational/training map of the creative and innovative city as a motor of sustained social, economic and territorial cohesion, able to promote the development of sustainable intelligence for the wellbeing of its citizens.
- **The map includes both formal and informal agencies** [the idea of "architecture" of the map will be developed according to taxonomies capable of dealing with the action and with the specificity of the different entities (institutions, work-related spaces, with leisure activities, with special needs education, with culture, and sporting venues)];

- **the study develops content, gets specific results for each context/city, but the procedures, tools/materials can be transferred and adapted to other cities, other contexts** (sharing, dissemination will be made through a multilingual ubiquitous platform);

- **Multilingual ubiquitous platform** (in the language of all partners);

- **Reference model for elaborating the city map** (guide for multilingual ubiquitous platform instantiation of the reality of each city) – **Reference model for build the city map** (guide for multilingual ubiquitous platform instantiation of the reality of each city);

- **Creation of a learning community** of teachers/trainers/learners/employers partners of different contexts, for the construction of professional empowerment and active and creative citizenship;

- **Promoting a culture of collaboration networks through Europeanization** of dialogue education / training, taking advantage of web technologies;

- **Creation of core groups of research and intervention and mediation** (based in the universities of the different partners), **instigating and challenging in order to create the conditions for reflection**, for the **dynamics of multilingual ubiquitous platform** and the **construction of knowledge mapping and monitoring** in the city / country and between cities / partners;

- **Elaboration and implementation of monitoring devices and continuous and periodic assessment of processes and outcomes** (forums, questionnaires ...);

- Development of an **online publication** about the problems and challenges of lifelong learning, contributing to the construction and **dissemination of knowledge** in this field.
Every map that identifies the entities/potential educational/training of the city will match the main *glocal* communication device. Its implementation will use the most advanced Information Technology and Communications, including web technologies and social service-oriented (service-oriented architecture and cloud computing). Based on this technological infrastructure, each city map will be supported by a multilingual ubiquitous platform;

- This multilingual ubiquitous platform will respond, in an integrated manner, to the different needs of trainers/learners/employers at different stages of education/training, as a particular support to fulfil the potential educational/training;

- It aims to continuously construct, in a participated and shared manner, the sustainable development of intelligence, characterized by the ability of every citizen to identify and develop skills necessary for his/her well-being, creative and active participation in citizenship, inclusion and employability in a knowledge society, within a perspective of lifelong learning;

- It also aims to be itself a process capable of providing policy-makers (local, national, European), trainers, teachers, learners, employers with a global space (local, national, European) transparent common objectives in the Community action plan in regard to programs, strategies regarding education and training;

- The platform will be able to support the interaction between communities of different cities, implementing an approach to the Europeanization of education / training dialogue.

**Final Remarque**

*Mapping the city*: opportunities for curriculum in urban educational contexts gives you a deeper understanding of critical social, cultural, economic, political, legal, and policy issues in education – nationally and internationally, and in urban and non-urban contexts. You’ll be prepared for our World, our Dignity, our Future (2015, slogan of the European Year for Development). It puts the value of content / educational discussion in the living space.

**References**


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Despacho Normativo n.º 13-A/2012, de 5 de junho, visa estabelecer os mecanismos de exercício da autonomia pedagógica e organizativa de cada escola e harmonizá-la com os princípios consagrados no regime jurídico de autonomia, administração e gestão dos estabelecimentos públicos da educação pré-escolar e dos ensinos básico e secundário.


Web:

2015 – Ano Europeu para o Desenvolvimento: o nosso mundo, a nossa dignidade, o nosso futuro

European Commission Education & training http://ec.europa.eu/education/index_en.htm

Europe 2020: a strategy for European Union growth

OCDE 1999 Managing National Innovation Systems

Prevention of gender violence in kindergarten: A look from curriculum studies

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In the curriculum there is a need to create spaces and moments in the school for citizenship development of students fulfilling one of its main dimensions, educate for a global citizenship which necessarily includes gender violence prevention (Torney-Punta, 2004). Gender and domestic violence are a worrying social problem, with its patriarchal culture, in which distinct roles in society are distinctively attributed to men and women, namely the association of men with aggressiveness and strength, and, in counterpart, women as sensible and affectionate (Barry & Barry, 1976).

Several studies provided evidence of how kindergarten is crucial for children’s sex-role attitudes (Barry & Barry, 1976), Similarly, domestic and gender violence functions as double jeopardy for children in school (Silverstein, Augustyn, Cabral & Zuckerman, 2006), what demands an active role for educators concerning children’s rights and the primary prevention of gender and domestic violence. Although it is not yet established that primary prevention will have an impact in lifelong terms, many authors and educators agree on the relevance of working in pre-schools many of the topics related with gender and domestic violence, in a positive way adequate to age and development of the children.

The main purpose of the Project Art’Themis - UMAR is to promote gender equality and preventing gender violence, changing beliefs and attitudes towards girls and women, and other discriminated social groups, confronting prejudices like misogyny, sexism, racism and homophobia. The development of the Project consists in the implementation of fifteen sessions along the school year where the opinions and life stories shared by the children have significant place, in a way they can take the leading role in their processes of change, using artistic tools (Magalhães, Canotilha & Brasil, 2007). The Programme of UMAR has been applied to several schools since 2004 (Magalhães, Canotilha & Ribeiro 2010). Also Diana Costa (2013 applied a primary prevention programme in a primary school, but preschool children seem to have not been targeted in prevention of gender violence.

We introduced a pilot project since October 2014 in the kindergarten, applied in a group of children between the ages of 4, 5 and 6, in an Oporto school, implementing sessions with the objective of developing their self-esteem, a sense of pleasure of being who they are, how to respect differences, to recognize strategies for problem resolution in peaceful ways, and develop values, attitudes and build affectionate relationships based in peace and respect. Amongst the themes are emotional literacy, the perception of diverse types of families, and the importance of communication.

We also work more specifically the social attribution of gender roles throughout discussion, role play and artistic expression using drawings, arts and crafts, animated cartoons, children’s books, educational and playground games. In this paper, we aim to present the preliminary findings of the kindergarten pilot implementation, discussing the pedagogical strategy used, following the debate of Teresa Vasconcelos (2011) about “project work” in kindergarten. The methodology will be the reflective analysis provided by and throughout an action-research based project in schools (Barbier & Fourcade 2008).
Keywords: Kindergarten; Children; Prevention; Citizenship; Art; Gender Equality

Introduction
The school is a socialization space for children where they relate to their peers and where they are building their gender. In this sense, the school emerges as the driving Education for Citizenship promoting reflective character on social and cultural issues such as Gender Equality.

The project "Art'Temis" of NGO UMAR develops an innovative methodology that utilizes artistic devices as a pedagogical tool to change behaviour and children attitudes, so that they create their own change, thus becoming the leading roles of its intervention.

Several authors argue that the prevention of Gender Violence should start early. Therefore, the "Art'Temis" in the school year 2014/2015 created a pilot project in Portugal that consisted in developing themes related to promoting Gender Equality in a Kindergarten with children with 4, 5 and 6 years.

This article explains the methodology developed and the project pedagogy based on its action-research.

Pedagogical methodologies for preventing gender violence in kindergarten
The school as a place of socialization of children and youth is a context marked by contradictions, conflicts and divergence of interests since it is present a diversity of backgrounds, cultures and sexual orientations (Magalhães, Canotilho & Ribeiro, 2010).

It is therefore necessary to develop a curriculum that includes education for citizenship, creating spaces and moments in which students reflect on their identities and on social and cultural issues, where is included the prevention of gender violence (Tourney-Punta, 2004).

In Portugal, gender inequality is still very visible, in a patriarchal and sexist culture that is strongly marked by gender stereotypes that "(...) have been legitimise the supremacy of men compared to women in the most diverse domains of social life" (Costa, 2013: 16) and gives the man the characteristics of force and aggression and in contrast women are considered sensitive and affectionate (Barry & Barry, 1976).

Gender as a concept in social sciences refers to a set of beliefs and behaviours about social and cultural roles that society assigns to men and women defending "(...) discrimination and devaluation of women and feminine, conducting to the symbolic foundation for tolerance to domestic and gender violence" (Magalhães, Canotilho & Ribeiro, 2010: 168). Such violence is recognized as a social construction of power that maintains prejudice and stereotypes and that perpetuates the naturalized and entrenched inequalities in Portuguese society.

In this regard, education has a key role in building an inclusive society where difference and diversity are seen as something positive and the man and the woman share same rights.

Early intervention with children is crucial so that the differences are respected as well as preventing violence and reducing existing gender inequalities are effective. As Magalhães et al refer, prevention in schools are relevant
"(...) in the preparation of citizens for a world with greater equality in what respect for women and the appreciation of their contribution and participation take place" (2007: 63).

Another reason for the need for an early intervention with children is that "(...) in pre-school age children already label and categorize different activities in terms of gender (Fagote et. al. 1992 quoted by Sroufe)" (Silva et al. 1999: 11), that is to say, children already learn to distinguish the different social roles ascribed to the feminin and masculine sex in their forms of family and professional participation.

Children aged 3 and 4 years old already act according to its gender and so "The boys engage in more physical and “violent” games and prefer group activities more often than girls, who show preference for caring for babies and play with only one child at a time" (Silva et al, 1999: 12). When 4 and 5 years old, children have more general ideas about gender and begin to internalize gender stereotypes, preferring jokes considered appropriate to their gender, already choose alleged masculine and feminine colours and already have an idea of the careers they want on the basis of their genderization.

In the 21th century, we witnessed the emergence of new challenges for the feminist movement. Going back to the decades of 1960-90 of the 20th century, social movements known as feminist movements of the second wave, denounced gender inequality and discrimination and campaigning for protection rights against gender violence. They showed how this oppression was linked to gender stereotypes related to the body, sexuality and reproduction, claiming the same rights for women in an equal basis of those of men: in the workplace, access to education, in the family, and political participation in all power structures (Silva, 2002: 17). Drawing attention to the gender stereotypes, they challenged the social construction of masculinity and femininity as an opposed binary.

The Association of Women and Alternative and Answer was created in 1976, after the Democratic Revolution in the 25th of April 1974, and its aims are to struggle against women’s discrimination as well as against all forms of violence and oppression against women. Following this, UMAR is a Non-Governmental Feminist Organization that intervenes in the defence and promotion of Women's Rights and Gender Equality. Their work is developed in various areas of intervention such as: gender equality, gender violence and social, cultural and political intervention.

UMAR has an extensive experience in the field of primary prevention in school context, because, since 2004, has been developing sessions in Portugal to promote gender equality with children and young people. In the area of intervention with victims of domestic violence, has service centers and shelters around the country.

The main purpose of the Project Art’Themis - UMAR is to promote gender equality and preventing gender violence, changing beliefs and attitudes towards girls and women, and other discriminated social groups, confronting prejudices like misogyny, sexism, racism and homophobia. The development of the Project consists in the implementation of fifteen sessions along the school year where the opinions and life stories shared by the children have significant place, in a way they can take the leading role in their processes of change, using artistic tools (Magalhães, Canotilho & Brasil, 2007). The Programme of UMAR has been applied to several schools since 2004 (Magalhães, Canotilho & Ribeiro 2010). Also Diana Costa (2013) applied a primary prevention programme in a primary school, but preschool children seem to have not been targeted in prevention of gender violence.

Art’Themis introduced a pilot project since October 2014 in the kindergarten, applied in a group of children aged 4, 5 and 6 years old, in an Oporto school, implementing sessions with the objective of developing their self-esteem, a
sense of pleasure of being who they are, how to respect differences, to recognize strategies for problem resolution in peaceful ways, and develop values, attitudes and build affectionate relationships based in peace and respect. Amongst the themes are emotional literacy, the perception of diverse types of families, and the importance of communication.

We also work more specifically the social attribution of gender roles throughout discussion, roleplay and artistic expression using drawings, arts and crafts, animated cartoons, children’s books, educational and playground games.

Several studies provided evidence of how kindergarten is crucial for children’s sex-role attitudes (Barry & Barry, 1976). Similarly, domestic and gender violence functions as double jeopardy for children in school (Silverstein, Augustyn, Cabral & Zuckerman, 2006), which demands an active role for educators concerning children’s rights and the primary prevention of gender and domestic violence. Although it is not yet established that primary prevention will have an impact in lifelong terms, many authors and educators agree on the relevance of working in pre-schools many of the topics related with gender and domestic violence, in a positive way adequate to age and development of the children.

The kindergarten should promote personal and social education of children, since it is a socialization space that encourages the inclusion of children in various social and cultural groups and more widen, holding different characteristics of the family environment (Silva et al., 1999). Child builds her/his gender identity in family and in educational context, which highlights the relevance of the intervention in one of the first learning processes made in the peer group.

Kindergarden intervention should combine their practices already established with "(...) teaching about the diversity and equal opportunities, the parity between sexes, the diversity of cultures, the social responsibility of each person to promote a more democratic and integrative society" (Cardona et al, 2010: 59). Thereby developing a joint curriculum with the explicitness and clarity of some contents usually included in the "hidden curriculum", will lead to an "integrated intervention", borrowing the Bernstein’s concept of integrated curriculum (Bernstein, 2003; Rennie, Venville & Wallace 2012). Therefore, it is necessary to find time in the activities developed with children to work through the issues of citizenship and equality.

Consequently, it is necessary to develop the project methodology that requires the involvement of all the participants and "(...) contributes to learning processes with significance, carrying meaning, involving children (or adults) in real problem solving or in search of unknown answers" (Vasconcelos, 2011: 9). This methodology, even though flexible, have in mind the sequential and consistency (Costa, 2013), important theoretical principles in curriculum theory (Alonso, 1998). It also always bears in mind that the issues must always be well articulated and so that learning is significant, the child can not be considered a "lone scientist", "(...) but an 'explorer', an investigator, an active creator of knowledge in alternative of being a passive receiver of knowledge of others." (Vasconcelos, 2011: 9)

In this way, the project also proposes a focus on heterogeneous or intergenerational groups (Vasconcelos, 2011). The adult is always a process facilitator but, along with children, is also a researcher and an actor, being an collective-researcher (Barbier & Fourcade, 2008), since "[c]ollective participation does not exist without Research-Action" (Barbier & Fourcade, 2008: 3). Thus, collective investigator is an autonomous entity and author of practice
and speech exercising different roles in moments of action and reflection, articulating research and intervention, closely combining theory and practice. Action-research seeks to raise awareness of the facts, always involving the duality between thinking and doing. In this sense, trying to solve problems in order to provide a space for participants to assert themselves as agents of change in their lives either personal or social change, inscribes themselves in the main purpose of the Action-Research.

The Project Art'Themis of UMAR develops its sessions through art, since, to be meaningful learning, along with pedagogical tools that help children develop their cognitive abilities and their creative and reflective skills (Higenbottam, 2008).

“The arts should be supported not only because research supports their value but also because they are as dynamic and broad-based as more widely accepted disciplines. They contribute to the development and enhancement of multiple neurobiological systems, including cognition, emotional, immune, circulatory, and perceptual motor systems” (Anderson, Welch & Becker, 2004: 18).

Therefore, are used artistic tools to promote children's creativity enhancing personal autonomy and a critical spirit, allowing them to understand themselves through your body and artistic expression. The arts provide a unique pathway to self-knowledge and represents a way of building healthy respect for others and for self. (Anderson, Walch & Becker, 2004) “The assumption of arts programs for at-risk youth is, ultimately, to learn from that wisdom and generate new understanding for the benefit of the future” (Anderson, Walch & Becker, 2004:20).

Based on these principles, the sessions are spaces where are valued the ideas and experiences of each child, which makes the methodology of this project innovative.

Conclusion

The school is a context in which socially constructed representations are present in the classroom as well as in the pedagogical relationship. As stated by Magalhães et al., "Over the years the school has been considered a privileged reproductive spot of gender asymmetries, but at the same time, is seen as an important place to promote interventions and significant changes" (2007: 53).

Primary prevention plays a key role in promoting gender equality, since systematic sessions are developed based on the project methodology and allow the participants to reflect from their experiences and realities on gender representations that are rooted in Portuguese culture. In this sense, the methodology of the project "Art'Themis" is innovative as it uses art as a pedagogical tool for reflection and discussion of these issues that are present in their lives.

The Kindergartens are contexts that transmit values, attitudes and behaviours that influence the child development in relation to conceptions of gender roles. All these behaviour and values transmissions cause the school to take ",(…) an active role in building identities, using stereotypical messages about each sex possibilities and constraints available" (Carrito and Araújo, 2013: 144).

With this pilot project, "Art'Themis" aimed to use this context of socialization for children to reflect and understand that all people are different and it is not the sex or gender that defines what one likes, not even the games that should play, or the colours they should use, or careers they want to develop in the future.
Thus, Kindergarten was a space in which children have developed conceptions of equality, respect and self-esteem to be able to grow without constraints set by gender roles.

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**Immigrants’ families in United States with school-age children returned to Portugal**

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The study will focus on three northern immigrants’ families in United States with school-age children returned to Portugal. The choice to inquire families connected by the continuum historic Portuguese landmark of migration (Solar & Villaba, 2007) was to (re)collect the shared story of who come to be simultaneously local and global. They talk about overcoming obstacles, integration and mobility in the “hybrid” society that they dwell and call “home.” Telling stories is a natural part of life and all humans have stories about their experiences to communicate to others. The research puzzle focuses on the phenomenon of migration and everydayness family life bounded with school. This text intertwines curriculum place with migrant families and school (Amthor, 2013; Gjoaj, Zinn and Nawyn, 2013; Sallaf, 2013; Whitlock, 2007). Metaphorically writing each individual is an island belonging or urging to (be)long to a place. Skin, a versatile barrier that keeps in touch the brain with the outside world allowing an endless conversation between the inner self and the places we inhabit. According to Whitlock (2007) “place is a curriculum landscape that brings the particularistic into focus by allowing us to examine ourselves […]: we can see ourselves as subjects within a particular setting” (p. 46). In this narrative inquiry (Amado, 2013; Clandinin & Connelly, 1991/2000, Clandinin 2013; Creswell, 2008; He & Phillion, 2008; Merriam, 2009), stories assumed different forms that were oral, written, drawn, or painted. The stories (Clandinin & Rosiek, 2007) were the milieu that provided the way of thinking about an experience and a (con)text to the production of knowledge. It is therefore important the triangulation of the different field texts sources taken into consideration for the writing of the narrative to reflect the authenticity of the multiplicity of voices heard and words written, as well as the multiple ways of viewing the world. Knowing that the essence of a narrative study is an intrusion in the family’s life, the questioning about power related tensions (Ludhra & Chappel, 2011) allowed the researchers to keep decisions co-composed. In this project, the researchers encountered participants that were willing to share their daily school life in the United States and Portugal and keen to find solutions for the challenges that emerged in their family daily life due
to migration. We discovered in the individual family stories that the dual role of being a child and also a student bound the school ambiance to their family shared story. The major concern of these three families were not the policies on education but the way school everydayness blurred and changed their daily family lives. The key lies in a curriculum that allows each "place" to expresses itself from a past legacy inherited through self-cultivation, self-reflective, self-regeneration creates a “island” of knowledge where the “trees” are information, the “fruit and flowers” are meaning and the “seeds” are wisdom. School is a sum of multiple “places”. We should not be afraid to look into a story and ask: “What does it mean to exist within (home)places?”

**Keywords:** families, school, migration, curriculum of place

**Introduction**

McNeils (2006) wrote “[t]he fashion in curriculum research is now moving away from the search for broad generalizations and abstract principles of guiding practice. […] Narratives, qualitative inquiry in school settings, […] are prominent approaches at local level” (p.336). In this narrative inquiry (Clandinin & Connelly, 1991/2000, Clandinin 2013; Creswell, 2008; He & Phillion, 2008; Merriam, 2009), the collection of useful, rich and in-depth field texts came from tree northern families with school-age children, connected by the continuum historic Portuguese landmark of migration (Casa-Nova, 2005; Matias, 2014; Solar & Villaba, 2007). We should not forget that migration is an ongoing phenomenon of the Portuguese history since the end of fifteen century. At the turn of the millennium there has been an increase in the number of the Portuguese abroad. The Emigration Report (Relatório da Emigração) of 2013 regarding the migratory phenomenon confirmed shifts in terms of its sociological evolution. For the present study we will highlight just two of the seven cited: the migration of a significant number of workers with higher academic qualifications and the emigration of the entire family, including a significant number of children in school age. Reinforcing what Gjoaj, Zinn and Nawyn (2013) claimed, migration “cannot be disconnected from family processes” (p.292). Data from that document shows that in 2010, the Portuguese represented 1% of the total number of emigrants, a percentage seven times greater than the weight of the population of Portugal in the total world population (0.16%). Suárez-Orozco & Sattin (2007) wrote “[w]anted: Global Citizens” (p.58). To find the global citizens we need to join to the reflection curriculum and schooling. Whitlock argues

“[c]urriculum and schooling - like living a life- do not take place in isolation, but in every day. Students and teachers are who we are in large part because of where we are; we are shaped by place; we believe, behave, speak and desire in place; we interact with each other in place” (2007, p. 44).

For people to be global first they need to allow their selves to be at a permeable transformative place. Lived experience occurs in a specific sociospatial place. Pires et al (2014) statistical report of 2014 about Portuguese Emigration distinguishes three sets of emigrational countries. We will focus in the first set, the American continent (Brazil, Canada, U.S.A. and at a reduced scale Venezuela), countries with a significant volume of Portuguese aged emigrate population and in decline due to the substantial reduction of emigration from Portugal. Paraphrasing Pires et al (2014) report between 2000 and 2013 the Portuguese entries in that country had a negative average growth of 2.7%. In 2000, they entered approximately 1,300 Portuguese in the USA and in 2013 about 900 (918). In 2013 the Portuguese entries constituted 0.1% of the total number of entries in this country. The United States is now the
ninth country where more Portuguese emigrate to. The Portuguese are a minority among the foreign-born residing in the United States: 0.4%. However the United States continues to be the third country in the world were more Portuguese emigrants live.

The choice to inquire families was to (re)collect the shared story of those who come to be simultaneously local and global. In this context we share Boehm et al (2011) endeavor that it “should be focused on coming to know how people of any age encode the world in their negotiations of external and internal forces” (p.18). They talk about overcoming obstacles, integration and mobility in the “hybrid” society that they dwell and call “home.” In this narrative inquiry, stories can assume different forms that may be oral, written, drawn or painted, and all humans have stories about their experiences to communicate to others. As Clandinin & Rosiek (2007) wrote, a story “is a portal through which a person enters the world and by which their experience of the world is interpreted and made personally meaningful” (p.38). One of the researchers had known the three families during their stay in the United States and noted that the conversations converge to one recurrent concern; school. However, the step forward to initiate the relationship researcher-families only took place after their return to Portugal. As pointed by Amthor (2013)

“the dynamics of migration in globalization have promote attention outside the initial destination country. This implies an increased need to examine the process of return migration and how educational institutions respond to the complex situations of educating nationals who are, in fact, immigrants in their own countries and experience difficulties in transitioning to their ‘home’ country” (p.406).

Without forgetting the difficulties experienced and narrated by the families, this study tries to emphasize the positive characteristics of migrant family dynamics and educational environments – schools. Also, this text intertwines curriculum place with migrant families and school as a potential approach for understanding positive responses to the complex situation of the process of return. Therefore, the research puzzle focuses on the phenomenon of migration and everydayness family life bound with school.

As migrant families they are more aware of themselves than ever. In this state of being interpretation followed by reinterpretation allows enlightening, a comprehension of the inherently social being which asks after its own being. The families no longer belongs to one country. They become citizens of “their world” and their stories belong to the “hybrid” world. Humans were always story tellers and families’ share memories of solitude among others. “Memory as a place, as a building, as a sequence of columns, cornices, porticoes. The body inside the mind, as if we were moving around in there, going from one place to the next, and the sound of our footsteps as we walk, moving from one place to the next.” (Auster, 1992, p.79) People can live a thousand adventures, unravel mysteries, live happily ever after, endure tempests, tedious days or merely die. How to narrate a life story? Thereafter was silence. As the child grows it turns to “memory: the space in which a thing happens for the second time” (Auster, 1992, p. 81). No subject should be erased from the collective memory rather than being treated as information by the “school deform” (Pinar, 2012, p.31). It should be regarded as a possibility a move forward for active learners to scope in deep thought and gain awareness, both of social and cultural reality and their ability to transform social reality. I share Pinar (2012) faith that schools “can be indispensable in educating the public to understand its history and analyze its present circumstances” (p. 122). Metaphorically writing, imagine an island with a tower mill as a public school, where the wind unsets and unravels moods. The “seeds” of “wisdom” are being smashed in tiny pieces
creating an interdisciplinary curriculum. Even they, in their wisdom, struggle for equilibrium. If it is too windy, the tower mill cannot operate the sail and the sailbar may be destroyed. Curriculum theory is far from being a peaceful territory. For families a casual reading about curriculum can lead to conflicting messages. They have the idea that it is rapidly changing, new programs in Portuguese language, mathematics, science education, vocational courses and training models. But families also get the idea by watching their children/students courses of study, textbooks, lessons, and written tests that schools remain unchanged, teaching the same subjects in the same familiar way.

One explanation, according to McNeil (2006) “is that there is a curriculum of rhetoric, official proclamations, and a curriculum of practice behind the classroom door” (p.91). In Portugal we have centralized educational system where the Ministry of Education has authority over curriculum sets of goals. When government changes, due to elections, the curriculum planning policy varies every few years. However, McNeil (2006) notes “no curriculum derived from outside agencies is successful without teacher commitment” (p.91). Nevertheless schools are engaged in a responsible way to provide equal opportunities to all their students to prevail in the challenge of what needs to be taught and how. In spite of the imposed curriculum, there is always space to adapt the students’ areas of interests and to implement the goals of curriculum in order to reflect the society needs, where the school is included. Suárez-Orozco & Sattin alerts “[b]ut for the most part, schools today are out of sync with the realities of a global world” (2007, p. 58). In the global world also, symbolically called the “global educator city” (Fernandes, 2011, p.32) deciding what should be taught, how, for how long and to whom a matter which challenges schools attention presently. Imagine now a tower mill, where there is no wind to smash the “seeds” of “wisdom” but the ground beneath has blooming “flowers” that bring new “meanings” about being shaped by place. Understanding where we are, learning and learners has become a matter of survival not only for curriculum builder but also for schools. The Ministry of Education in the Recomendação n.º2/2015, is concerned about the fact that every year more than 150,000 students, of the Portuguese educational system, are giving up on their process of learning and failing in the same grade. Students fail, particularly in the early years of schooling, do not improve their academic achievements and they are more likely to stay farther and farther behind his/her peers. There is also, according to the document, an association between school failure, increased levels of demotivation, indiscipline and school dropout. This document uncovers a restlessness that brings new guidelines, new perspectives and a rethinking of what it means to be in interaction with each other in place and shaped by it.

How many of us behave as foreigners in school? The major problem in schools is that we are educated to be the center of the world, our world (Picp, 2009). “Today’s challenge is collaborating to solve global problems that spill over national boundaries” (Suárez-Orozco & Sattin, 2007, p. 60). In order to seek solutions we need to open ourselves to a different mindset allowing the educators to build a curriculum in tune with the “hybrid” world. In the community that the families belonged to, they started to see people like little islands surrounded by a sea of inanimate objects, nature, feelings or sensations. “Ruptures such as migration result in multiple and often contradictory emotional expression” (Boehm et al, 2011, p.14). Being a foreigner can not only make them feel completely lost, anxious, displaced, homesick, melancholy but also amazed. They were Portuguese but had incorporated fragments of a new culture. They had changed, some consciously but others seemed unaware of these transformations. The revelation happened when they returned to Portugal.

The key lies in a curriculum that allows each historical “place” to express itself from a past legacy. That through self-reflective, self-cultivation, self-regeneration creates a “island of knowledge” where the “trees” are information, the “flowers” are meaning and the “seeds” are wisdom. The wind unsets and unravels moods. School becomes a
space with permeable boundaries; our personal transformative place. When school becomes “homeplace[s]” (Whitlock, 2007, p.58) transformative conversations happen. We should not be afraid to look into the “mirror of identity” (Whitlock, 2007, p. 61) and ask: What does to exist within (home)place mean?

Families Narratives

Three immigrant northern families in the United States with school-age children, who returned to Portugal, were chosen due to the singularity that the proposal for mobility was presented by the company where they all work and migration emerged to them as a professional challenge. This was their first migratory experience and decided to do it as a family. They all went to the same Southern State in the U.S.A and lived in the same townhouse. They came to Portugal on holidays two to three times a year and stayed each time an average of two weeks. The children were all born in Portugal for the exception of Lopes's son who has dual nationality. The offspring attended first the American educational system and then the Portuguese system. They have become bilingual. According to Fiese and Sameroff (1999) point of view “[f]amily narratives move beyond the individual and deal with how the family makes sense of its world, expresses rules of interaction, and creates beliefs about relationships” (p. 3). Researchers tried from the family history scrapbook, which addresses migration, place and school, to co-compose an answer to the research puzzle.

Research path

The information gathered for this paper were selected from the families’ diaries (e.g. Chen & Chen, 2013), drawings (Creswell, 2008; Merriam 2009) and interviews (Amado, 2013; Creswell, 2008; Josselson, 2007; Merriam, 2009). The setting where the interviews took place was suggested by the families, their home. Justification - their children would feel more comfortable and quiet in a surrounding that they knew. Due to this, when the researchers entered their houses, observation brought in-depth of the everydayness. Creswell (2008) explains that “[e]ngaging in both roles [participant and non-participant] permits you to be subjectively involved in the setting as well as to see the setting more objectively” (p. 223). Therefore researchers adapted to situations as they happen in a continuous negotiation of the relationship established, and defined the moments of gathering the information, corroborating and validating it. The interviews began as semi-structured but ended as a dialogue respecting the way individuals structured their narratives within their family interactions. Respecting also, the family flexibility to “travel” between each other’s points of view. The act of storytelling reveals the family co-construction of what is narrated and disclosures the family relational world. The person who tells the story, does it not only for the researchers but to all the members of the family, including himself. Therefore, becomes an actor in his/her personal experience of the event involving everyone who listens to into the negotiation of the plot. Pinnegar & Daynes (2007) claims that “the use of the story, and a focus on a careful accounting of the particular are hallmarks of knowing in narrative inquiry” (p. 25). Aware of the dual role dilemma that the narrative researchers play within an intimate relationship with the participants and within a professional relationship with a scholarly community, ethical considerations were raised. The recognition of the existence of the dilemma and that the researchers of this study cannot solve the tensions created by it, outlined the ethical practice of this narrative inquiry (Josselson, 2007). Furthermore, the dilemma of the dual role arises from the scholarly obligation to produce an accurate, authentic report of field texts from what
has been learned. For a better understanding of “the power related tensions present in the research, and the need to explore ways of diffusing them” (Ludhra & Chappel, 2011, p.112), the researchers have recalled the ethical inquiry: “What is my relationship to the participants? Who benefits from this study? Who may be at risk in the context I am studying?” (p.113) Knowing that the essence of a narrative study is an intrusion in the family’s life, this questioning allowed the researchers to keep co-composed decisions. Summaries of general findings were made available to the families. The three families participated. The implementation of a participatory work and the triangulation of the different field text sources ensured that the (re)told narrative researchers reflected the multiplicity of possible meanings and pinpointed the dilemma and constrains of a relationship where multiple voices are heard and words written. Pinnegar & Daynes (2007), suggest “[w]hat distinguishes narrative inquiries is their desire to understand rather than control and predict the human world” (p. 30).

The Silva Family (pseudonym)

Migrated from April 2009 to April 2011. For Silva’s family mother migration came up at the age of thirty-two. She works in the Human Resources department of a company in Oporto, in the field of work psychology. She lived and studied in Oporto, having graduated in Psychology from University of Porto. The father, then thirty-seven years old, attended a bachelor in management and took time-out from his professional activity as a coordinator in a tennis school and went with the family to the United States. Currently immigrated since March 2015 in Qatar (for one year). The Silvas’ boy is nine years old, but was three at the time of migration. The fact of having been in transit originated the school trajectory represented in the Table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Educational Levels</th>
<th>System</th>
<th>Age</th>
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<td>Private System</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Day Care Center</td>
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<td>Kindergarten Elementary School</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3º Grade</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4º Grade</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 47: The Silva’s son educational path
The Mota Family (pseudonym)

Migrated from August 2010 to 2013. The father was fifty-four years old, has an industrial course and works as a general team leader. The mother lived and studied in the Oporto region, and attended the High School. At the age of forty-seven, interrupted the professional occupation to accompany her family to the United States. The son, twenty-seven, who completed the High School and attended School of Industrial Studies and Management of Vila do Conde, stayed in Portugal, having visited the family, once a year, during summer holidays. He works in the same company as his father. The daughter, five years old at the time of migration, is currently nine. Her educational path is shown in the Table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Educational Levels</th>
<th>System</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>Day Care Center</td>
<td>Private System</td>
<td>1 – 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Kindergarten Elementary School</td>
<td>Public System</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1º Grade</td>
<td>Public System</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2º Grade</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3º Grade</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>Elementary School</td>
<td>Public System</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3º Grade</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4º Grade</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 48: The Mota's daughter educational path

The Lopes Family (pseudonym)

Migrated from September 2009 to July of 2014. The Father was thirty-six having graduated in Electric Engineering from the University of Oporto and works as an engineer department manager in a factory in Oporto. The mother was thirty-nine having graduated in Chemistry from the University of Oporto and worked in Portugal as a teacher and in the U.S.A. as a laboratory technician. The daughter (table 43), nine months old at time of migration, is currently five. The son (table 49) was born in U.S.A. and when they came back to Portugal he was three years and a half.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Educational Levels</th>
<th>System</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>Day Care Center</td>
<td>Private System</td>
<td>5 – 9 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Day Care Center</td>
<td>Public System</td>
<td>9 months– 5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>Day Care Center</td>
<td>Private System</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 49: The Lopes's daughter educational path
Intertwines of words and voices of individual family stories

We have stories to tell and they become real when we voiced then. They live within us and silent alongside others. The stories about migration and everydayness family life bound with school were filled not only by the sound of voices and written words but also with smiles or laughter, pauses or silences, fragrances, moods, colors and with expressions of an inherited historical and cultural legacy. Pierre Bourdieu noted that “understanding is, in the first place, to understand the field in which we are active and against which we are active” (2005, p.15). Stories are, therefore, subjective by nature and an invitation to an exercise of self-reflexivity. Through the narration, researchers were allowed to enter their individual experiences, which were contextualized in an interactional space that is simultaneously personal and social and by remembering, relating and implying new possible experiences, families place a continuity in time to the subject-matter, unveiling a window to the individual dynamic understanding of the world. Families are not unitary settings (Gjokaj et al, 2013) they foster intimate relationships, share a path and significant life events. They make choices and decisions that may cause in each individual differential amounts of stress and tensions. As researchers, we intertwine their words and voices and found that the key component that induced change in these families, was the decision to migrate. Focusing in the school theme, researchers uncover that the (class)rooms or the playgrounds they dwell reveal intricate connections with the migratory process. The stories become the milieu for parents and their children/students to (un)wrap their curriculum place. We share Doll (2000) point of view “to have no stories, to lack memory, to have a mouth but no words is to keep oneself in a constant state of hunger” (p. xvii).

Parents (Con)text about Migration and School everydayness

The system of communication in an Elementary school between teacher and parent or educational carers in Portugal is similar to the one in the United States. The Silva’s family father describes in his personal reflections that this interaction takes place through meetings, in the case of a general information (beginning of the school year), or private meetings as far as student assessment is concerned. There is still the possibility for the parents, to schedule meetings with the class director within a time frame. In both countries, the Silva’s family father wrote, there are also student booklets that allow written communication/information between school and parents. In the United States schools proximities, there are policemen to control the speed of cars and allow children to crosswalk with security. The yellow school buses bring a distinctively color to mornings. In both personal reflections, the Silva and Mota families referred to the morning lessons ritual: silence in the school milieu and everyone sings the
American anthem. This practice demands punctuality and delays imply fines or volunteer service by the parents. In the Silva family, some personal notes referred that in their son’s class in order to facilitate the parents’ daily logistics it was established that all students should monthly take the lunch snacks for classmates. The Silva’s family father wrote: “It would be interesting to think about the effect that this measure had to ‘force’ every family or every student to think about the ‘other’, teaching habits of planning and respecting the monthly schedule of snacks.” Since the American school website got no information regarding this practice, and it was not mentioned by the other families, the researchers contacted telephonically the Silva’s mother family, who said they did not remember whether it was a pedagogical strategy implemented by the teacher or if it was defined by the school board. Although without knowing who implemented the pedagogical strategy they think it is a practice that can be applied in both societies because thinking about the “other” implies observation, understanding and belonging. Habits of planning the monthly schedule of school snacks implies the reinforcement of one’s sense of belonging. The reflection upon a practice made within (home)places allowed the family to feel grounded within a course of action of integrating their Portuguese culture in the process of living between curriculums. “One can make use of the richness of the original culture as one set of experiences, among many in everyday life, leading to an intercultural self” (Vieira & Trindade, p. 36).

For the Lopes family in search of a nursery school “It was a shock [referring to the USA]. It was a shock. [...] They had no dishes for the children to eat, so the food was on a board, from which they ate with their hands. They slept with the shoes in case of a possible fire, children would not be unprotected”. Speaking about the Portuguese nursery they said it was full of rules. They even joked about the Portuguese playground area that to fulfill the security regulation the tree garden has been substituted by a plastic one. For them the difficulty now is where are the boundaries to allow the children to express themselves freely. Suddenly, shades of danger emerge as an inherent part of the curriculum. In the “hybrid” society that they dwell and call “home” to be exposed or vulnerable is a constant shade in a pursuit to not lose oneself in the journey of self-discovery.

The Silva and Mota families shared that their students, both aged nine, experienced difficulties in the interpretation and in the production of written texts in the Portuguese school. The Lopes family daughter, aged six experienced the same problem. This observation allows a bridge to the questioning of Spring (2009):

“[f]or foreign-born immigrant children, a major issue is the possible differences between the educational systems in the country of origin and the host countries. Is it easy for the school-age child to make the transition into the school system of the new country? Is there a similarity in the curricula between the two nations? Has the child received an education in several other countries before arriving in the new host country? What are the language issues for the new immigrant child? Does the host country have educational provisions for helping immigrant children learn the language used in local schools?” (p.183).

The twist here is that these children are no longer foreign-born immigrants but Portuguese citizens, living in Portugal, who have experienced the phenomenon of mobility and because of that Portuguese has become their second language (Amthor, 2013). Although the families expressed their concerns directly to the director and teachers, and measures were implemented, families had to complement it by After School Programs and Speech Language Therapy to help their children overcome their difficulties. Families were proactive and creative in finding new solutions to increase the academic success of their children. The mother of the Mota family wrote: “Anyway, this is the country we are”. We the people. We the country. The families have adapted by listening to each other
and by choosing not one or the other culture but by synthesizing together both worlds. The transition between places brings a particular experience into focus amid a particular (back)ground. Therefore, this place specificity is a “curriculum landscape” (Whitcholck, 2007, p.46) where the families can see themselves as subjects in an endless conversation between the inner self and outside world.

P(r)ose of the Children

The children of the Silva and Mota, through drawings and notes, revealed that in the United States the school facilities were bigger in size and that in Portugal they had more recess time. They wrote that this allowed them to play and rest more. This inference is consistent with the parents’ opinion that the educational system in the United States had more rules. “I really liked that school [the Mota’s family mother reference to the U.S.A], their organization and caring towards the children, but with lots of discipline”. When the researchers look up photos of both schools, the children’s drawings were a reconstruction of the facades. As for the Portuguese school the Family Silva’s son drew a traditional classroom in Portugal and entitled it “My School”. He represented the desks in brown and the chalkboard in yellow. The Mota’s family daughter, for the Portuguese school, drew and painted a brown facade with a big round door but did not paint the sun. She drew but did not paint, for the United States school, the mascot, the hoisted flag and a female figure that awaited them. Yet the sun is in yellow. The Silva’s family son made a drawing of the condominium pool entitled “My school in the United States”. It’s a big blue pool and he ended his writing about school life affirming: “In the afternoon, I went with my parents to the pool”. In an email exchange, the Silva’s family mother explained that he really appreciated the time spent playing in the pool. It is encrypted in his United States memories. The Lopes’s family daughter drawing highlighted the American teacher wearing a colorful dress and behind her a small school building. She loved the “summer days” where they could play. She drew twice the Portuguese school. The first one was a small pink house with a smoky chimney. The second one an oversized grey school with little drawing inside. She describes: “In the room [for children aged five] I have two small fish, the moon and the star and every day a child shall be in charge of the room.”

The children used colors to express their experience about the school milieu. The Silva’s family choice of colors was all about his favorite Portuguese soccer team. Blue represents the primary color of the team player’s cloth, so he attributed to the Portuguese school. The second colors, lilac or white, went to the United States school. The Mota’s family daughter choice was brown for the cold weather she encountered in the Portuguese winter time. The white represents the good weather that allowed her to do lots of outside activities in the United States. For the Lopes’s family daughter “colors do not count.” She experiments with them all in order to paint the teacher’s dress. A personal choice engaged with emotions and belonging, an excellent metaphor of a democratic vision for education.

The choice of colors, the personal reflections and the drawings reveal a deeper understanding of the experience of migration and school. Referring to the United States school, the Mota’s family daughter wrote: “In school everything was different”. The student population comes from different countries and to foster respect for all its different cultural customs and to inform about the national flags of each country, the Elementary School, in 2012, with each class, participated in the “Parade of Nations”. In this parade, each participant carried a flag and in the end, presented a tribute to their country, in the form of a dance. The Mota’s family daughter was the first Portuguese ever to carry a Portuguese flag in that school. The Silva’s family son wrote: “When I arrived to the United States, I
went to school. We presented ourselves and when I said my name, my classmates were made aware that I wasn’t American.” As Fraiser (2010), points out historically “[a]ll of these [migrant] groups had to engage with schools in one way or another” (p. 180). The child, also, voiced his geographical place of birth – Portugal - and the Portuguese language were the dimensions that distinguished him from all other students. These children expressed the general tendency to homogenize all people of a particular gender, sex, ethnicity, race, skin color or language (Banks & Banks, 2010). An example of adaptation to a new community was in the United States, when they gathered with the other Portuguese children, and they chose to speak in English because with the adults they were “obliged” to speak Portuguese, as a way of exercising the homeland language. As Gjokaj, Zinn and Nawyn (2013) singled out “[w]ithin particular social contexts and constrains, they create a new family tradition” (p. 287). The families used to visit Portugal three times a year maintaining strong bounds with their country of origin. This flow of back-and-forth movement made possible for the families to negotiate more multifaceted social patterns in the country of immigration. As Banks & Banks (2010) explains “[i]mmigrants are both significantly changing the social context of new communities while shaping the social realities in their home countries” (p.287). When the Silva family arrived in Portugal, they decided to enroll their son in an English school for about one or two hours on Saturday mornings. It was intended with this strategy that the child remained bilingual but what happened was that he resisted to speak English, in Portugal, when asked to.

“Father Silva (F.S): As soon he put a foot in Portugal he started: “Here I only speak Portuguese. I don’t speak English.”

[…] F.S: … Funny, isn’t it?

[…]

Mother Silva (M.S): I talk with him and ask him: “Son speak with me in English. Let’s exercise a little.” And he would say: “Not now. Now, I am in Portugal. I want to speak Portuguese and not English.” He had this kind of reactions.

[…]

M.S.: Yes, I had that expectation [referring to bilingual] perhaps if he stayed there for a longer period of time … if it is a question of time … until today I don’t know if it is a question of personality, rejection, insufficient permanency time or if it was a questioning of being well followed. Something must have happened because now he isn’t bilingual. Now he isn’t! Not at all! Will he speak perfectly the two languages in the future?…

[…]

M.S.: No. Not yet. I, sincerely … what happened was the opposite, since, he began to have difficulties in the Portuguese language. I, then…. [smiles] said: “Stay still” Let’s take care now of the Portuguese language.

F.S: Yes!

M.S: Otherwise neither one nor the other…”

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Another example about language is the one given by the Lopes family. They discover that in a couple of month the two children stop speaking in English (even taking English classes at school). The Lopes’s family son, when asked to speak in English, shoulder shrug and said: “I cannot speak and I don’t want to.” From the parents point of view he discovered the Portuguese language, for him a way for his peers to perceive him and does not want to talk English again. Their son vocabulary and sentence construction have been developed quickly but gradually. However, every now and then in a Portuguese sentence an English word appears out of the blue. These are words he has not yet found a substitute for in the Portuguese vocabulary. His sibling has already forgotten a few words in English, but does not refuse to speak English. She speaks preferably in Portuguese but has a limited vocabulary. In her discourse she uses preferentially small sentences and has some difficulty in retelling a story and personal experiences. It seems that once again the child is adapting to the “new” community affirming that the new tradition now is to speak Portuguese. The metamorphosis of being a Portuguese citizen who has fluency in speaking, and wrote his first sentence in English but made a personal choice of belonging. The capability for migrants to adapt involves issues of emotions and belonging. As Escobar (2001) wrote:

“we are, in short, placelings. […] This means recognizing that place, body, and environment integrate with each other; that places gather things, thoughts, and memories in particular configurations; and that place, more an event that a thing, is characterized by openness rather than by a unitary self-identity” (p.143).

Final Reflections

The families narrative allowed to grasp an understating of how they make sense of the lived experience about migration. Place provides the (con)text to initiate the transformative conversation about migration and school. So, what does it mean to exist within (home)places? The families positive approach to place may be one of “stay still.” To stay still does not mean to be passive but reflect proactively about solutions to return home including school. For families, the sharing of a common place means to stop, observe and respect the boundaries. They have chosen to take care of what is meaningful for their family members respecting, for example, their children’s Portuguese feeling of belonging expressed in the choice to speak Portuguese. Another approach to place could be “everything was different”. Place is characterized by openness so, for them, it was the possibility to interact with each other and others. Families seem to have not reached to an agreement about rules and discipline. The Silva and Mota families share the same opinion that the school in the U.S.A. had more discipline than the Portuguese one, on the other hand, the Lopes family disagrees, affirming that it is the Portuguese school who has more rules. Openness broadens the horizon, although they could fell the shades of danger, their choice was to listen to, observe and integrate new ways of doing things and synthesize, as a family, both worlds. The mode of being “colors do not count” expressed by the Lopes’s family daughter of five years old recall us of the democratic way how people of any age should encode the world and enter place(s) fostering new social, cultural and historical nuances. Children with their families build memories of a challenging, diversified world but with “seeds” of “wisdom” of a more equitable and fair world.
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Social and personal curriculum impact


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Technologies
Reasserting curriculum design through virtual learning environments: The case of MAPE

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MAPE is a curricular model for virtual learning at the University of the Azores, Portugal. After being used for teaching Curriculum Theory and Development through e-learning and b-learning, this model has been, in the academic year 2014/15, extended to other courses. Besides describing the model and explaining its evolution, this paper reports a study of its implementation, for the first time, by more than one instructor. Accordingly, the main objective of the study is to test the MAPE model on a multi-course level. In this specific case, the model has been implemented in eight courses from the specialization program in e-learning. A more theoretical objective is also pursued: to explore the development of a curricular model for virtual learning environments as an opportunity to discuss the role of curriculum design in contemporary Curriculum Studies. Assuming that curriculum design can be defined as the arrangement of the elements of a curriculum, including educational materials, and that virtual learning environments are especially rich in resources that can be arranged in multiple ways, it is important to discuss the creative potential of this relationship between curriculum design and e-learning.

The methodology that has been used to study the development of MAPE is design research, which aims at providing design principles for making a product, assuming that such approach is applicable to different kinds of products, including artifacts, activities, services, policies, environments, educational materials, virtual learning environments, and curricula. More specifically, the study of MAPE can be considered an instance of the application of design research to e-learning, inasmuch as it aims at generating guidelines for developing virtual learning environments. It can also be viewed as an instance of curriculum design research – a variation of educational design research whereby one studies the design of either a curriculum or a particular aspect of a curriculum. Design research is usually based on the construction and evaluation of a succession of prototypes of the product, which, besides aiming at its improvement, is expected to generate design principles that can be adopted in a wide range of contexts. Prototypes 1 and 2 of MAPE had been evaluated at a very small scale. In 2014/15, through the adoption of Prototype 3 in several courses from a specialization program, MAPE is being used, for the first time, by instructors who did not participate in the first stages of its design. This paper is focused on the evaluation of the model in this wider context. The main evaluation tool being used at this stage is a student questionnaire.

Considering that this paper is being submitted before the end of the second semester, it presents results from the first semester only. Such results reveal a very high level of student satisfaction with the model in terms of its practicality and effectiveness. Considering that the results of the previous moment of evaluation had not been so satisfactory, the paper discusses possible reasons for such differences in student satisfaction and their implications in terms of the consolidation of design principles.

Introduction

The impressive growth of e-learning at a global scale is a challenge for Curriculum Studies, inasmuch as designing curricula for learners who might be far away from their teachers requires special kinds of answers to the fundamental questions around which Curriculum Studies are structured. Answering the core question – What to teach? – is a quite complex endeavor when no more than face-to-face instruction is considered. Answering the
same question in contexts of distance learning through electronic media is even more complex. Limitations imposed by distance imply that the question “What to teach?” is accompanied by the questions “What can be taught online?” and “What can only be taught via face-to-face instruction?”. In addition, “How to teach?” – another frequent question in Curriculum Studies – is necessarily answered with a specially strong focus on technological issues when curriculum is supposed to be delivered to distant learners. The possibilities and the limitations of technology as a means for supporting distance learning have to be taken into consideration when decisions on specific elements of the curriculum – for example, decisions on educational objectives and assessment criteria – are made by designers of curricula for e-learning.

In order for students to learn what they are expected to learn, communication is required. The differences between face-to-face communication and communication mediated by technology have significant implications for curriculum and instruction. If communication is synchronous, it is still difficult to ensure the participation of a large number of students in a lesson taught via e-learning, despite technological improvements, which conditions the amount of topics that can be addressed at a given time and the instructional strategies that can be used. If communication is asynchronous, the accessibility of curriculum for students depends, to a large extent, on the usability of the learning environments. Therefore, a strong emphasis on the latter is required when curriculum is planned.

The challenge of designing curriculum models for e-learning is being faced at the University of the Azores (UAz). On the one hand, distance education through electronic media is still at a very early stage of development in that institution. On the other hand, the fact that UAz is located in an archipelago and has three campuses has frequently been mentioned by members of its governing bodies as important reasons why the institution should develop e-learning. This orientation has also been suggested by the National Agency for the Accreditation of Higher Education. For example, in the final evaluation report on the Master’s program in Management and Conservation of Nature, the evaluation team states that it is strange that distance learning is not more developed at a University located in an archipelago with nine islands (A3ES, 2014a). Another example can be found in the final evaluation report on the Bachelor’s program in Sociology. In this case, one of the improvements suggested by the evaluation team is the development of “systems of communication between islands through distance learning in order to improve interaction between instructors and students who may eventually live in other islands” (A3ES, 2014b, p. 3).

Considering these challenges, some attempts to design institutional strategies for e-learning have been made at UAz. The Strategic Plan for the Development of the institution in the period 2012-2015 mentions distance learning as an opportunity (UAc, 2011, p. 44). In 2012 an Office for Virtual Studies was created at UAz, with the mission of supporting the development of e-learning. In 2015 the Rector of UAz appointed a team of faculty members to study the steps that had already been taken in the development of distance learning at UAz, as well as possibilities in terms of further steps, to be taken in the near future.

At the moment when the present text is being written, the situation of UAz in terms of e-learning can still be characterized as a set of experiences, rather than a structured project. The study of those emerging experiences may contribute to the production of knowledge that can be useful for supporting decisions aimed at the construction of a more structured and consolidated approach.

One of the initiatives taken within UAz in the field of e-learning has been the development of MAPE – a model for online learning. After being used for teaching Curriculum Theory and Development through e-learning and b-
learning, this model was, in the academic year 2014/15, extended to other courses. The main objective of the study reported on this text is to test MAPE on a multi-course level. A more theoretical objective is also pursued: to explore the development of a curricular model for virtual learning environments as an opportunity to discuss the role of curriculum design in Contemporary Curriculum Studies.

The emergence of MAPE

MAPE started to emerge in the academic year 2011/12, when, for the first time at the UAz, a course on Curriculum Theory and Development was delivered online to students of the Bachelor's program in Basic Education. As the course was taught, an emerging model for online learning – named CTD-O (Curriculum Theory and Development Online) – was experimented. In the following year the same course was, once again, taught totally online, which allowed for a new stage in the development of CTD-O. In the academic year 2013/14, CTD-O was used for teaching one third of a course from the same field in the Master's program in History and Geography Education. In 2014/15, the model was, for the first time, adopted in several courses, taught by different instructors, at UAz. In the first semester, one third of a course on Organization of Educational Systems, taught to students of the Bachelor's program in Basic Education, was based on CTD-O model. In addition, the model was adopted in eight courses from the specialization program in e-learning, which functioned for the first time in 2014/15. Since those courses are related to different fields (no longer Curriculum Theory and Development only), the name of the model was changed into MAPE, which is an acronym for Modular, Asynchronous, Participative, and Emergent. These characteristics of the model will be explained later on.

The development of MAPE has been studied via curriculum design research, which can be considered a variation of educational design research whereby the development of a curriculum or a specific aspect of a curriculum is developed (van den Akker, 2010). This kind of methodology is frequently used for studying the development of new virtual learning environments (Herrington, Reeves & Oliver, 2010). Both in educational design research in general and, specifically, in curriculum design research, studying the development of an educational resource usually implies constructing and evaluating a succession of prototypes. This kind of approach is intended not only to allow for increasingly sophisticated versions of the product but also to facilitate the emergence of design principles that can be adopted in a wide range of contexts, beyond the specific context wherein the study has been conducted. It is expected that such statement of principles contributes to the construction of knowledge on the characteristics of the educational interventions that have been undertaken, and also knowledge on “the process of designing and developing them” (Plomp, 2010, p. 13). In other words, the development of solutions to practical problems is connected to empirical research, aimed at theoretical understanding (McKenney & Reeves, 2012). This approach is clearly interventionist, inasmuch as “the research aims at designing an intervention in a real world setting” (Plomp, 2010, p. 15), especially when clear guidelines or heuristics are not available in order to address problems that occur in that same setting. The development of virtual learning environments in a higher education institution with special characteristics (three campuses, located on a small and remote archipelago) is an example of such kind of problem.

Although guiding principles for the virtualization of courses in higher education are available from the literature, the case of UAz is so specific that it requires specific solutions. A simple application of general guidelines would
certainly be counterproductive. Sustainable solutions should be built on the few initiatives that have already been taken at the local level.

The development of MAPE – which is technologically based on the moodle platform – is the most enduring e-learning experience that has been implemented at UAz. Throughout the successive stages of such development, which has included empirical research, MAPE has kept the four characteristics that justify the acronym: it is Modular, Asynchronous, Participative and Emergent.

MAPE is Emergent because it is still at an early stage of development, which is not based on the application or adaptation of another model. Instead, it is based on an effort to address practical problems through reflection on theoretical issues and on outcomes from more advanced experiences, which have taken place in other contexts. It has been constructed with scientific humbleness and caution. For the time being, expectations related to the adoption of knowledge – especially in the form of curriculum design principles – generated by these studies are limited to the local context.

Its specific characteristics notwithstanding, MAPE is influenced by consolidated models, which have been consistently tested, generalized and diffused – especially socio-constructivist models of e-learning (Moreira, 2012; Willis, 2009). In the context of such influences, it can be considered Participative, for it is based on the assumption that the participants assign meaning to the educational material when they become engaged in high levels of interaction (Salmon, 2013). Another reason why it may be considered participative is the fact that its continuous improvement is, to a large extent, based on the outcomes of its evaluation by different actors: students, instructors, and external evaluators.

Models of e-learning based on asynchronous communication allow for a radical approach to instruction – one that frees teachers and students from the constraints related to space and time that shape traditional teaching. MAPE has been designed as an Asynchronous model in order to take advantage of the potential for innovation brought about by such radical approach.

Asynchronous approaches usually do not eliminate segmentation of the time assigned for instruction. Accordingly, MAPE is Modular, because the courses or parts of courses wherein it is adopted follow the typical approach of asynchronous models in terms of time segmentation, that is, instruction is carried out through a succession of modules. Each module is focused on specific educational objectives and may last one, two or three weeks. Shorter modules would not provide enough time for asynchronous communication to flow effectively; longer modules would probably increase temptation to procrastinate, which is one of the main risks of asynchronous communication via electronic media (Graham, 2005).

The general organization of the course across the semester – which is a modular one in the case of MAPE – is just one of the aspects that should be taken into consideration in the construction or in the analysis of a virtualized course. It is also important to consider the internal organization of the modules, as well as the kinds of tasks that they require from students. Therefore, picture 10 illustrates three levels of analysis.
On the first level, the modular nature of MAPE is portrayed. The content of each module is revealed to the students only when the module starts, for revealing all the material at the outset would imply an unnecessary overload of information. However, some elements of the learning environment are visible to the students throughout the whole semester – for instance, the course syllabus and the grades, which are updated at the end of each module.

The second level represents the structure of a module, which is shown in more detail by picture 11. In that structure, which is visible on the interface as soon as the student accesses the course on the electronic platform, the most important elements are the four components around which all the modules function: guidelines for the module’s tasks, expected learning outcomes for the module and related assessment criteria, the module’s forum, and evaluation of the previous module.
In order to obtain information or to interact with the instructor and with classmates in the context of each of those components, the student accesses, via hyperlinks, specific pages, which, as figure 12 illustrates, are considered at the third level of analysis. This is the level at which teaching and learning are managed more directly.

The guidelines for the learning tasks that the students are expected to accomplish, with the instructor’s support, in each module can be provided via text, audio, or video. Combinations of those three kinds of channel are frequent, considering that media integration can impact the quality of communication and students’ learning experience (Kim, Kwon & Cho, 2011).

Since the purpose of the tasks is not always obvious, it is expected that the explicit statement of the expected learning outcomes and related assessment criteria raises the students’ awareness of the reasons why each task is assigned. The educational objectives and the criteria for assessing their achievement are always revisited in the following module, in the context of the section “Evaluation of the previous module”, which strengthens connections between modules and enhances formative assessment (Sousa, 2014a).

The forum may serve different purposes. It frequently functions as a tool whereby the instructor supports the students, by answering their questions, correcting their mistakes and encouraging co-presence, that is the experience of participating in a virtual learning environment with someone else (Stevens-Long & Crowell, 2010). Student participation in the forum may or may not be considered as an assessment device. In either case it is one of the main ways of ensuring the participative nature of MAPE.
The evaluation of MAPE

The evaluation of MAPE has encompassed the three dimensions of an educational product (a virtual learning environment in this specific case) that are usually considered by educational design research – validity, practicality, and effectiveness (Nieveen, 2010). Furthermore, it has applied a wide range of evaluation techniques that are frequently used in this kind of research, including screening, tryout, and expert appraisal.

Three prototypes of MAPE (including those that were designated as CTD-O) have already been evaluated: P1 (2011/12), P2 (2012/13) and P3 (2013/15). The latter was implemented in three specific contexts:

1. in 2013/14, for teaching one third of a course on Curriculum Development, in the Master’s program in History and Geography Education;

2. in 2014/15, for teaching one third of a course on Organization of Educational Systems, in the Bachelor’s program in Basic Education;

3. in 2014/15, for teaching eight courses from the specialization program in e-learning.

Considering that outcomes from the evaluation of P1 and P2, as well as from the implementation of P3 in the first two contexts, have already been published (Sousa, 2013, 2014a, 2014b, 2015), the specific study reported in this text is focused on outcomes from the implementation of P3 in the third context – a context wherein MAPE was used, for the first time, by instructors who did not participate in the first stages of its design. More specifically, the implementation of MAPE in four courses from the specialization program in e-learning is addressed, considering that the second semester had not finished when the proposal for this paper was submitted.

Evaluation of P1 and P2 yielded very good outcomes. The same happened with regard to the first implementation of P3. Through their answers to online questionnaires, the students expressed positive opinions about their easiness of navigation within the learning environment, that is, about MAPE’s practicality or usability, and also about its effectiveness in allowing for acquisition of relevant knowledge. In that stage, there was only one student who stated that if the course had been delivered via face-to-face instruction she would have learned more than she did by taking the course online. Moreover, there was only one student who stated that if he could go back in time and decide he would have taken the course via face-to-face instruction. The other respondents stated that they would have taken it online. Approximately one third of the students stated that they had learned roughly the same online as they would have learned if the course had been delivered via face-to-face instruction, another third stated that they had learned more, and still another third stated that they had learned much more (Sousa, 2013, 2014a, 2014b).

The outcomes of the second implementation of P3 were not so good. A detailed presentation and discussion of those outcomes was made in another publication (Sousa, 2015).

Improvements in P2, fueled by the evaluation of P1, were mostly focused on technical issues. In other words, they were aimed at the enhancement of construction validity. The evaluation of this aspect of MAPE at that stage was conducted mainly through expert appraisal, whereby a Professor of Educational Technology wrote evaluation reports on P1 and P2. Recommendations conveyed by the report on P1 guided changes in technical aspects of P2, especially with regard to the production of podcasts.
Technical changes were also predominant in the transition from P2 to P3. In that period, the modules were numbered and a field for a very brief summary of the content was added to the design of the modules’ structure. Finding information within the learning environment became easier after these changes.

The above-mentioned changes facilitated the management of communication in light of a spiral view of the curriculum. This idea, which is inspired by the work of Bruner (1960), implies that the learning environment is organized in such a way that certain topics are addressed more than once, at different moments, with increasing complexity. Ensuring that the students become aware of connections between topics is also crucial in this approach. The virtualization of learning environments is compatible with a spiral view of the curriculum, inasmuch as it facilitates automatic recording, logical organization and provision of all the study material.

In the construction of P3, following the evaluation of P2, there were also improvements in the layout of the web pages that are considered at the third level of analysis. The earliest versions of those pages were designed by using basic tools provided by the electronic platform. Now their design is more attractive, because of a more sophisticated edition of text, color, image, audio, video, and other resources.

**Studying MAPE at a multi-course level**

In the first semester of the academic year 2014/15, MAPE was implemented, for the first time, by more than one instructor. This extension occurred in the context of a specialization program in e-learning. This program, which lasts two semesters and includes ten courses – five in each semester –, is open to any person who has at least a bachelor degree and wishes to improve his or her ability to teach online.

The first semester includes the following courses: Educational design for e-learning; Models of e-learning; Technological resources for e-learning; Contexts, needs, and opportunities for e-learning; and Communication through media. In 2014/15, the virtual learning environments wherein all of these courses except the latter functioned were designed according to the MAPE model.

Twelve students were enrolled in the program in 2014/15, but, unfortunately, only five of them finished it and only three answered an evaluation questionnaire at the end of the first semester, which was intended to obtain data related to their perspectives on MAPE. Despite the extremely small number of participants, some data generated by that questionnaire is rich enough to be considered in a context wherein one wishes to study the model in order to improve it.

Through their answers to closed-ended questions, the respondents disclosed their opinions on how the model is structured and functions. All of them considered the structure of MAPE “extremely adequate” and navigation within the virtual learning environment “very easy, based on an excellent organization” of that same environment. Two students stated that the instructors’ commitment to formative assessment was “more than enough” and one student stated that it was excellent, for the instructors “explained what was wrong and provided suggestions for improvement”.

Through their answers to open-ended questions, they expressed their opinions on both the most positive and the most negative aspects of the model. The following transcripts provide relevant data.
In general, the most positive aspects were: (1) the high level of interaction between instructors and students, as well as between classmates; (2) the constant feedback provided by the instructors. (…)

The most negative aspect was the fact that we once had to submit assignments related to several courses on the same weekend. (…)

(Student A)

The organization of the learning environment (…) was very schematic and intuitive, even for people who do not know much about ICT. (…)

(Student B)

In addition, the students provided suggestions for improvement.

More time should be provided for accomplishing the tasks within some of the modules.

(Student A)

My adaptation to the model was perfect. Therefore, I do not have suggestions for its improvement. In my opinion, the model should be implemented in all the courses next semester.

(Student B)

This data suggests a high level of student satisfaction with regard to MAPE. A high level of satisfaction had also been reported for P1, P2 and for the first implementation of P3 (Sousa, 2013, 2014a, 2014b). The outcomes of the second implementation of P3 were not so good (Sousa, 2015). However, that implementation of P3 was carried out under especially difficult circumstances: an unusually big class for the context, that is, 50 students taking a course provided at the first semester of a bachelor’s program in basic education. These facts suggest that the lower level of student satisfaction that was reported in this specific case might have been an exception. Thus, there is some potential in MAPE for the consolidation of emerging design principles.

The transcripts also suggest that more attention should be paid to time management in the implementation of the model. Accordingly, in the second semester all the instructors agreed on organizing the modules of all the courses in such a way that no more than two modules (from different courses within the specialization program in e-learning) would finish at the same time.

Conclusion

MAPE has progressed from a situation wherein it was implemented at an extremely small scale to a situation of implementation in a wider context, within UAz. Throughout that process, the evaluation of successive prototypes – under the framework of curriculum design research – has allowed for the improvement of technical details, and also for the consolidation of principles for curriculum design. The statement of such principles has become increasingly based on both empirical evidence and theoretical assumptions.

One of those principles consists of maximizing the potential of communication that flows within a virtual learning environment in terms of its transformation into study material whose quality can be easily controlled. Unlike notes taken by students in classrooms – which sometimes distort the message that the instructor intended to convey –,
messages that are exchanged online are, in most cases, automatically recorded. Usually instructors are able to access those messages easily and control their quality, in order to avoid distortions.

Such automatic recording of the student’s progress, which is not frequent in face-to-face instruction, facilitates the development of constructivist strategies, including scaffolding and coaching (Bellefeuille, Martin & Buck, 2009).

The transformation of electronic communication into study material can be related to a more general principle – the spiral organization of the curriculum. This kind of organization, which has been widely explored in the context of face-to-face instruction, can also be explored in the context of online learning, by taking advantage of the above-mentioned tools that allow for easy recording and organization of the study material. The adoption of this principle in the context of MAPE has been intertwined with a strong commitment to formative assessment.

These emergent principles confirm that virtual learning environments are rich in resources that can be arranged in multiple ways. Since some of those resources are strongly representative of the curricula being enacted, virtual learning environments seem to have potential for the reassertion of curriculum design within Curriculum Studies.

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**The NMC Horizon Report Europe 2014 schools edition as a supranational curricular act**

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Last year, New Media Consortium (NMC), in association with the European Commission, launched a report under the name of Horizon Report Europe - 2014 Schools Edition, examining trends, challenges and important developments in educational technology that are very likely to impact educational change processes in European schools over the next five years. Reading the report one can imagine that such likeliness will be due to deliberated policies aiming at transforming schools by means of incorporating digital technologies and by redesigning the usual roles of teachers and students.
It is important to acknowledge that NMC was founded in 1993 by a group of hi-tech firms composed by Apple Computer, Adobe Systems, Macromedia, and Sony that have realized that the success of their products depended upon their widespread acceptance, namely in education. It is also crucial to understand that the endorsement of this report by the European Commission is in itself a curricular act as it certainly will inspire further national curricular policies.

The paper will analyze The NMC Horizon Report Europe: 2014 Schools Edition identifying and discussing its curricular implications.

1. Acts of curriculum and curricular acts

In Portuguese, the expression "curricular acts" usually refers to actions of an administrative nature related to enrolment, examinations, issuing certificates, etc. But we can also find the use of that expression referring to what teachers do when they plan their lessons or when they teach their students. It is, therefore, a polysemic expression whose meaning emerges from the context in which it is used. However, Macedo (2013a) uses the similar expression of "acts of curriculum" (atos de currículo), giving it a new dimension. According to him, if we are somehow creators of acts of curriculum, we are therefore curriculantes: the mother of a kindergarten student requesting explanations about what her child is learning; a teacher reflecting on the issues and activities related to mediate certain knowledge deemed to be educational; a student who questions the adequacy of the knowledge proposed by the curriculum as important to his life; the specialist who is hired to propose and guide important curricular policies; an employee who negotiates proposals for work and vocational training in strains of capital-labour relations; social movements that become protagonists of curriculum conceptions and curricular implementations, by critically proposing content for their training; they are all curriculantes. Therefore, they create acts of curriculum from the place of their interests and positionalities. To put it another way, anyone who is involved, from its political position, with curricular issues, is a curriculante actor, (Macedo, 2013b).

In this article, I propose to use of the expression curricular act with a meaning close to Macedo’s acts of curriculum to be applied to analyse an ongoing situation in which supranational institutions are urging explicit national policies aiming at transforming schools, and thus curriculum, by means of incorporating digital technologies and by redesigning the usual roles of teachers and students.

2. NMC and its Horizon Reports

We live in a time when, perhaps more than ever, politics is a reflection of the economy, that needs consumers a lot more than citizens, and it is increasingly evident that the wave of industrialization, which began with the Industrial Revolution, is coming to an end. In this new era some refer to as post-modernity, late modernity, liquid modernity, or similar expressions, fundamental skills that the labour market requires are not the ones that helped industrialization to literally change the world in a few generations. In fact, punctuality and synchronization are giving way to flexibility and initiative; obedience to autonomy and creativity, all skills that the XIX century school deals with.

Curriculantes is a Brazilian Portuguese neologism referring those who create curriculum by means of their actions.
extreme difficulty. On the other hand, technological development, in particular digital technologies, are changing dramatically the way we live, the behaviours we have, how we relate to each other. The very relationship between citizens and their more traditional institutions like banks, for example, and also with the state, is now another. Can we remember the last time we went to a bank to withdraw money? When was the last time that we have entered a tax office to deliver a tax return? Not to mention the taxes that can only be paid via the Internet.

It is currently a political imperative that citizens can use digital technologies. Having the citizens digitally included allows the state to control them more effectively (the fulfilment of their fiscal obligations, for example), and, in addition, also reduces operating overheads of the state machine. And if this is true for politics, what about the economy in an era in which companies are on the Internet or do not even exist, and when the most powerful and profitable corporations have to do directly with digital technologies? Just think of giants such as Microsoft, Google, and Facebook, to understand the magnitude of the phenomenon of transformation that overwhelms us.

There are companies that lay off workers by e-mail or SMS. Virtually all jobs require digital skills and aptitude for using computer tools increasingly sophisticated. That is, the global economy needs education systems that use digital technologies, routinely, and where they graduate future workers familiar with them, ready to use them in the service of their potential employers.

Therefore, no wonder that, in line with this global economy, supranational political bodies such as the European Community, for example, issue statements and recommendations, and make reminders among States to bring them to the definition of educational policies which put the use of ICT at the centre of all priorities and aim to change dramatically educational practices and what is to be learnt in school. Illustrative of this global policymaking is the launch of the NMC Horizon Report Europe: 2014 Schools Edition, a joint publication of the European Commission’s Directorate General for Education and Culture and the Institute for Prospective Technological Studies, and the New Media Consortium (NMC).

It should be clarified that the NMC was founded on October 17, 1993 by a group of companies that included Apple Computer, Adobe Systems, Macromedia and Sony, hardware and software manufacturers, which, as can be read on NMC’s institutional site, realized that the success of their products with multimedia resources depended on broad acceptance by the higher education community, which had not yet been reached. These companies believe that “a community of innovators embedded in leading colleges and universities would amplify the impact of their tools in a wide range of disciplines, and that such a community could be uniquely self-sustaining and adaptive.”

Therefore, the NMC is active for over twenty years and in the last eleven has published its Horizon Reports, with a stated dual purpose, as it turns out: on the one hand, expand the market for its products, on the other and as a result, promote the transformation of schools and the way they work, integrating them into the real economy. And the fact that NMC Horizon Report Europe: 2014 Schools Edition was published in partnership with the European Community also seems to be a clear example of two things: the European Community recognizes competence and independence to the NMC to reflect on the relationship between education and technology, and the European Commission endorses the result of this reflection, by using its power to influence the Member States and public opinion to accept it as a serious, or even as unquestionable.

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45 http://www.nmc.org/

The NMC Horizon Report Europe: 2014 Schools Edition begins to inform that it is the result of the answers that were given by a panel of 53 experts coming from various countries, including Portugal, to the following set of predefined questions:

- What is on the five-year horizon for European schools?
- Which trends and technologies will drive educational change?
- What are the challenges that we consider as solvable or difficult to overcome, and how can we strategize effective solutions?

Answers to the questions are grouped in the report in three chapters with the following designations:

- Trends Accelerating Educational Technology Adoption in European Schools;
- Challenges Impeding Educational Technology Adoption in European Schools;
- Important Developments in Educational Technology for European Schools.

Among other predictions and recommendations, the panel foresaw that the use of tablets and the cloud (cloud computing and tablet computing) is common in many European schools within a year, while learning through computer games (games and gamification of learning) and the combination of physical and virtual environments will be an integral part of teaching the next two to three years. They warn, however, that the development of remote and virtual laboratories and strategies that encourage students to take an active role in planning their learning (personalised learning) may take four to five years.

The report is signed by a group of writers who did not participate in the expert panel and is intended, as can be read in the introduction (p. 3), “to help ministers, governing boards, and school leaders to strategically approach the further evolution of teaching, learning, and creative inquiry”.

The only Portuguese participant in the panel is called Mario Franco, whose only given affiliation is Millennium.edu. This personality, with a degree in Philosophy, was responsible for e.escola program, launched in 2007 with the aim of "promoting the use of computers and internet connections broadband by students enrolled in the 5th to 12th grade, facilitating access to the information society in order to promote e-inclusion and equal opportunities". It is therefore someone who does not belong to the academic world, nor is involved in teacher education. It is, rather, someone who moves himself quite easily in the real economy, having access to events organized by the World Bank, one of which had, in 2012, the e.escola project as a protagonist.

It appears that, suddenly, the transformation of schools and the traditional roles of students and teachers through ICT incorporation has become so urgent that there is no longer time and willingness to listen to those who, until now, were reasonably considered experts in education based on academic criteria. In fact the issue of school reform, in which the current one should turn into another closer to the real economy, has become an important and decisive issue, too critical to be left to academics, particularly in the field of education. The global economy and the supranational policies, supported by their local agencies (e.g. ministries of education, opinion makers, and so forth) operate openly in order to get the school as they wish, probably again in his own likeness, and act using those agents that look more appropriate and more reliable to get what they want.
Besides, to create the school the global market claims, perhaps the pedagogical thought is not that important. Perhaps even disturb, because the moment requires much more action than reflection. Industry and markets need to dispose current technologies in order to introduce new ones. The school, one hears around everywhere, in addition to having been stuck back in time, it has grown in complexity and awkwardness. It has bureaucratized itself. It has become too expensive for what reciprocates. Never so many teachers and so little innovation existed. Teachers were unable or unwilling to make the change and so they lost their opportunity. All in line with the narratives that seek to legitimize the delivery of education to the dictates of global capitalism, like this one so well synthesized by Facer (2011):

Rapid technological change in the 21st century will lead to increased competition between individuals and nations; education’s role is to equip individuals and nations for that competition by developing ‘twenty-first century skills’ that will allow them to adapt and reconfigure themselves for this new market. But education and educators are ill-equipped to make those changes, as they have failed to adapt successfully to technological developments over the last 100 years. Educational change, therefore, needs to be directed from outside. (Facer, 2011: 2, 3).

4. Curriculantes are not all alike

The preparation and dissemination of the NMC Horizon Report Europe: 2014 Schools Edition is a curricular act. Even if it has marginalized the educational thought, namely the Portuguese educational thought with academic roots, it is nevertheless to be possible to include it in the broader set of major curricular acts at the macro level. In fact, the very exclusion of educational thought is also, in itself, a curricular act with meaning and effects similar to the acts of curriculum in Macedo’s perspective. The difference between those acts of curriculum mentioned by Macedo, and this curricular act that joined NMC and the European Commission in order to put pressure on national governments to adopt measures to transform schools and the educational systems in a particular direction, is just scale: these curricular acts have on their side the power (are endorsed by major global companies and the all-powerful European bureaucracy) and the ability to influence (they are often for national governments as the scriptures for faithful who believe in them). The normative effects of these acts in the curriculum manifest themselves immediately. And if you can understand how repeated actions of ordinary people, Macedo calls curriculantes, in their intersections with certain aspects of the curriculum, can end up determining it in some way, it is easy to imagine the unstoppable influence of curricular acts, applied from the macro level.

Of course, at a micro level, one can always try to swim upstream. However, pedagogical innovation, for example, which is always a movement against orthodoxy, runs the constant danger of bumping against the curriculum, if attempted within the school (Fino, 2008). Yet, despite all the constraints, it might be a narrow margin of hope for those who resist, paraphrasing the inspiring Manuel Alegre’s poem known as Trova do vento que passa46. But very narrow, I am afraid.

According to the spirit of the mentioned poem, Paulo Freire, during a famous conversation with Seymour Papert, held in Sao Paulo in 1995, referred Althusser’s ideological state apparatuses to declare that he always tried to see

46 One of the poems included in the book Praça da Canção, published in 1965.
the other angle of school as an apparatus for reproducing the dominant ideology. And that other angle, which he called more dialectical, and less mechanistic, was exactly the angle of those who gave themselves the task of not reproducing dominant ideology (in spite of working inside the school). That was, he added, the same argument of those who want to change the general policy of the Society.

The problem is that, despite these examples, there are no great illusions about the disproportion of the forces involved, especially now, when capitalism regained the initiative to get the school that best suits, and whose bond with the old Republican citizenship became, if not obsolete, at least not very useful for employers. Nor seem to interest the market, the great “regulator” of the functioning of capitalism, to foster “innovation” that is not controlled by the curriculum, or encourage contra hegemonic actions, which try to prevent schools from functioning as reproducers of the establishment and, therefore, reproducing the dominant culture.

This belief, which I would like it is lucid, is obviously not a capitulation to the inevitability. It is just the realization that if it is true, according to Macedo, that we all can be curriculantes through our intersections with the curriculum, there is no doubt that the curriculantes are not all alike.

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The implications in the curriculum of the school full time related to the ongoing formation of teachers: The use of new technologies of information and communication - NTIC theory practice

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This article aimed to discuss curriculum issues related to the use of New Information and Communication Technologies - NICT in the ongoing formation process of teachers of a full-time school in Campo Grande / MS - Brazil. We realize that increasingly, society requires citizens the functional use of new technologies of information and communication, but society as well as teachers still have fear with its use in the school context as well as in pedagogical practice. Therefore, it is critical that the curriculum contemplates the continuing education of their teachers so as to effectively introduce these technologies as a resource mediation of student learning, which leads us to the following problems: how the school can articulate a permanent training teachers who will actually introduce in their practice the NTIC? The research used a qualitative approach to design research action. The study was conducted with forty teachers of this school. Data collection took place through the following: preparation of the training schedule; continuing education; planning of the teachers with the use of technologies; monitoring of teachers' planning and result of working with students. Upon completion of the research it was possible to see the contributions of new technologies for mediation of student learning. In this sense, students have become more spontaneous, organized, better understand the concepts and teachers realized in students greater interest in writing and the organization and presentation of the work.

**Keywords:** technology; permanent education; curriculum

**Introduction**

As part of the management group of full-time school composed by coordinating educational, director and assistant director realized the need to understand the role, as well as the function of the pedagogical coordinator in the school context. During this experience many questions have arisen in relation to the function of this professional and specifically a concern as the coordinator has been developing in-service training of their teachers? AND how to enter effectively the New Information and Communication Technologies - used new ICTs in the curriculum of the school full-time?

The interest in this topic began since 2009, beginning of the work with this professional in our school and in the city of Campo Grande - MS, thus this study is justified by changes mainly occurred in 2011, because the teachers of the school have participated in Ongoing Training, and few were introduced the new technologies of Information and Communication - used new ICTs in the curriculum of the school.

During this process the formations were given by technicians of the Municipal Education - SEMED, partners of the Federal University of Mato Grosso do Sul - UFMS and Dom Bosco Catholic University - UCDB and the management group, steering and coordination of school during the hours of Pedagogical Work Position - HTPA.
The themes discussed in the permanent training and meetings for reflection on practice and planning set out in the interest of teachers and the needs of those for ensuring the pedagogical work satisfactorily. Yet it was found that to guarantee the implementation of the pedagogical approach of the school is necessary to change the design of reproductive knowledge teacher for reflective teacher and producer of knowledge, value the knowledge produced by the school, from developed research and establish a working partnership between educators.

We realize that it is necessary that the teacher knows or even to question about what he does at school and as Aple (2006) asks: who is this culture? What social group you belong to this or that knowledge? As the hegemonic and counter hegemonic movements are built, reconstruct and deconstruct the maintenance and construction of social, educational, curricular and often private.

Do the teachers of this society and that has been formed in many different ways can at least realize that the educational process is not innocent, is not neutral, but is unlike that intends to control. In this sense, it was necessary to understand the relationships, especially the culture that Julia (2004, p. 10) defines as something that needs studied from the "precise analysis of conflicting or peaceful relations it maintains, every period of its history, with all the cultures that are contemporary: religious culture, political culture or popular culture." Already the school culture is described by Julia (2004, p. 10) as:

- a set of rules that define knowledge to teach and to inculcate behaviors, and a set of practices that enable the transmission of knowledge and the incorporation of these behaviors; standards and coordinated practices for purposes which may vary according to the time (religious, sociopolitical, or simply socialization)

It is in this direction that we will discuss the curriculum school full-time, in which involves issues of permanent training of teachers with related technologies.

**Goals:**

Discuss curriculum issues related to the use of new Information and Communication Technologies - ICTs in continuing education process of teachers in a school full-time in Campo Grande / MS - Brazil

**Methodology**

The research used a qualitative approach to design research action. The study was conducted with forty teachers of this school. Data collection occurred through the following steps: preparation of the training schedule; Continuing education of teachers; teacher planning with the use of technologies; planning and monitoring result of working with students of teachers.

**Continuing Education in Full-Time School: the importance of this process for teacher education**

Teacher education in the contemporary world is discussed on a global level, as a complex and continuous process. Teaching learning occurs in the course of his entire life therefore this process can be started in the initial formation, and continuing their practice. Training for the practice to be an occupation as instrumental as it should
be directed to problem solving with the rigorous application of scientific techniques theories (PÉREZ - Gomes, 1992).

Understood as a "continuum", the training process occurs during a teaching career path which leads to constant new learning. This conception of practical rationality comprising the teacher as a reflective practitioner is advocated by the authors as: Tardif (2002), Huberman (1992), among others.

Although each of these authors defend some specifics about the reflection on the training of teaching professional, a recurring idea among them, the concept that the teacher can not be considered a professional ready and finished to complete the initial training.

According to Schönh (1992) knowledge does not apply to action. However it is tacitly intrinsic. Thus, knowledge in action, but does not mean that the professional is only practical, we must include the theoretical dimension, because knowledge is always a relationship between the practice and the interpretations we do.

Reflection on teaching practice requires recurring questions that go to interventions and thus for changes in pedagogical practice.

However, this reflection does not happen from one moment to another and need to awaken the problematicity situations. This "reflection, and these questions is the result of an extensive search process that occurs between what you think and what you do" (Zeichner, 1993, p. 17).

Zeichner (1993: 18) points out: "reflexive action that triggers the practice requires the teacher emotion, passion, that anime in diversity, but not blind before the realization."

Thus, the training of teachers should prepare them for this process of reflection, which requires the ability to interpretation, understanding and questioning.

In this sense, André (2006, p.45) reaffirms that :

Learning to teach and becoming a teacher is an ongoing process that begins long before the formal preparation. Undoubtedly, necessarily passes through it, permeates the entire work and, in this way, configure nuances, details and contrasts. In this sense, learning to teach is confused as its development of subjectivity.

The author points out that in the course of professional teachers learn in different ways by different sources. Through clashes of ideas, exchange of experiences, through dialogue, using the memory of who knows and lives by studying theories, elaborating questions, clarifying positions, writing about it, exercising and reflecting on practice, researching and reflecting on their own way of learning. The adult learning occurs primarily in the group, through confrontations, deepening of ideas for individual and committed choice as the event to be known.

The event which is presented in its multiplicity is anchored in the experience of the learner who is meant by the language. She also argues that some of the principles that underlie adult learning, among them are:

Adult learning stems from a group construction; learning occurs from the confrontation and deepening of ideas; the learning process involves commitment and involvement with the object or event to be known and how others learning; the act of knowing is permanent and dialectic; the starting point for knowledge is the experience we have accumulated. (André, 2006, p. 23)
To ensure the teacher's learning process it is necessary that the same "ventures to undertake this path must first of all take a serious commitment to learning" (FARM, 1994, p. 78), but to be committed to the scholarship it must have persistence and as the author points out "is sometimes the perseverence of someone trying to use other sources of knowledge to understand the complexity of a theoretical text or problem arisen in practice that the individual can realize up interdisciplinary”

Andre (2006) warns that it is possible to learn in various ways and through multiple interfaces, only the group that is able to promote interaction assignment of meaning for the comparison of directions. In the collective consciousness, built based on the experiences of each, circulate and provide knowledge on new meanings when shared.

As we can see there are many ways in which the teacher learns even he did not always realize these learning processes. Therefore, we believe that continuing education is essential to teachers from providing conditions to reflect on their practice, and so modify it, among the various modes highlight the realized and guaranteed in the workplace, or at school.

Thinking about the realization of an innovative pedagogical proposal we realized the need for the teacher to develop new professional skills in the educational process, requiring a different profile, so there are significant changes in your practice.

Being of fundamental importance for the pedagogical work develop the capacity of each interaction with their peers and the community in which it is inserted and the reflective capacity in group decision-making about teaching.

And this implies, by breaking traditions , inertia and imposed ideologies , form teacher in change through the development of reflective skills in groups, and make way for a real shared professional autonomy , as the teaching profession should share the knowledge with the context. (IBERNÓN , 2006 , p.15)

The school staff should provide means for continuing training is carried out in a participatory and collective way, developing a collaborative work among teachers from research processes , production and socialization of ideas.

Ongoing Formation in the Full Time School - Space the Pedagogical Work Hour Collective - HTPC

The process of continuing education in the Full Time School takes place in Pedagogical Work Hour Collective - HTPC which is the time and space in which the pedagogical coordination with the school administration and the teachers group can discuss and reflect on how to will the process for formation of integral education in the context of this school.

With this study space can mediate the collective reflection we believe is a good source of reflective theoretical teaching. Not enough to have the space and time is necessary to create conditions that are fundamental, such as maintaining a climate of openness, warmth, strengthen the group feeling and leaders, share ideas to ensure significant advances in the development of the group of teachers and the coordinating education and school administration.

Seeking a different work methodology, in which the teacher and the student are valued, the school guarantees in its pedagogical proposal this space named as Space Pedagogical Work Time Collective - HTPC, where the goal is to provide moments of reflection so that students express and discuss their distress as well as to seek through
studies, exchange of effective ways experiences to ensure their students means to learn well, because at school the process of student learning is the responsibility of your serial teacher and every school.

Therefore, the school guarantees and offers a space for reflection and discussion collectively with theoretical basis with a view to promoting committed pedagogical practices.

But do not just provide the space and the time is still necessary to create an open and friendly environment for teachers to feel comfortable to share ideas, discuss, debate, among others. Thus, the organization of the HTPC should take place as follows: Continuing education, providing a moment for the teacher expose their difficulties and needs; Development agenda proposal and suggestions of teachers for the next meetings; Collectively build the pedagogical record book, outlining general guidelines for understanding the pedagogical organization of the school; Ensure that it is a space to develop educational activities, promoting teamwork, the exchange of experiences, theming practice, suggest, bring contributions, showing ways and alternatives; The impossibility of getting all the teachers, organize work by learning environment and / or integrators curricular environment and complementary activities; Make record of the meeting, a logbook, and use it also as a support to teachers who do not participate in HTPC; Group joint manager (school supervisor, counselor and directors) to plan common actions for problems that occur in the learning environment, with teachers and other broader issues concerning the school; Ensure, wherever possible, the socialization of work among teachers as a way of valuing individual and collective productions; Prior disclosure of HTPA the guidelines for the teacher to organize and contribute ideas to implement the work; Meeting between schools to share experiences and continuing education; Offer subsidies for the elaboration of intervention projects in the school reality with the aim of improving the educational process; Access to successful projects Plan and organize cultural activities; Develop strategies to overcome all forms of discrimination, prejudice and social exclusion and ethical and political commitment to all social categories; Provide knowledge of educational legislation and the Child and Adolescent Statute, as foundations of educational practice; Evaluate the pedagogical work by school personnel. (SEMED, 2008 p. 45)

The HTPC space and time is guaranteed in the workload of the teacher every Friday - fairs from 13h to 17h. The proposal of the studies to take place that day is predefined with teachers and management group earlier this year, and the same flexible to change.

**Area Labor Time Position - HPTA**

The moment of HTPA is a continuing education space of school teachers is carried out with separate group per year / series along with the pedagogical coordination and assistant direction.

In this format the joint team is possible and the integration of all activities that occur at school, but their goal is the pedagogical issues such as reflection on the pedagogical practice, the possible interventions to contribute to the actions of teachers.

This meeting takes place once a week for four hours with all educators Series / year or specific area (arts, languages or physical education) with its pedagogical coordinator and with the participation of Deputy Director in the following actions are planned, The HTPA occur in an educational place, nice and cozy; agenda is shared and receives contributions from all professionals; The tasks (registration, choice of texts, organization of study time, etc.) are divided among the team; The conduct of HTPA is shared (group manager and teachers); Each HTPA has
focus and well-defined objectives and known to all; All meetings are evaluated by the collective. (SEMED, 2009, p. 47)

In that space lies with the Pedagogical Coordinator year / number or area (Languages, Physical Education or Arts) stipulate goals together the short teachers, medium and long term in order to meet both the needs of teachers and students, noting that all meetings should be recorded in the minutes, notebook or logbook, so that this record can be taken up by the group.

For this moment to succeed sensitivity and flexibility of the management team is necessary in order to discuss key issues and return to the good performance of all and this is possible only if that staff know their reality, parents, students and teachers. Hence, the pedagogical work time is the moment of:

- Ongoing training of school teachers. Exchange of experiences between teachers and management group.
- Joint work carried out by the school staff. Planning and (re)planning of educational activities.
- Discussion and decision making about the process of teaching and learning. Democratic management.
- The school routine discussion and its administrative and pedagogical organization. (SEMED, 2009 p. 47)

This space is carefully planned by the pedagogical coordinator with the management group, noting that it should consider the school's needs and contemplate the demands of teachers.

**The perenante teacher training mediated by the Pedagogical Coordinator**

The role of the pedagogical coordinator is still being defined, it performs various activities to support the school run and must earn his real space in it.

The role of the Educational Coordinator is often mistaken as "patch holes", "fireman". Augusto (2006, p. 3) emphasizes that these professionals face many challenges, however, one must consider that the same good ideas and strangeness for generating discussion and reflection on the school teachers group.

The coordinator needs to go beyond the classroom boundaries, have a broader view and interact with other players in the school setting. From there, it will have real conditions to identify the problems, analyze them better and provide guidance in the search for possible solutions.

According Imbernon (2006) the coordinator's role in the process of continuing education is to collaborate and diagnose and contribute in their action and reflection in the classroom that defends as follows:

An aide or advisor makes sense when it is not a specialist from outside (but approaching their problem situations) analyzes the educational practice of teachers, but when, assuming a position of equality and collaboration, diagnose obstacles, provides help and support or participate with teachers, reflecting on his prática. Isso means that the teacher, starting from a certain reality, seeks solutions to problematic situations that the practice brings. (Imbernon, 2006, p.92)

Believing these ideas against the school where I work Internal Regulation, in its Article 133, the powers of the pedagogical coordinator, related to continuing education, among them are:

- I - carry out, together with the Deputy Director, systematic pedagogical meetings with teachers, to exchange experiences and alternative proposals that aim to improve education;
II - Encourage moments of study, reflection and exchange of experiences, ensuring dialogue, construction and implementation of the Pedagogical Political Project and the involvement of all segments of the school community;

III - To establish the routine of teachers, through systematic educational interventions, the constant dynamic of reflection on the pedagogical practice, to prioritize actions that favor progress in student learning.

The project includes school attendance times to mediate research, as well as remote communication with support from the Municipal Education Secretariat - SEMED it suggests that training should follow topics:

- Public and curriculum policies. Needs of schools. Projects built by the schools. Provide theoretical and methodological subsidies for study and meeting the needs of pedagogical work. Theoretical and methodological improvement in the form of exchange of experiences, systematic studies, workshops, forum, blogger, wiki methodology and electronic magazine. (SEMED, 2009, p. 48).

This context is aimed at professional development, building actions based on the school curriculum, and the articulation of the Pedagogical Political Project, regiment and school plan and how André (2006) states, it becomes teacher is an ongoing process.

**The Curriculum Full Time School to Students**

According to the proposal of the Full Time School curriculum should be understood as follows:

The full-time school keeps the curriculum flexible view, distanced from the traditional conteudismo. Does not abandon the idea, of course, but does not consider the center of attention. Curriculum is how to organize the study of the students, with the largest foundation the right to learn well. "Convey content" is something out of place. What matters is the student learn how well each content will not be clogged with mountains of materials which sees only superficially. First, being infinite content, we can only have them selective vision. It is not for want to account for every conceivable content. Second, there is, as a rule, a diversity of subject content, imagine realize everyone is supposed that the student is a genius capable of infinite instruction. Indeed, if each teacher wants to "pass" all the contents that fit you, there would be no nut to do so. If each teacher gives only account their specialty, as the student would expert of all specialties? Third, of course older content more important than realizing them is whether to renew them, the following know that thinking may be more important to master content. Do not relegate content, just do not make them the sense of school. Its meaning is learning well. (SEMED, 2009, p. 12)

The full-time school works with learning environments and study time, mediated by the teacher and is organized curricularmente in "study time" (learning environments), two in the morning, two in the afternoon with flexible and wide zones ( neither too long nor too narrow).

The key activity is to study, not attending class. To study means the systematic dedication, thorough and well argued curricularmente the relevant issues, in such a way the result that the improvement designed by the student. The study admits individual and collective modes, both of which are essential. The individual moments, the student must be with himself, knowing focus, working out with own hand, think for yourself. In collective moments, students
are integrated into study groups, with each what their best possible contribution, resulting in a text cooperative authorship. Both times have virtues and risks.

Study only individual decays to individualism and competition, as if it were intended to promote school disputes between students. Study only the collective rewards easily comodismos who avoids dedicate themselves to the collective task, while a few are esfalfam. The abuse does not hinders the use: we need individual and collective virtues, although educational privilege collective virtues. It is up to teaching proper guidance for the proper use of the study. Study time should admit alternative ways of your organization, for example, activities monitored by the students themselves, possible outlets for research, own drives of children who can not stay long stops, playful expressions compatible with age, intense interactivity, although with enough school discipline.

The basic strategy will always be from the student's needs, biological and mental fabric, the pace of growth, personality development horizon, not the teacher. This is strictly in the service of the student and should do everything to live up to the expectations of the students. Thus, the curriculum is properly organized and orchestrated study strategy, not simply managing content to be absorbed through classes, often instructionist.
The school's curriculum meets the common and diverse base as established by LDB, No. 9394, December 20, 1996 and its curriculum the following organization:

Although the concept of curriculum is broader than simply discução around school subjects and as Goodson (1997, p.9) stresses "the school curriculum is a social artifact and historical subject to changes and fluctuations and is not a reality fixed and timeless" a major challenge for educators is exactly selects them. Thus, it is important to consider selection criteria, since the amount of knowledge that can work with the students is immense.

Table 51: Load the school curriculum meets the common and diverse base as established by LDB, No. 9394, December 20, 1996 and its curriculum the following organization. Source: ouwn article author
The definition of expectation of learning based on well defined criteria: social and cultural relevance; Relevance to the student's intellectual formation and potential for building common skills; Potentiality of establishing interdisciplinary connections; Accessibility and suitability for the age group.

The school curriculum based themselves in five methodological principles to guide the organization of the pedagogical work in learning environments that will be developed by teachers and students, among these principles are: education through research; interactive learning; technological fluency; insertion criticism in reality and environmental education.

The use of New Information and Communication Technologies – NICTs

We understand that more and more, society requires citizens who understand the new technologies of communication and information. This society brings with it some challenges ranging from one extreme to another: technophobes who fear technology and technophiles who idolize technologies.

According to Rocha (2006, p.81), the technophobes are people who have an excessive fear of technology believing that these will create different circuits for those who may or may not have access to it. The fear that these people have the technology end up away from society and of many relevant links to it. Already, technophiles are related to people living on the basis of technology making indiscriminate and constant use of the same and Rocha (idem) describes it this way, "indiscriminate use and defense technology for any educational proposal".

Among the existing challenges in contemporary society related to computer use have also the relationship of whether or not technological illiterate or technological functional illiterate or technologically literate, among other terms and existing concepts to tell how you are able to make use of machine.

According to Oliveira (1999), the field of technology for some students is the reason for exclusion and inequality when compared to others, so have computers at school does not mean improvement in the quality of education. According to Oliveira (2000), the so-called myth of technology, involves the illusion be attributed to technological resources, a value above their means of influence on improving the teaching and learning process. For technology does not occur alone, it takes planning, consistency in the use, both for the teacher and for the student, because it allows a significant learning with regard to studies or content.

In this sense, we realize that the issue of training for NTIC involves a series of phases and segments that need to be properly addressed in order to create a solid foundation, leaving no gaps, to support the following steps, not only in the initial / vocational training, the teacher, but also in practice, in perceptions to understand this new culture. Kenski (1997, p.68) adds "understand this new world we are entering a new logic, a new culture, a new sensibility, new perception."Handle this speed information and changes of post modernity, it is no easy task, especially when discussing a topic as controversial / complex: the use of technology as an educational resource in the school context.

According Kenski (1998), education professionals need to know the advantages and disadvantages of ICTs, so that they can be turned into tools, resources and partners. They need a preparation / training to work in the digital society; must take part in team production of new educational technologies, for the majority of programs / software are produced by experts and not by educators, teachers, and educators. Thus, understanding how to use new
educational technologies by teachers can guarantee them the security to take precedence over the socio-political impositions of technological indiscriminate raids to classrooms.

To Belloni (1998), it needs to ensure the democratization of access to means of communication, stimulate and conditions when preparing the new generations for active and critical appropriation of these new technologies. In this sense, the school needs to ensure the formation of free and autonomous citizens, subjects of the educational process, and we still need teachers identified with his new role as researchers to be inserted in a world increasingly informational and computerized. The author also points out that it is essential to an innovative training, both initial and continued to prepare teachers to work with NICT. It suggests that we need to invest in the analysis, selection and evaluation of experiences and educational materials, while promoting the development and experiencing strategies and innovative materials; creation of laboratories, invent teaching methodologies; invest in the production of materials; production of knowledge just so you can prepare teachers to work with NICT.

Final considerations

To discuss the final considerations we return to the objective of the research that was intended to discuss curriculum issues related to the use of new Information and Communication Technologies - ICTs in continuing education process of teachers in a school full-time in Campo Grande / MS - Brazil.

And we concluded that to realize this curriculum you must have the full-time teacher, gazetted and well prepared, the project start was performed a selection of gazetted teachers 40 hours and they were already finished their probation, however this frame teachers do not stay in school. We currently have all teachers crowded 40 hours, and with some 20 hours for support, however not all are gazetted 40 hours and considering the contributions of New Information and Communication Technologies in the teaching and student learning.

He is a professor of law study while working. In full-time school do not study at specific times, but all the time, because its constitution is a permanent learning environment. All made in it should have some connection, more or less intense, with research and develop, that is, everything we do is done on behalf of authorship, formal quality and political.

The teachers of the school will offer full-time, permanent training and systematically, always linked with one of the school's principles that the technological training. The opportunity to hear speakers is commendable, but it is not really learning. Ongoing formation requires uninterrupted production itself, whose attempt to become indispensable means of publication and discussion, either in traditional environments, whether in electronic environments.

Teachers have the right to absent himself for participation in events where these actors have own work or participate productively research groups or something similar. It is strongly suggested that share virtual discussion groups, build knowledge in virtual environments, discuss among themselves challenges of student learning, ventilating fundamental issues of education, and so on.

The intention is to make the teacher full time school in a student, a researcher, an author. He has every reason to deal with students, even know how to build knowledge does not necessarily imply pedagogical skill.

Teachers have secured seven hours of individual planning and 8 hours of group planning, these eight hours half takes place every Friday in the afternoon and the other four hours occur together with the responsible engineer and
deputy director. Believe are issues like this that will provide conditions to build and put into practice a more meaningful curriculum to students and the work of the teacher.

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‘Digital immigrants’ versus ‘digital natives’: Problematizing the speech of digital technologies in curriculum policies in Brazil

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Throughout this century, we have witnessed an effort to include digital technologies (DT) in Brazilian state schools. In this growing technological context, the centrality attributed to the uses of technology in education has been identified as a defining element of current discourses of and about teaching, as well as some speeches have gained prominence and become naturalized in the educational field. Thus, this paper seeks to problematize the discourses on ‘digital native’ and ‘digital immigrant’ appropriated in the official curriculum documents elaborated by the Brazilian Federal government when it comes to DT in the school context. As the pedagogical discourses about DT are re-contextualized through disputes between the different agents and/or institutions in the educational field, whose evidences may be apprehended, especially in the official curriculum policies, as this is a privileged instance of legitimate pedagogical discourse production, we consider that the discourses on DT appropriated in curriculum documents tend to present teachers and children in opposite sides. The fact that we have a generation of children born in the digital age versus ‘analog teachers’ has been widely used as one of the explanations to justify the difficulties in technology integration into school. Such pedagogical discourses on DT prescribe a set of provisions related to the practical and theoretical knowledge field inherent in teaching, which in turn have contributed to legitimize an imagined teacher lagging behind, as well as they seem to reaffirm essentialist and deterministic assumptions about childhood. By mapping the educational discourses on DT in current official curriculum documents, we observed in the speeches that emphasize the need for school and teacher modernization an excess of ‘presentism’ and ‘impressionism’ towards technologies. At the same time, there are two tendencies on the child's social role in relation to DT: the first indicates an expertise in how children deal with different technologies, being this ‘natural ability’ associated to a generational experience, but still registered only the technical issue. The second tendency, to some extent, is supported by the first. As children are only ‘technically competent’ in the use of digital technologies they are at risk, as Internet is not a secure environment for them. In addition, the way official documents address the ‘digital inclusion’, as if it were something spontaneous and that can be induced by computer supplying and Internet access, points to a deterministic view of technology, as if it were endowed with a number of qualities that impact (for better or worse) the relationships between teachers and children, regardless of their context, mistaking access for meaningful use of technology, denying the possibility of agency and empowerment both by the teachers and children.

Keywords: Children; teachers, digital technologies; curriculum.
Initial arguments

Over the past three decades, we have witnessed an effort to include digital technologies (DT)\textsuperscript{47} in public schools of different Latin American countries. In Brazil, particularly, the government has developed policies and educational programs since the mid-1980s, aiming at equipping computer labs in schools, with TV, video kits and, more recently, laptops, computers, tablets and internet network.

In this context, the discourse on DT has been incorporated into pedagogical discourse from the perspective of ‘education reform’, considering the technology as an indispensable item to solve various educational issues (interest, school failure, inclusion), socioeconomic issues (inclusion of the ‘Southern’ countries in the globalized world and inequality reduction) and/or conflicts of generation (native versus digital immigrants). All that is based on the idea that the school needs to be modernized to meet the challenges imposed by the modern way of life, digital culture, globalization, Knowledge Society, Network Society, Information Society etc.

These discourses on DT have gone through different spheres of the social field; particularly they have been adopted in official curriculum documents, which naturalize a set of views about teaching, child, childhood, curriculum and technologies. Within these discourses, a widespread and naturalized use of the categories ‘digital immigrant’ and ‘digital native’ has drawn our attention, both used to describe the relationship between teachers and children when it comes to DT. We consider such categories insufficient and too limited to understand the complexity of relationships between society, individual and technology. It is about putting the responsibility on children and young people for the initiative and dynamics in the use of technologies, regardless of what the adults can do in order to provide richer and more challenging uses of such technologies. Besides the fact that the experiences children and young people have with technologies are strongly linked to their socio-economic level and cultural capital (Dussel, 2012).

Based on that, we seek to question the discourse of ‘digital native’ and ‘digital immigrant’ as adopted by official curriculum documents elaborated by the Brazilian federal government. More specifically, we seek to reflect on the relationship between teaching, child, childhood, technology and curriculum, based on the analysis of discourses on DT present on the following documents: CNE/CP No. 9/2001 and CNE/CP No. 1/2002 - National Guidelines for Teacher Education of Basic Education and the 2013 General National Curriculum Guidelines for Basic Education.

We decided to use the official curriculum policies as a source of investigation, considering that the Brazilian State occupies a privileged position, that is, it is known, recognized and legitimate in the process of production, distribution and circulation of pedagogical discourses and curriculum proposals.

In this research, curriculum policies are understood as an area of ‘symbolic action’ and re-contextualization of pedagogical discourses (Bernstein, 1996). These are the results of polemic and continuous decisions, clashes with different cultural, social and economic projects in dispute (Pacheco, 2003). They are built on a cyclical process, marked by struggles between social projects with antagonistic interests, which emerge from a continuous interaction between contexts, texts, discourses and practices (Ball, 1997).

\textsuperscript{47} We chose the use of the term Digital Technology as it is the most present resource in programs of technology insertion in schools. According to Amaral (2011), digital technology refers to digital convergence of the video, text and graphics. It means, therefore, a new materiality of images, texts and sounds that in the computer memory are mathematically defined and processed by algorithms, in numerical combinations of 0 or 1.
Thus, considering that the pedagogical discourses about DT are re-contextualized through disputes between the different agents and/or institutions of the educational field, we assume that the pedagogical discourses on DT tend to have teachers and children in opposition. This has contributed to legitimize an imaginary teacher lagging behind time, and it also seems to reaffirm essentialist and deterministic assumptions about childhood and technology.

In the following topics, initially, we discuss some theoretical assumptions about childhood, technology and teaching linked to the research, followed by a synthesis of discourses on DT in curriculum policies analyzed in the survey. Finally, the text ends with some reflections on the implications of ‘immigrant’ and ‘digital native’ categories, in order to understand the relationship between childhood, teaching practice and DT.

**Some notes on childhood, teaching and technology**

In the late twentieth and early twenty-first centuries, the idea that seems to gain force among various thinkers about childhood is that this is a ‘social construction’. Such idea carries, from a ‘new’ perspective, the consideration that the child is also subject of research, exercising thus the first steps for the emancipation of a silenced subject throughout history.

Despite these discussions, the historical construction of childhood has been carried out through the exclusion of children from social spaces of influence, confining them to a conditioned social space controlled by adults, especially at school, which in the development of modern society becomes the main and dominant form of education for children and training of new generations. This way school becomes the institution with more intimate connection with a childhood concept formulated in a certain historical time.

From the field of childhood studies, we work on the premise that childhood and education are mutually built concepts. Thus, we believe that research curriculum documents presents possibilities to glimpse the discourses that end up producing childhood ideas and the meaning of being a teacher. In this context, during the recent decades, researches seeking to understand children’s relationship with DT have usually been intensified under an adult perspective. It is no longer possible to deny the presence of technology in children's lives and, in this sense, we should pay attention to the implications of the concept of childhood, as well as the concept of child in our time. According to Sarmento (2002, p. 11), ‘the historical construction of childhood was the result of a complex production process of representation regarding the children, their daily life structure and worlds of life, and, especially, the establishment of social organizations for children’.

Despite the apparent centrality of children in school, they often seem invisible to policymakers. Such invisibility corresponds to a certain lack of evaluation of policy formulation impacts on different generations, especially children. Childhood is not a passing phase; its subjects (the children) are. Thus, any measure of policy affects in different ways the various generations (Qvortrup, 2010a, 2010b). Such impacts can be clearly perceived in school, which is the historical institutionalization of childhood disciplining processes (Foucault, 1993). It is an arena of conflict for political and pedagogical projects that can be directed to a defense of the expansion of children’s rights, as well as to promote practices settled in domination.
There is no doubt about the importance of DT in defining children’s cultures today. According to the ICT Children 2010 report (CGI.br, 2012)\(^{48}\), 51% of Brazilian children said they had used the computer at least once. Another significant finding showed in the ICT Kids Online Brazil 2012 research report (CGI.br, 2013)\(^{49}\) points out that, in Brazil, the majority (58%) of Internet young users, between 9 and 16, access Internet in their homes, and school appears in second place, cited by 42% of the interviewees.

The same report, in 2013, indicates that using Internet for school purposes, for example, is the most commonly mentioned activity done by children: 87% of Internet users aged between 9 and 17 years old say they access the network for that purpose. The report also highlights the fact that 49% of children and young people claim that they receive advice from their teachers about the safe use of internet (CGI.br, 2014).

Even with this data, teachers deal with a professional scenario of discredit, in which they are classified, according to some theoretical perspectives, as ‘virtual immigrants’ and their students as ‘virtual natives’. Besides the expectation of a non-confirmed education improvement, by the use of technology in the school context, it seems to have generated a sense of ‘malaise’ (Esteves, 1999). The school and more particularly teachers feel they have failed to deliver on their ‘mission’, contributing this way to the image of teachers as a time ‘misfit’ professional group, due to changes of a globalized world.

Barreto (2004) notes the existence of DT use in education policies and teacher education processes, as well as a significant number of studies attempting to redefine the status of the teaching profession. These studies suggest ways that could overcome the receptive learning model towards a professional who works in a network and incorporates technologies in his/her pedagogical practice. However, these policies and many of these studies, according to the author, share the view, implicitly or explicitly, of an ‘education as commodity’, ignoring the historical and social determinants of school as well as the struggle of those who advocate for ‘education as right and emancipatory practice’.

Stating that pedagogical discourses on DT in curriculum policies generate new teaching provisions, in this case, teachers who are able to handle DT and its insertion in the process of teaching and learning is nothing new, as this is one of the objectives of curriculum policies. However, these speeches, when are part of the context of official pedagogical discourses, do not only prescribe a set of provisions, but they also influence the way of being a teacher nowadays. The pedagogical discourses on DT, constantly associated with the ideas of ‘modernization’, put the teacher in a discreditable position, disregarding the constraints that involve the educational context and showing a perspective of ‘superiority’ of technology, reducing the very concept of an instrumental dimension.

This form of technology incorporation in pedagogical discourse seems to have as main feature the absence of historicity, evidenced by excessive presentism and impressionism, as observed by Pinto (2005) in relation to the idea of living a ‘technological revolution’ or ‘technological age’. As stated by the author, before the technological apparatus of a person’s time, in a naive conception of technology, people become unable to locate a fact in the process that this fact was generated. They ignore the historical connections and make it impossible to evaluate

\(^{48}\) Research report conducted by the Internet Management Committee in Brazil (CGI.br), which mapped the social impacts of ICTs and digital inclusion for children between 5 and 9 years old in Brazil.

\(^{49}\) Research report conducted by the Internet Management Committee in Brazil (CGI.br), which aimed to map the opportunities and the risks associated with the use of Internet by Brazilian children and adolescents between 9 and 16 years old.
past situations that they did not attend, being impressed by the idea of superiority of the current situation. People do not realize

... the historical conditions that explain it, get stunned before a tremendous multiplication of facts and technological products in which the human existence is now found involved with, and proclaim with full spirit of candor we are living an exceptional time, characterized by an astonishing ‘technological explosion’ that surrounds the life of mankind to a point that modifies it in all its manifestations … (Pinto, 2005, p. 233).

In this respect, the technology is taken as instrument and panacea, and thus it has the perception of being producer of human and not a human product, which Pinto (2005) called as ‘idealization of technology’ (technocentrism). Such ideas seem to be a fundamental dimension to the education area, which has been presented as fertile for passive and uncritical adaptation of technological project insertion in schools, which often, instead of being an instrument, become the educational purpose.

Another key issue for teachers and children is the recognition that there is a difficult dialog between digital and school culture. The first requires a social place of the subject who collaborates by experiencing new forms of authorship, subjectivity and sociability; and the second that puts the subject in the role of a recipient student of ‘the adult action, agent of prescribed behaviors, by which he/she [the student] is evaluated, rewarded or punished’ (Sarmento, 2011, p. 588).

These ways of understanding DT in the education area has hindered further analysis about the ways that children and teachers build their learning in relation to DT, in addition we also have to take into account that more active and participatory relationships will not flourish on their own or by the mere contact of children with digital technologies. Therefore, we must consider another way of understanding their relation with DT, considering children and teachers as social actors, in which children build cultural forms that are historically based and developed in ‘specific modes of intra-generational and inter-generational communication’ (Sarmento, 2002, p. 21).

**Curriculum policies and ICT: what do documents prescribe?**

In this paper, we take as object of reflection the CNE/CP n° 9/2001 Ruling and CNE/CP n° 1/2002 Resolution - National Guidelines for Teacher Education of Basic Education and the 2013 General National Curriculum Guidelines for Basic Education. We selected these documents because they guide course projects of teachers’ initial and continuing education, and school systems, schools and teachers on what they should focus regarding the organization of their educational projects in different educational levels of Basic Education. In addition, these documents are prepared under the National Board of Education with the participation of several representative institutions, where they confront concepts of education, school, teaching and curricula.

In the education area, different DT resources have been entering school and educational policies since the mid-twentieth century, as means of qualifying the school and the teacher, reviving ‘discursive practices and policies that in the past two centuries have been constantly linked to the adoption of new technologies and school materials towards an educational renewal’ (Souza, 2013, p. 104).
In relation to documents that express the curriculum policies in Brazil, discursive practices on DT are mobilized similarly in different texts. In the Guidelines for Teacher Education, knowledge related to ICT has been incorporated as a priority and its presence in the ongoing projects has been a legal requirement since 2002. In Article 2, section VI, it is determined that the curriculum of each institution should observe other ways of guidance related to teaching activities, including the preparation for ‘the use of information and communication technologies and methodologies, innovative strategies and support materials’ (Brazil, 2002).

These guidelines are based on CNE/CP 9/2001 and 27/2001 Rulings, which presented a wide range of ideas and assumptions about teacher education. The CNE/CP No. 9/2001 Ruling builds an overview of issues to be tackled in teacher education and devotes an exclusive section to address the ‘lack of content related to information and communication technologies’. The text starts with the statement that the use of new ICTs is considered an important resource for basic education and ‘the same should apply to teachers’ education’. However, the document emphasizes the low chance that future teachers have to learn how to use equipment or develop curriculum contents using different technologies, noting that the courses attached to traditional forms reinforce attitudes of resistance to the use of ICT, ‘a result of the insecurity that educators and student-teachers feel’, heading ‘against the technological development of contemporary society’. In this sense, the document concludes that ‘it is urgent to insert various information and communication technologies in the development of teacher education courses’. Moreover, the document points out the necessity to prepare them for ‘management and definition of ethical, scientific and aesthetic references for the exchange and negotiation of meaning, which especially occurs in the interaction and collective school work [...] in real and virtual environments’ (Brazil, 2001, p. 24-25).

Thus, we can observe that the document highlights the positivity of ICT as a school form of fitting in the contemporary society, marked by the advent of mass communication and digital technologies; as well as the delay of teacher education courses regarding the incapacity to fit into this new era. ‘Courses still do not know how to prepare teachers who will exercise the teaching profession over the next two decades, when technology mediation will expand and diversify ways to interact and share in time and space never imagined before’ (Brazil, 2001, p. 25).

Discursive practices, which link educational innovation and technology, as a way to keep the school in tune with the demands of contemporary society, are also privileged in the General National Curriculum Guidelines for Basic Education. It is a document that seeks to serve a ‘reinvention of Brazilian education’, putting themselves at the service of the ‘[...] construction of a fairer and supportive nation, able to develop all its great potential’ (Brazil, 2013, p. 4). Discourse on ICT permeates various parts of the document. It presents itself as imperative to different levels of basic education:

a) as a curricular organization element – ‘the common national base and the diverse part are organized and managed in such a way that also the information and communication technologies cut across the proposed curriculum from kindergarten to high school, directing political-pedagogical projects’ (Brazil, 2013, p. 33);

b) as a methodological resource – ‘understand the effects of “infoera”, knowing that these effects increasingly act in the lives of children, adolescents and adults, in order to get to know the students, on one side; and the education professionals and family on the other, but recognizing that the media resources must permeate all learning activities’ (Brazil, 2013, p. 30). Also, ‘the use of new media and educational technologies as a process of dynamic learning environments’ (Brazil, 2013, p. 50);
c) as a **mean of access to knowledge and digital inclusion** – ‘the technological infrastructure, as educational support to school activities, must also ensure student access to the library, radio, television, open Internet and possibilities of digital convergence’ (Brazil, 2013, p. 25). ‘qualified use of technology and media content as a resource linked to the development of the curriculum contributes to the important role played by school as a digital inclusion environment and in critical use of information and communication technologies’ (Brazil, 2013, p. 136);

d) as an **indispensable item in teacher education** – ‘it is necessary to provide teachers with suitable education to the use of information and communication technologies and secured provision of updated media resources in sufficient quantities for students’ (Brazil, 2013, p. 111). Pedagogical Master Plans ‘provide continuing education for managers and teachers so that they can keep up on the field of knowledge that they need to handle, work regarding adoption, option of a more suitable didactic and pedagogical method to learning that they should experience and stimulate, including those pertaining to the Information and Communication Technologies (ICT)’ (Brazil, 2013, p. 49).

The above excerpts, among many others, show the diversity of discourses on DT, related to different dimensions of the school environment, which directly or indirectly impact on the set of activities that the teacher exerts. In the document, the teacher is described in a position of resistance to DT, attached to the past and lagging behind digital capabilities.

… school is linked to traditional methodologies characteristics, with respect to teaching and learning as actions designed separately, the characteristics of their students require other processes and procedures […]. Students, among other features, learn to receive information quickly, like the parallel process of performing multiple tasks at the same time, prefer to make their graphics before reading the text […]. Teachers believe that they follow the digital era just because they type and print texts, have e-mail, not realizing that students were actually born in the digital era (Brazil, 2013, p. 24).

The way students and teachers allegedly deal with DT is incorporated to the discourse of curriculum policies from the binary logic opposition between ‘immigrant’ versus ‘native’, ‘new’ versus ‘old’, ‘artificial’ versus ‘natural’. DTs are presented either as a tool or as panacea for school, capable of promoting ‘new didactic and pedagogical methods’, ensuring access to knowledge. They seem to be a kind of ‘future of the present’ where ‘educational utopias appear to be supported by encouraging the pedagogical use of information and communication technology in school, as well as by government strategies that make use of them to mediate our contemporary digital anxieties’ (Sossai, Silva & Mendes, 2012, p. 74).

The discourse on the insertion of DT that appear in the texts of the analyzed curriculum policies is based on the images of (digital) children and youngsters opposed to the profile of (analog) teachers. This marks the fact that children and youngsters ‘were born in the digital era’, and their teachers only ‘believe that they follow the digital era’. ‘This distance needs to be overcome by approaching the technological resources of information and communication and stimulating the creation of new didactic and pedagogical methods’ (Brazil, 2013, p. 25-26). Today, the teacher is required to have more than a set of cognitive skills, especially if we consider the very logic of the digital world and the media in general, which presupposes learning to deal with digital natives […]’ (Brazil, 2013, p. 59).
Such arguments have been used widely as one of the explanations for the difficulties of technology integration in schools. In this sense, some categories emerge in the field in order to understand the position of children in relation to digital technologies. One of these mobilized categories is the ‘digital native’, used to define the ones born immersed in technology (Prensky, 2001).

The use of expression ‘digital natives’ in a generic way appears to disregard the existence of at least two levels of ‘digital division’: one related to access to technologies from the possession and frequency of use and the other related to the uses and skills that they presuppose (Livingstone & Helsper as quoted in Ponte & Simões, 2013). Thus, ‘if access corresponds to basic and necessary condition to think about digital inclusion, it is not enough to ensure equal opportunities before the available technologies’ (Ponte & Simões, 2013, p. 28).

In this sense, we must be aware of the differences between quality in the use of technology by children and young people, and the importance of not confusing access to technology with significant use of technology, increase in the empowerment of users. In addition, the document itself alerts to the singularities of children and youngsters attended by basic education:

… it is important to consider Narodowski’s words (1998). He appropriately understands that school today lives with students of a (un)accomplished childhood, youth, who are on the streets in a situation of risk and exploitation, and those of a (hyper) performed childhood and youth with full technology control over the Internet, Orkut, chats. It is no longer possible to treat students as if they were homogeneous, submissive, voiceless… (Brazil, 2013, p. 35).

At the same time they present such singularities, the way the guidelines address the ‘digital inclusion’ - as if it were something spontaneous, which can be induced by simply supplying computers and providing internet access – presents, through the narratives about the category ‘digital native’, a set of essentialist assumptions about children and technology. Children are seen as if they were born ‘technically qualified’ to deal with DT, without actually recognizing their experiences. It also presents a deterministic view of technologies, as if they were endowed with a number of qualities that impact (for better or worse) children, regardless of the context in which they operate (Selwyn, 2009).

New challenges arise for the school, as it also plays an important role in digital inclusion of students. The school needs to explore these resources and in accordance with its possibilities submit them to its educational purposes. We should also consider the fact that the proliferation of media and information in the market societies strongly contributes to spread, among children, youngsters and the population in general, an excessive appeal to the consumerism and a vision of a fragmented world, which leads to the trivialization of events and indifference to the human and social problems. ‘It is important that the school contributes to transform students into critical consumers of the products offered by those means, and at the same time make use of media resources as relevant tools in the learning process, which could also promote dialog and communication between teachers and students’ (Brazil, 2013, p. 111).

Again, we face with the denial of children and youngsters’ singularity to present another facet to childhood notions that the document presents, so they are seen as victims of a potent and highly manipulative form of consumerism culture, to which is almost impossible to resist. This does not mean that we are denying the considerable market power in determining available meanings and pleasures. When presenting school as the agent ‘to transform
students into critical consumers of the products offered by these means’, the document does not seem to take into account that the ‘children themselves play a key role in creating these meanings and pleasures, and they can define them and own them in different ways’ (Buckhinghan, 2012, p. 68). In addition, we must note that not all children and young people have the same ability to access consumer goods, as this access does not depend on someone’s will only, but also on material resources. ‘[…] market is not a neutral mechanism and the marketized provision of goods and services (including in media and in education) can exacerbate existing inequalities’ (Buckhinghan, 2012, p. 67).

After all, immigrants, natives or digitally excluded?

In the analyzed documents, we observed a tendency of discourses related to DT that emphasize the need for school and teacher modernization. This is justified by the idea that we live in a ‘society of information’ and its derivations. This society is presented in a ‘positive’ and ‘neutral’ way with little or no critical questioning and a surplus of ‘presentism’ and ‘impressionism’, when it comes to understanding the relationship between individuals and technologies. Their senses in the teaching field unfold into an imagined ‘performance-teaching-technology’, capable of ensuring skilled teachers in order to guarantee the ‘future of the present’. At the same time the teacher is put into a discredit situation, due to his/her delay or in debt to children’s time, supposedly the digital time.

The discourse on DT associated with children and young people, as presented in the analyzed documents, shows two tendencies on the child’s social role in relation to DT: The first indicates an ‘innate’ expertise in how children deal with the different technologies, associating this ‘natural ability’ to a generational experience, entered as a technical issue. The second tendency, to a certain extent, is supported by the first, as the child is only ‘technically competent‘ in the use of digital technologies, he/she is at risk, as Internet is not a secure environment for them.

Thus, what appears in official documents, despite the apparent contradiction, in fact engenders the same speech that seems to ignore the difference. Even when advocating inclusion, by idealizing the ‘digital native’, it provokes exclusions, when understanding the digital native as someone who carries something that the ‘digitally excluded’ do not. Such speech provides a kind of dominant conception of what is legitimate and expected from children in their relationship with technology, i.e. being ‘normal’ is to be ‘digital native’. Thus, ‘practices and conceptions of children who are set apart from normativity defined by the dominant classes and social groups can lead to an exclusion of these children from their own childhood recognized social status: themed as “not children”’ (Sarmento, 2011, p. 585).

In addition, we must question the interest arising from a market of profitable products, as computer input in school; individualization of teaching through a standardized instructional material; as well as the fetish of an unrestricted and uncontrolled communication. It is disregarded that what at first appears to be more democratic, less hierarchical than the erudite or scientific knowledge, reintroduces new forms of vertical integration of content that shape new knowledge maps (Dussel, 2014, p. 12).

Notwithstanding the inequalities of access and use of DT by children, depending on their social and cultural background, and the conceptions of child and childhood expressed in curriculum documents, guided by a certain determinism, there seems to be an opening for change on the role of children in school. They cease to be simply a passive recipient of knowledge defined exclusively by the teacher. Moreover, such knowledge also scaled by the
active participation of children in school could become the ‘powerful knowledge’, ‘knowledge that, for most of them, could not be acquired at home or in their community’ (Young, 2007, p. 1294).

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Teacher education
Curriculum practices in the formation of history teachers in Sergipe in distance education: Permanences and changes

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In Brazil, distance education is a modality whose usage is recent in initial formation of teachers. The federal politics of distance education is an educative action coordinated by Open University of Brazil, which is executed through public institutions of higher education. In Sergipe, unit of the federation placed in the Northeast region, the teaching degree courses have been offered since 2007, through the Center for Distance Higher Education of a federal public university. It was offered, in the first moment, seven teaching degree courses to qualificate teachers in areas such as Portuguese, Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Geography and History. In 2012, only three of these courses had students that finished their graduations: three in Chemistry, eleven in Portuguese and forty in History. This considerable success in the History course led us to investigate the reasons for such success and if it was related to the course’s curriculum practices. As we determined the lack of studies about curriculum of the teaching degree courses in distance education, the curriculum dimension became the central issue of the research. It constituted an assumption the fact that the decision-making related to the selection of knowledges in culture considers political and ideological guidelines and theoretical and methodological orientations in dispute, inserted in specific time and place. The aim of the research was to analyze curriculum practices of the formation and its unfoldments in professional and personal spheres about the participants. The investigation was guided by a qualitative approach, using the thematic oral history methodology by the gathering of narratives of egress teachers from the first class of the History course, distance education modality, of the public institution of higher education analyzed. For the choices of the individuals the current condition of an egress and the effective teaching practice in History in basic education was considered. A documentary analysis of the education legislation concerning distance education was also made. For the analysis of the collected data it was adopted procedures of Content Analysis, concerning the thematic analysis. The research pointed as main result the prevalence of permanences about changes in the curriculum of formation of History teachers. The permanences were expressed in a formation presided by the precepts of the scientific and technical rationality, distinguished by the ranking between the knowledges and prevalence of subjects of “contents”. It was determinated permanence of a linear and chronological perspective of History concerning the organization of the contents and the disposition of the subjects in great historical periods. The terminal position of curriculum components of pedagogical formation is a third permanence. The curriculum structure proved to be far from enabling a further development of the discussion related to the organization of scholary and educational work. Thus, when local characteristics were ignored, the curriculum detached the dialogue with the schools and their realities, complicating the approach between times and spaces of formation and professional performance. Positive effects were observed in personal sphere as much as in professional, reaffirming the potentialities of distance education in initial formation of teachers.

Keywords: curriculum, curriculum practices, distance education, teaching degree in History.
In Brazil, distance education is a modality whose usage is recent in initial formation of teachers. The federal politics of distance education is an educative action coordinated by Open University of Brazil, which is executed through public institutions of higher education.

In Sergipe, unit of the federation placed in the Northeast region, the Center for Distance Higher Education of a federal public university have been offering teaching degree courses since 2007. The Center offered, in a first moment, seven teaching degree courses to qualify teachers in areas such as Portuguese, Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Geography and History. In 2012, only three of these courses had students that finished it: three in Chemistry, eleven in Portuguese and forty in History.

This considerable success in the History course led us to investigate the reasons for such success and if it was related to the course’s curriculum practices. As we determined the lack of studies about teaching degree courses curriculum in distance education, the curriculum dimension became the central issue in this research. It constituted an assumption the fact that the decision-making related to the selection of knowledge in culture considers political and ideological guidelines and theoretical and methodological orientations in dispute, inserted in specific time and place. This research aims to analyze curriculum practices of this formation and its unfoldment in participants' professional and personal levels.

A qualitative approach guided this investigation, using the thematic oral history methodology by the gathering of narratives of egress teachers from the first class of the History course, distance education modality, of the public institution of higher education analyzed. For choosing the interviewed people, we considered the current condition of an egress and the effective teaching practice in History in basic education. We also did a documentary analysis of the education legislation concerning distance education.

The proposition of using oral history research techniques in our study is justified in order to understand that this methodological path enable us to give a voice to the voiceless, in other words, to those that traditional historiography silenced (GOODSON, 1995; JOUTARD, 2000; MEIHY, 2002; THOMSON, 2000). The idea of ensuring teachers’ voices to be heard and understood and through their testimonials other realities not yet investigated become revealed was a substantial factor that propelled the attempt to reconstruct an interpretation of this new world, in other words, those people who acts in History teaching as a consequence of teaching formation through distance education.

For the analysis of the collected data we adopted procedures of Content Analysis, concerning the thematic analysis systematized by Bardin (2008), aiming at construction of analytical categories. Thematic analysis raises organization of categories and subcategories that contribute to analysis of inferences, not only of observations. This type of analysis corresponds to “treatment of information expressed in the message […] which may be also an analysis of meanings” (p. 37), aiming at catching the message’s central meaning based on its frequency.

Hereinafter, we present the trajectory of History curriculum at Federal University of Sergipe, aiming to understand its current composition and the similarities imposed to the curriculum implemented in History course in distance learning.
History curriculum at the Federal University of Sergipe

To analyze a History curriculum, Bittencourt (2004) suggests the adoption of two methods: internal and external analysis. In external analysis, we must verify authorship and historical contextualization of the conception of the document and it is important for the researcher to indicate the political conjuncture of the moment of its elaboration. The composition of the author team and the conditions of the document elaboration must be also considered.

Concerning internal analysis, Bittencourt suggests the comprehension of the document's general structure, in other words, its introduction, proposed objectives, contents, methodologies, evaluations and bibliography.

According to Veiga-Neto (2000), in order to understand curriculum, it is necessary to analyze it as a “school artifact” entwined in its own history contexts when the document was conceived. A curriculum is constituted by historicity, because beyond its own history, it is an important element in Education history.

The implementation of Bachelor and teaching degree in History and Geography in Sergipe was in 1951 and Sergipe’s Catholic College of Philosophy initially offered it. The course’s structure, according to the table below, was constituted by Bachelor’s subjects, which should be coursed in three years. The students who opted for teaching degree cours ed pedagogical subjects in the fourth year.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>SUBJECTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>Anthropologie, Physical Geography, History of Civilization, Human Geography and Theology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>Physical Geography, Ethnology, Human Geography, History of Civilization, History of Brazil and Theology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>Ethnography of Brazil, History of America, History of Civilization and Geography of Brazil</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 52: History course structure/1953.
Source: Report of the 1st semester in 1953 by Sergipe’s Catholic College of Philosophy

In order to obtain a deeper comprehension of teaching degree courses’ structure and organization as they exist currently, it is necessary to back away to the beginning of the 1960s, when the Law No. 4,024, on December 20, 1961, created the Federal Council of Education. It delegated, among others, the competence for fixing a minimum subjects and duration of graduation courses destined to staff training.

The Advice No. 377/62 approved on December 19, 1962 by the Federal Council of Education stablished History teaching formation’s minimum curriculum. According to this Advice, the minimum curriculum proposed was elaborated to prepare the future teacher for teaching in secondary school.\(^{50}\)

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\(^{50}\) The secondary school we refer to was implemented by Gustavo Capanema reform in 1942. This reform considered the former division of secondary school in two levels, but with a different configuration to this structure (Articles No. 2nd, 3rd and 4th).
The Resolution approved on December 19, 1962 set a minimum of contents and established 2,200 hours of activities for the course length, which should be completed in at least three years and, at most, seven years.

History minimum curriculum is now constituted of: 1) Introduction to the Study of History, Ancient History, Medieval History, Modern History, Contemporary History, History of America and History of Brazil; 2) Two subjects to be chosen among the following: Sociology, Cultural Anthropology, History of Political and Social Ideas, Economic History (General and Brazil), History of Art, Brazilian Literature, History of Philosophy, Geography (GeoHistory), Philosophy of Culture, Iberian civilization and Paleogeography.

For teaching degree courses, the Advice No. 292/62 approved by the Federal Council of Education established the requirement pedagogical subjects.

The pedagogical subjects required in teaching degree courses minimum curriculum [...] set by the Advice were: a) Psychology of Education: Adolescence and Apprenticeship; b) Didactic Method; c) Elements of School Administration; d) Teaching practices, under supervised practice subject.

In Sergipe, since 1963, History and Geography graduation course have been passing through reforms, in which each discipline became autonomous. In addition, the newly approved students could opt between Bachelor degree and Teaching degree in one of the courses. The elaboration of History curriculum in Sergipe, considered the Federal Council of Education’s Advice No. 292/62, according to the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>SUBJECTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>Portuguese, Introduction to Philosophy, Introduction to Study of History, Ancient History, Sociology and GeoHistory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>Medieval History, General Economic History and Brazil’s, History of America, Cultural Anthropology, Elements of School Administration and GeoHistory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>Modern History, General Economic History and Brazil’s, History of Brazil, Brazilian Anthropology, Didactic Method, Teaching Practices, Psychology of Education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th</td>
<td>Contemporary History, History of Brazil, History of Sergipe, Didactic Method, Teaching Practices, Geography of Sergipe and Sociology of Education.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The Federal Council of Education established in 1975 a minimum curriculum for History courses and it was guided by the idea that the study of History must imply “[…] detailed knowledge of historical reality, processes and methods which make History a science” (MEC, 1975, p. 262). History should be studied under the indispensable supposition of comprehension, in order to enable ample and diverse analysis of cultural manifestations inserted in multiple spiritual dimensions.
This document emphasize the importance of basic knowledge of historical methods and techniques for History teacher formation. Thereby, three orders of subjects were set to constitute History curriculum:

1) The historical subjects *per se*, in other words, the domain of universal history, as it is traditionally distributed according to a classification that, although may be considered outdated, it is the classical and presents practical aspects; 2) cultural subjects for complementation, indispensable for an adequate comprehension of the historical phenomenon; 3) historical methods subjects, in an introductory level, on account of specific objectives of the course (MEC, 1975, p. 263).

The Federal University of Sergipe's History course changed its curriculum structure in 1979, since de approval of the Resolution nº 22/79/CONEP51, which instituted new rules for the functioning and organization of graduation courses levels.

The mentioned resolution stablished that History graduation course would have Bachelor’s degree and Teaching degree dedicated to formation of teachers for the last years of the first and second grades or specialist in History. With the purpose of its application in full length, the History course was conceived with 163 credits. For the offer of subjects, it was stablished that the 1st level 52 would be constituted of Humanities subjects and the 2nd level of other subjects that constitutes the curriculum, to be defined by the students, as long as the prerequisites were accomplished.

For Teaching Degree in History, the Resolution 22/79 defined the pedagogical formation subjects as obligatory: Structure and Functioning of Teaching, Psychology of Education I, Psychology of Education II, Didactic Method, History Teaching Practice I and History Teaching Practice II.

In the context of curriculum reforms suggested by MEC (Department of Education, in English) in the beginning of the 1990s, a new pedagogical project was elaborated for Federal University of Sergipe's History Teaching Degree course, a duty that decommissioned a committee designated by the Department of Philosophy and History, whose proposition for the New Curriculum was made in July 1992.

According to the justification of the proposition for the elaboration of the new document, the former curriculum, implemented in 1979, had characteristics of ideals of an authoritarian State, restricting possibilities of confrontation of ideas and being far from the formative roles of historical conscious.

Another important aspect alleged to modify History curriculum was the observation that the formation provided for History teachers was not attending labor market necessities. According to the proposition, the History teachers graduated at Federal University of Sergipe were struggling in raising in 1st and 2nd years/grades students interest in study this subject, besides they were encouraging the conception of “useless” and mnemonic subject, because the teaching practice was limited to transmit knowledge stored over the course.

The 1992 Curriculum Proposition indicates that to remedy the deficiency in History teacher formation it is necessary to adopt a new curriculum that enables a “new mentality” about conceptions of History. Despite this argument, the curriculum approved kept the organization of subjects under a Eurocentric, linear and chronological

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51 The Advice No. 22/79/CONEP (certified on December 12t, 1979) approved the New Curriculum Structure for the Federal University of Sergipe and stablished its implementation in the second semester of 1980.

52 Also known as Communal Nucleus, the 1st level made available 26 subjects from many departments.
perspective of History, once the disposition of subjects were divided in great historical periods, according to the French quadripartite model (FONSECA, 1993, p. 50).

In order to enable a History formation founded on a scientific approach perspective and on overcoming the role of a teacher as an information “assimilator” and “transmitter”, the new curriculum included subjects aimed to thematic studies and to insertion of a research work incorporated to Teaching Practice subject.

Thus, the implementation of History course curriculum in 1992, in Federal University of Sergipe, had as its basic propositions to meet demands of its own nature as a place of knowledge production and demands of work market, which requires reorientation of its professionals’ acting.

The proposition of orientation of History course curriculum implemented in 1992 aimed to attend to a professional profile that overcome the traditional conceptions linked to a linear, chronological and personalist conceptions of History, implementing a conception of History based on principles of surpassing dichotomy between teaching and research, and theory and content.

Besides determining the importance for teacher-researchers through observance of a dynamic, critical and participative character, History professional’s profile also gives importance to new conceptions of historian work after consider the interpretation of iconography languages, cinema, literature, among others, as necessary subsidy for production of historical knowledge.

The Project for Curriculum Reform stablished a minimum term of four years and a maximum term of seven years to finish the course. It also stablished an hourly load of 2,490 class hours for obligatory subjects and 480 class hours for optative subjects.

In 1998, the Resolution No. 01/98/CONEP approved other changes in History teaching curriculum, many of them restricted to aspects linked to suppression, inclusion and deployment of some subjects and increase of hourly load; however, without changing meaningfully the principles that presided the organizational reforms in 1922 in the course’s contents.

Considering we have presented some of trajectory of History course at Federal University of Sergipe, classroom modality, we now propose to indicate some elements of History course curriculum in distance learning modality. Thereby, we aim to understand what curriculum assumptions subsidized teaching formation in the first class of egresses.

**History teaching curriculum in distance education**

On December 27, 2006, the Resolution No. 123/2006/CONEP approved the Pedagogical Project for Federal University of Sergipe's History teaching course in distance learning modality. In its article No. 11, the Resolution stablished the curriculum is analogous to History teaching in classroom modality.

Due to the course's specificity and in accord with the article No. 18 of the Resolution 123/2006/CONEP, the Didactic-Pedagogical coordination, just as well as evaluation and course monitoring, are the Center for Distance Higher Education’s competence, with support of Department of History, Center for Education and Human Sciences and The Office of Academic Affairs.
A first look at the History curriculum structure indicates the permanence of organizational principles of contents in a Eurocentric, linear and chronological perspective, once the subjects are organized in great historical periods, according to the following examples: Ancient History (2nd semester); Medieval History I (3rd semester); Modern History I (4th semester); Modern History II (5th semester); Contemporary History I (6th semester) and Contemporary History II (7th semester).

Another important aspect of History course curriculum composition is the clear maintenance of the technical rationality model, distinguished by the knowledge ranking through the disposition of the “contents” in the major part of the curriculum, leaving to the end of graduation subjects that use the basic knowledge and its practical application such as teaching practices.

The way subjects are organized in History teaching curriculum, in distance learning modality, is conflicting with the principle of surpassing traditional conceptions of History, constant in Resolution No. 16/02 that approved the pedagogical project for History teaching courses.

According to studies performed by Fonseca (1993), Bezerra (2003), Karnal (2003) and Bittencourt (2004), this “history of humanity” approach is a remnant of a European conception, which, in our context, does not attend anymore the course’s purposes. It is an example of organization of events based on an evolutionist conception, directing to a perspective of linearity and temporal sequentiality.

Another aspect, which is worth to emphasize, is the disposition of subjects in curriculum, which is related to pedagogical subjects, also known as Education specific content. Only one fifth of the hourly load of History teaching course in distance learning modality are specifically dedicated to systematic reflections about learning-teaching process. It is relevant noticing that in History teaching curriculum (classroom modality) subjects for pedagogical formation have been always unimportant because of the strength of technical and scientific rationality logic in this curriculum structure.

According to the approved curriculum, the pedagogical subjects offered by History teaching course through distance modality are Teaching Structure and Functioning, Introduction to Developmental Psychology (3rd semester), Introduction to Educational Psychology (4th semester), Supervised History Teaching Practice I (7th semester) and Supervised History Teaching Practice II (8th semester). It is worth mentioning the Didactic Method subject, in accord with what was established in Resolution 29/2007/CONEP, which approved the Pedagogical Project for History courses on June 11, 2007, now integrates Complementary Curriculum; therefore, it is not obligatory anymore.

The curriculum structure of History teaching course, as it occurs in classroom modality, minimize the pedagogical foundation, providing a decrease of opportunities of thinking and discussing, with a greater depth, aspects related to educational problems inherent to teaching.

Another relevant aspect is about the subjects considered as “practical subjects”, which are offered only in the end of curriculum. Such characteristic denotes the idea of disarticulation between theory and practice, a remarkable aspect of traditional teaching formation tendencies.

According to Rocha (2003), for the future teacher construct the didactic competence of transposition of History contents, besides mastering contents and theory, it is necessary, as a student, that the space-time enable them to
do systematic reflections related to teaching-learning process. According to the author, learning theories are still a “marginalized field in the tradition study of History teachers” (ROCHA, 2002, p.25).

In face of these first observations about History teaching curriculum in distance learning modality, we can affirm the written curriculum is, for several times, a culmination of decisions made by political and ideological standards and by methodological orientations of the controller groups, inserted in specific time and space.

In this regard, although it is a curriculum conceived for teaching formation, its structure is far from proposing a greater depth of discussions related to organization of schoolwork, in its multiple spaces and times, to teaching practice, to educational technologies, and it reinforces, almost exclusively, technical competences oriented to production and acquisition of historical knowledge by the students.

In other aspects, the comprehension of History curriculum structure in distance learning modality at Federal University of Sergipe provide us an important procedure to understand the formation process that integrates this research.

**Educational trajectories in teachers’ narratives**

With the proposition of subsidize curriculum practices of formation and its unfoldment in professional and personal dimensions about the participants of this research, we will analyze the interviewees’ testimonials.

The interviewees, who reflected about the beginning of their trajectories, referred to their families and places where they were born. In this regard, Claude Dubar (2005) informs that family involvement also constitutes an identity mark, considering that since birth we internalize attributed identity characteristics, a fact that continue with us for the rest of our lives.

Most of the teachers’ narratives were remarked by descriptions of their families and places’ socioeconomic difficulties, considering they are from rural areas. Such conditions entailed substantial obstacles for these professionals to start their school lives, according to what teacher Laelson says:

> Actually, nowadays I live downtown, but I used to live in a village named Colônia Sucupira, where I was born and raised. Then, when I was seven years-old, I started studying there, in the village. It is a rural area. I used to study and work, even being so young, and I believe that you know as much as I do that we had no option but working! […] my parents were small farmers and depended on farming. (Interview to the author on Apr. 28, 2015).

Teacher Raimundo, from Tabuleiro village, located in Arauá, remembered his childhood and lamented the fact that where he lived, “[…] that time, they did not have transportation to downtown, only for 6th to 9th years […].” Due to the lack of transportation to study in downtown, he kept “[…] three years without studying. A child and not attending school!”.

Demonstrating a strong satisfaction, he affirmed that only in 1991, Arauá’s mayor implemented a nighttime transportation system for Tabuleiro village to downtown. However, he emphasized the trip was always challenging and dangerous:
Because we used to go to downtown by truck, with no roof and no seats. It was like a party, actually, but a risky party. Nowadays it would be considered inhuman. But, at that time, it was the only thing we had. So, I attended school in 1991, on fifth grade in Arauá, at Manuel Bonfim School. And it was five years from fifth to eighth grade. (Interview to the author, Apr. 24, 2015).

In front of limited life conditions in rural localities and suburban areas related by the teachers, the opportunities of studying are seen as singular possibilities of social ascension and also as a necessary condition to conquer a professional activity and, consequently, to improve social and economic conditions.

The experience with difficulties to access and remain in secondary school predicted how hard it would be to attend higher education. Financial limitations, the localities’ distance from public institutions of higher education and the necessity of working were mentioned as restraining factors. However, at the same time, such factors were also stimulating for them to attend higher education through distance learning modality at Federal University of Sergipe, as teacher Elaine - who lives in Jurema village in Aquidabã city - explains:

[...] I thank the Federal University of Sergipe for offering this course. Because I work. I had no conditions to do another and the University gave me this opportunity, even with a lot of difficulty. So, for me, it was a blessing, despite the difficulties. It is as I say: ‘If you want, you can do it. Because I did it!”. So, anyone who pursues it can do it because everyone is capable of it. (Interview to the author, Apr. 8 2015).

Teacher Elaine’s narrative reinforce distance education potentialities in relation to democratization of knowledge access, working as a way to social justice. Another aspect that worth mentioning is the fact that most of the interviewed teachers have always lived in countryside areas in Sergipe, which confirm Maia and Mattar’s (2007) affirmation, when the benefits of offering distance courses to people who live “[...] in isolated places, far from where it is possible to study in classrooms” (MAIA and MATTAR, 2007, p.09).

Since 2007, once the challenge of being approved in the First Selection Process to attend the graduation courses at the University, offered by Open University of Brazil, many difficulties were confronted by the teachers to attend History teaching course along almost five years.

According to the interviewees, one of the greatest challenges of the History distance course was the adjustment to the adopted model. On the one hand, the relationship between students and professors is mediated by information and communication technologies, with no limitations of time and space, on the other hand, the access itself and the handling of communication means were considered relevant obstacles along the academic trajectory in distance History course.

In accord with teacher Elaine’s narrative, the first steps to access the learning process in History course through distance education were challenging. Besides financial limitations, the difficulties to access and handle communication tools caused many expectations about it in the beginning of the course:

In the beginning, I went through many difficulties due to the internet, because we did not have a... how could I say... an ability to work with these tools. I did not have internet at home, I used a friend of mine’s internet in Aquidabã. I used to go out of countryside and went there. At that time, I think six or eight people used to go to her house to do the activities [...]. (Interview to the author, Apr. 8 2015).
Another relevant aspect noticed by the interviewees was the lack of interactive academic activities in the whole formation process. The time and space distances between students and professors in distance education imposed a change of paradigm noticed by the students in relation to the learning and teaching process, considering the necessity of autonomous practices to study.

According to teacher Aldina’s narrative, who lives in Arauá, in her many efforts to clarify her questions with one of the professors, the answer in Moodle Platform was always the same: “Your tutor was already instructed about it”. According to her testimonial, this type of feedback was frequent and led her to conceive the impossibility of relationship with professors: “[…] it was an almost zero level”. In her analysis, the distance created by professors to transmit contents and the denials to clarify questions marks the existence of “[…] prejudice in relation to distance learning classes, because they never did anything that involved a distance learning group”.

This distancing mentioned by the interviewee about that denial to clarify her questions related to the contents, suggests failures of a possible didactic situation, which contradicts one of the formation principles proposed by distance education (MOORE, M.; KEARSLEY, G., 2008). It also denotes a characteristic of a former teacher who resists escaping from conservative teaching paradigms that do not understand:

[…] It is the teacher’s responsibility to dislocate their competences to stimulate learning, develop reasoning, think, speak and write better. Thus, they become an eternal learner when share their knowledge, mainly doubts, with their partners and new students. (FORMIGA, 2009, p.44).

Curriculum practices in teachers’ narratives

Another important information obtained from the teachers refers to curriculum practices implemented in History teaching course, in distance modality. When we present such conceptions, we are guided by the idea that “[…] every research about teaching have, consequently, the duty of recording teachers’ point of view, in other words, their subjectivity of actors in action, as well as their knowledge and know-how they mobilize in daily action” (TARDIF, 2002, p.230).

The teachers’ speeches indicated obstacles for curriculum practices in distance education modality succeed as expected. According to the narratives, one of the problems emphasized was the way that supervised History teaching practice was experienced. According to teacher Normeval, who lives in Campo do Brito, the experience with supervised practice was positive because he did it where he lives, next to his house. However, emphasizes that the University’s professors did not supervised.

I had supervised teaching practice in Campo do Brito, where I live. So, I thought there was something strange because I did and sent all lesson plans required, but nobody appeared to supervise me. Nobody! ‘Today someone will come, today someone will come!’ Nobody appeared. Supervised History Teaching Practice I and Supervised History Teaching Practice II were not different. (Interview to the author, Jul. 13 2015).

For teacher Elaine, despite of not have been monitored by the University’s professor, her experience was “very profitable”, due to the History teacher at school she had teaching practice knew her and let her free in classroom: “It is yours!” (laughs).
According to teacher Fernanda’s narrative, her experience in Supervised History Teaching Practice happened in Pedrinhas city, where she works and lives. It happened in one of the institutions where she teaches History: “[...] I had my first teaching practice in my classroom. I did it in my own classroom. I had this facility. I was my own conductor!”.

According to her analysis related to Supervised History Teaching Practice II, the procedure was differentiated because students did it in pairs and happened at the same school, but in a different classroom. According to her, because she teaches in three schools, she had the opportunity of supervising some graduate students from her own class, because “[...] I “host” colleagues. I was, at the same time, student and also supervisor for some of my colleagues”.

For teacher Laelson, the strikes that happened in schools coincide with the offer of teaching practices subjects, omissions in school calendars and, mainly, the lack of orientation, made his teaching practice experience a disaster: “[...] It was a… how could I say… a random practice”. According to the teacher, the lack of orientation to perform History teaching practices activities deeply damaged his formation: “How could we learn Teaching Practices, Methodologies, if there was not a single son of God?”. Another warning indicated by Laelson was the lack of “[...] a bigger closeness between student and professor. There is no point in only reading, only searching. You need to hear. History says that, concrete facts, presence of discussions make things flow”.

Another testimonial by teacher Fernanda expresses how bureaucratic the experiences in Supervised History Teaching Practice were. According to her, besides the fact professors never visited or monitored their practices, it was necessary submitting to the Center for Higher Distance Education, in a systematic way, “[...] photography, reports, all the materials used in classroom, students’ names, school material, schools project and localization. But I was never supervised”.

Teacher Luiz’s narrative, who lives in Aracaju, confirmed the bureaucratic role played by Supervised History Teaching Practice in his formation. He observed that the examination was based on “a document that you take to school, school’s stamp, principal and teacher’s names, etc. This is how I got my score! A document!” He also observed that it was not necessary to attend the classes for his Supervised History Teaching Practice, bearing in mind that

Actually, I did Supervised Teaching Practice at a state school, in Santo Antônio [Aracaju city’s district], where a friend of mine was the principal and then he ended up doing that whole process of sign the attendance list, etc. I have already worked with him because he used to be a History teacher, too. So, I ended up not going to classroom at State school. (Interview to the author, Aug. 4, 2015).

In the light of these narratives, it is suggestive to retake the History teaching’s curriculum proposition in distance learning modality, bearing in mind that, according to the rules guide the course’s examination process, it is established the necessity of “[...] constant visit of the professors to the regional centers and examination by professors and students”. Another aspect is the expectation of an “autonomous” attitude by the student, but this feature does not mean the professor’s absence in experiencing and monitoring the pedagogical practice moment in the course, as we observed in the testimonials. These facts make us wonder: “How will it be possible to direct the country to a way of formation of teachers without teachers?” (MATTAR, 2012, p.xxvii).
Relevant aspects about curriculum practices were found in teachers’ testimonials concerning unfoldment of teaching formation in personal and professional levels, obtained in History teaching course. The teachers’ speeches express an ambiguous feeling when they refer to how many attempts to be admitted in public teaching through public tendering. Almost all of the testimonials registered the lack of job opportunities by merit for History teachers in their region, which raises a frustrating feeling about this career.

It was also symptomatic the interviewees’ observations in relation to their participation in the few public tendering for History teachers, since they finished the course in 2012. For teacher Elaine, experiences lived in public tendering for History teaching have always been full of difficulties, bearing in mind she did not succeed in any of the promoted public tendering by Departments of Education of Sergipe and Alagoas. For her, “[…] the point about the public tendering, I just cannot deal with them. I do not understand what it is, if it is my failure, if I get too nervous or if it is about my own knowledge” (our highlight). In her narrative, she observes that it is necessary to consider also some lack of knowledge from other areas to succeed public tendering of this nature, because “[…] Public tendering is like this: it does not require only History, but also other subjects”.

Besides recognizing the fragility of her higher education formation in History through distance learning modality, teacher Elaine also indicated the high competition in public tendering as one of the restraining factors to teach in public schools.

I think so. I think we learn something. But not 100% to be approved in public tendering. If we do not look for a preparatory course to improve, because we know that the charging is much bigger in relation to public tendering. So, if you do not look for a preparatory course, it is harder to succeed. (Interview to the author, Apr. 8 2015)

According to teacher Normeval’s speech, besides the lack of vacancies for teachers in his locality and neighboring cities, the reason for his underachievement in the only public tendering for teaching in Primary School, which happened in São Domingos city, was because he did not study for it, a reason that explains why he is uncomplaining about it: “But I cannot charge myself, […] I did not study!”.

The successive failures in public tendering for teaching evince a relative fragility in this individuals’ formation. This fact makes us support the idea that diploma does not necessarily assure new and better work conditions and possibilities, “[…] mainly because experience demonstrate the difference between legal competence (to own a diploma) and real competence (to have abilities and knowledges required by a certain job)”, as Litto (2009, p. 17) assures.

The teachers’ testimonials expressed the importance of attending History teaching course through distance learning modality offered by the Federal University of Sergipe, despite obstacles experienced a posteriori. The higher education in teaching formation also provided new perspectives about teaching practice. For teacher Elaine, who works in two public schools in Aquidabã, the subject History of Sergipe showed her new horizons to work with “movies and also working local History”.

According to teacher Fernanda’s testimonial, her pedagogical practice in Boquim and Pedrinhas cities, where she works, changed, mainly as for the use of new resources. However, she alerts to precariousness of schools in her locality, which affect the work quality.
And my practice changed a lot. Because you start to work with students with visual materials: photography, movies, texts…but the school’s structure does not help. For example, this school here. Nowadays, programs keep schools. So, in some schools, they have televisions working. They have DVDs working. Others even have overhead projector working. But schools here in Pedrinhas are not computerized. (Interview to the author, Apr. 28 2015).

According to teacher Laelson, his classes in Estância and Arauá had with some innovations from previous experiences in History course, in distance modality. The practice with technologies and his studies subsidized new knowledge that allowed introducing innovations:

When you start using technologies, it… it advances more. I had some difficulty, even nowadays I do. Because in each day we do new things. But I started using some technologies in classroom. Not a too high level, because they are 6th to 9th years classes or 1st to 5th years classes. It is something more […]. In classroom, I had computers; they work with computers, take them to computer room and help them. In this regard, I have gained some knowledge and practice with my studies, with my class colleagues (Interview to the author, Apr. 28 2015).

However, we found situations which teachers do not mention gains to their teaching practice, as we can see in teacher Luiz testimonial, who teaches in High School in Itabaiana. He indicates an omission in pedagogical subjects and that they weaken his formation. According to this testimonial, attending History course did not bring any change in his practice because he did not live concrete pedagogical experiences during graduation. He also refers to the ambiguity that takes the History course’s identity:

Because distance education uses the same criteria and the same profile as classroom courses. It does not form researchers neither teachers, but in a middle way. You do not know if you are going to be a teacher or a researcher, because when you study pedagogical subjects, they do not fully subside: Planning, Political and Pedagogical Project: this is what I have lived! Because if you talk to someone who just left graduation, they will not know how to plan, they will be through lots of difficulties. How can you plan if you did not live classroom? (Interview to the author, Aug. 8 2015)

Most of testimonials sign positive changes and innovations in teachers’ pedagogical practices in their professional realities. These are knowledge acquired from using technological tools available along the course. However, the records do not omit the multiple limitations in Sergipe’s public schools, as for their structures, availability and maintenance of tools in full functioning of technological resources.

Final considerations

This research aimed to understand curriculum practices in History teaching formation in Sergipe, in distance modality of the first class of egresses from Federal University of Sergipe. We could observe the importance of the context of the participants’ origins for the choice of this graduation degree and this modality. Living under unfavorable socioeconomic conditions due to a rurality characterized by few educational opportunities, these people were able to stay on school much longer than the usual where they live, which indicates their willingness to fight for better life conditions and their belief in a possible ascendant social mobility through education.
This study indicated as a main result prevalence of permanencies of the changes in History teacher formation’s curriculum for teaching in secondary school. The permanencies appears in a formation guided by techno-scientific rationality precepts, distinguished by the ranking of knowledge and predominance of “content” knowledge than professional knowledge (TARDIF, 2002). We could also observe the permanence of a Eurocentric perspective of History and of a linear and chronological organization of knowledge and the disposition of the subjects in great historical periods.

The position of pedagogical formation subjects in the final part of the course is a third permanence. The treatment of pedagogical knowledge, in curriculum practice, is far from enable a further development of discussions related to organization of education and teaching work. Furthermore, the curriculum is farther from the dialogue with schools and their realities for ignoring local characteristics, which makes more difficult an approach between times and spaces of formation and professional acting.

We could observe positive impacts in personal and professional levels, reaffirming the potentialities of distance education for initial formation of teachers, mainly in the countryside. We attested the maintenance of educational limitations in those areas due to the precarious conditions of educational institutions, which limits the implementation of new pedagogical practices.

Concerning academic certification, due to the multiple failures in public tendering for teachers, it seems relevant to affirm that History formation through distance education modality for these professionals did not resulted positively concerning the challenges to obtain better positions in teaching labor market – at least until now.

To the formation derived from educational policies present positive results, it would be necessary that such policies could also present improvement of teachers’ labor condition, especially in relation to scholar infrastructure, once public schools have not known meaningful changes in its functioning and organizational structure.

We assume that, for maintenance of distance graduations in the country and, mainly, teacher formation, it is indispensable to consider the necessity of “[...] an innovative pedagogical position, with the intention of allowing apprentice’s participation and cooperation in knowledge construction” (COUTINHO, 2009, p. 312). To consider the involved people’s voices directly in formation process, teaching formation through distance education modality will be able to reach more fruitful and expressive results for the construction and of a citizen and quality education.

References
Curricular reflections in the USA: Teaching teachers the edTPA

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The Teacher Performance Assessment (edTPA) is an evaluation tool currently used across several states. The supposition is that teacher candidate performance can be measured. The express purpose of this instrument is to determine whether teacher candidates are ready to enter the classroom. Creators of the edTPA believe that this evaluation tool and the standards-based movement of which the Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC), the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), and the Common Core
State Standards (CCSS) play a part is more “rigorous” then other measures and will raise the bar for teachers entering the profession. Proponents and opponents alike expect the edTPA to radically reform the teacher preparation profession.

The following essay explains why and how teacher education is changing due to edTPA. I reflect upon what are the curricular implications for teacher candidates, education faculty and teacher preparation organizations as a result of increased regulations, standardization, and an audit culture that reduces teaching and learning to the acquisition of mechanistic knowledge (performativity).

Key-words: edTPA, teacher preparation regulation, standardization, neoliberalism, audit culture

The edTPA and the audit culture

The edTPA is a “consequential” assessment for teacher licensure, which means that teacher candidates must pass this test in order to become a teacher of record in Illinois public school classrooms. It signifies the growing encroachment upon teacher education of an audit culture. As such it is also emblematic of the privatization of public education, if not outright “corporate takeover” (Price, 2013).

Teacher education has historically been offered as a field within the school of education and across various disciplines (pedagogy, philosophy, and psychology, for example). It operates under state licensure rules. Those rules are increasingly changing in response to perceived market pressures that several scholars have noted are linked more to neoliberalism and less to student, teacher, school and community needs. Neoliberalism has been defined as the process of “liberating free enterprise or private enterprise from any bonds imposed by the government (the state) no matter how much social damage this causes.” These rules are uniformly adopted, in for example national systems like the Common Core State Standards:

The new Common Core education proposal is one that Liberals and Conservatives commonly share because they both accept that capitalist growth requires what David Brooks calls a “mechanistic intelligence” and that the young should be schooled in that sort of intelligence. Neither party sees education as giving the young an opportunity for liberating themselves from this mission to "grow the economy" under the direction of Market Rule. Both parties agree that this Common Core best serves the needs of corporate human resources, ignoring how obsolete high-tech training becomes in our high-tech world (Natoli, 2014).

Natoli’s grim assessment corresponds with Marilyn Cochran-Smith’s (2001) astute observation: that strident claims to evidence circulating throughout education reform debates coalesce around preparation for work and to compete in a globalized economy.

If we take at face value that a globalized economy calls for a certain type of worker, the organization of school systems to meet these demands can be pre-determined by developing behavioral objectives, intended learning outcomes, and strategic goals. This standardized, curriculum architecture may be fully “aligned” (the favorite word of education reformers) such that students, teachers, administrators, school boards, and communities are all on the same page, working from the same lesson plan, and drawing from the same playbook as the multi-national corporations whom define the greater global economy.
Of course, this schema does not ensure an individual student’s needs are being met. One of our own teachers, a graduate student, reflected specifically on the challenge of working in a confined space that does not feel like her own:

One fear that looms throughout our school is that if an administrator walks into your classroom and views your lesson, they should be able to walk into the next classroom (same grade level) and basically pick up where you left off. Since we all should be teaching the same lesson at the same time, we should all be teaching the same thing. I have a big problem with this, because I feel as a teacher I need to use the teachable moments in my classroom.

Likewise, the stated premise of the latest teacher candidate assessment tool, the edTPA, needs to be seen against this broader context of neoliberalism and growing corporate influence on teacher education:

Aspiring teachers must prepare a portfolio of materials during their student teaching clinical experience. edTPA requires aspiring teachers to demonstrate readiness to teach through lesson plans designed to support their students’ strengths and needs (edTPA, 2015).

In the United States it hardly bears worth repeating: high stakes, standardized testing has become a frequent source of irritation and contestation. Not only among teachers and students who are engaged in the actual teaching and learning process for which standardized testing has played such a major part, but increasingly parents are finding fault with the system, even choosing to “opt out” by pulling their children out of taking the tests. It is not possible to seriously discuss the edTPA without deference to this sociological backdrop.

To begin to discuss edTPA is to acknowledge controversy, including the greater controversy surrounding high stakes, standardized testing nationwide. Among one of the more controversial features of edTPA is that the professional role of teacher education faculty appears to be diminishing, subsumed under neoliberal educational reform: the logic of a “new managerialism” and audit culture (Apple, 2007; Taubman, 2009; Price, 2014).

In Illinois, for example, a teacher “candidate” is required as of September 1, 2015 to submit the edTPA portfolio for review by a Pearson Inc. recruited and trained scorer, essentially a piecemeal worker who produces the score. Similar licensure requirements are in place or are planned for use in New York, Georgia, Wisconsin, Washington State, and Oregon. University level teacher researchers have taken great offense at this usurpation of their roles as teacher education clinical faculty. Among the protests include recent writings by faculty at Northeastern Illinois University, who have issued “a call for independent, peer-reviewed scholarship regarding the validity, reliability, and impact of high-stakes, privatized, teacher performance assessment.” (Dover, Schultz, Smith, & Duggan, 2015).

Our own experience as a critical educator bears witness to this slow moving, yet readily discernible shift in the locus of responsibility for assessment and evaluation. With the rolling out of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) in 2002, our teacher education students experienced firsthand the school report cards and, in several instances, sanctions should a school fail to make Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP). As a result of NCLB and the requirement to meet the expectations of the AYP mandate, a cottage industry of educational for-profit organizations grew, seemingly overnight. The most prolific of these organizations include 1) Supplemental Educational Service (SES) providers of
tutoring and test preparation; 2) Pre-packaged curriculum programs such as Understanding Backwards Design and Reading First for example (programs such as Reading First narrowly focus on phonics and phoneme recognition: important for passing the standardized tests); and 3) Educational Maintenance Organizations (EMOs) whom profit from managing the “turn around” of “failing schools”.

Outsourcing and the privatization of public education, two fairly prominent features of corporate takeover, are growing at a steady and demonstrable pace. Of no small import during this No Child Left Behind period (2002-2014) was the requirement that every teacher be “highly qualified” according to the federal government’s definition. As a result of various reauthorization bids, the idea of the “effective” teacher became more paramount. Thus creating the “highly effective teacher” became of great interest to would-be education reformers.

A formative assessment of a summative experience

The development, dissemination and implementation, of edTPA are largely facilitated by the Stanford Center for Assessment, Learning, and Equity (SCALE). SCALE basically intends for this tool to be used in a formative fashion. Nonetheless, even a key representative from SCALE confirmed criticism that the edTPA is not being used as it was designed in states that are using it consequentially for licensure.

At one of the professional development days held at my own university, the presenter, an accomplished quantitative researcher from SCALE, argued (ironically I thought) that edTPA was not the ultimate answer to teacher effectiveness. His presentation was interesting because even though he worked for the organization that created edTPA, he cautioned the faculty to use it properly. edTPA, he taught, should be understood to be only one of the components that go into the determination of what counts toward moving a candidate forward. Clinical hours and observations, with teacher education faculty, university supervisors and cooperating teachers are equally, arguably much more important.

Furthermore, this SCALE representative advocated, critically so, that edTPA be used in a formative manner, not as a high stakes test, that it not be “consequential”. By this he meant that it should not be used as the sole gatekeeper for determining whether candidates went forward or not. He even pointed out how early rollout of the tool in other states flopped. The point was apparently lost on the Illinois State Board of Education, which ignored this advice; the edTPA as mentioned previously became consequential on September 1, 2015.

Nearly verbatim, I documented the testimonials from other institutions that were gathered that day, among them one from an administrator at a private Wisconsin college who with enthusiasm stated that these were the same knowledge(s), skills and dispositions that institutions of higher education/teacher preparation programs already teach. Hence, to her the strategy for IHEs should be to embrace the challenge, “rock the standards” and go beyond the requirements (Price, 2014).

Resistance to the edTPA

But not everyone is so enthused. Since this initial presentation, there has been resistance, including a campaign to defer the consequentiality of the law which moves the state of Illinois in the direction of making edTPA the de facto gatekeeper for teacher candidates aspiring to be teachers of record in the teacher education field. Julie Peters, a
faculty member in history from the University of Illinois, Chicago, with Larry Sondler a long time educational consultant, launched a campaign to get the Illinois State Board of Education to reconsider making the edTPA other than what it was designed to be, a formative assessment tool. As Peters reflected, the high stakes testing assessment for teacher candidates seems to be in response to a “crisis” that can only be met by enacting higher standards for teacher education.

Price: What is the edTPA and how do you understand it?

Peters: What I understand the edTPA to be is two things: what it was designed to be, and what it has become. What it was designed to be was a way to codify and measure how we teach teachers in response to some sort of perceived crisis . . . and I’m not quite sure what the crisis is. But the idea [became] somehow that those teachers are bad and that if we can make teachers better, then the crisis will be solved

What Peters alluded to can be traced back to the 1983 report, “A Nation At Risk,” which began a national campaign to increase educational standards so that the United States could remain competitive in a global economy. From the premise imposed by this report sprang the next logical iteration of accountability: teacher education. If students were falling behind, then ultimately teachers, and teacher educators, might also be to blame. As Wayne Au explained, proponents of auditing teacher education came from teacher educator professionals themselves, as a way to counteract the conservative attack by the National Center for Teacher Quality (NCTQ) (Au, 2013). In response to an increasing call by NCTQ to do away with what it considered to be inferior teacher education programs, educational scholars at Stanford University created what eventually became known as the edTPA. Proponents of the edTPA see the assessment as an alternative to attacks by NCTQ and, ultimately, as a way to save teacher education by professionalizing it and by raising standards.

During an Illinois Association for Colleges of Teacher Education (IACTE) meeting in October of 2013, Peters and Sondler convened a group of concerned faculty members. It was decided by the group that although the edTPA was seemingly inevitable, consequentiality was not. The idea emerged to formally oppose the implementation timeline of this tool and the plan to use it as a high stakes assessment for licensure. By the end of the meeting, the group had a name: The Illinois Coalition for edTPA Rule Change. Eventually, the group circulated a petition among some 350-teacher educators throughout the state; the petition was signed by more than 250 stakeholders and was presented to the Illinois State Board of Education in April of 2015. The petition stated:

It is our belief that the edTPA is not yet sufficiently developed for use as a high-stakes assessment for licensure, damaging to the purpose and goals of student teaching, and too costly to our students and institutions of higher education. (Peters and Sondler, 2013).

The petition echoed what many critical educators have argued, that the edTPA should not be used as a high stakes assessment for teacher licensure.

In New York State, a much more widespread movement to push back against use of the edTPA for licensure resulted in the state’s Board of Regents creating a two-year “safety net” to compensate for student teachers who were otherwise deemed qualified but who failed the edTPA.
Stephen Farenga, a professor and director of the Science and Education program at Queens College expressed strong reservations concerning the use of the tool given cost, lack of quality, and the precarious direction in which it appeared to be taking teacher preparation:

Price: Can you tell me about the students you teach?

Farenga: The majority are first generation working class students. Queens College is one of the most ethnically diverse colleges in the US. My class is primarily composed of graduate students.

Farenga explained that compounding the increased standardization as a result of edTPA, the K-12 students and their families in New York were resisting the latest wave of standards:

Farenga: New York State has not adopted Common Core for Science, there was such blow back from the Math and Language [Common Core components], that they’ve halted the Science standards and are backpedaling on it. [Also] 20-25% of the K-12 students refused to take the state standardized testing.

Price: edTPA emerged from some of the other standards and education reforms, how did it arrive in New York?

Farenga: edTPA comes on the heels of INTASC—another top down directive—based on the Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) from larger states, who have neither taught nor been trained in curriculum development. We don’t know how edTPA got here but it is political, CCSSO are driving educational policy. It is an authoritative direction for education and not democratic. National Board Standards (NBPTS) again is another outgrowth of NCATE; NBPTS were also on one of the 22 members organizations to make up the NCATE board. NBPTS was supposed to professionalize the field, but constrained and quantified best practices; practices not identified by schools. They [educational reformers] keep calling it a science but you can’t quantify or delimit the variables to one place, student population, teachers or curriculum.

More recently, teacher educators at Northeastern Illinois University published two articles summarizing critiques of the use of the edTPA. In particular, the authors raised the issue of a new cottage industry of edTPA test preparation services designed to assure students they would pass the assessment and gain their license (Dover, Schultz, Smith, & Duggan, 2015). The initial article sparked counterpoint from proponents of the edTPA, namely Dr. Amee Adkins of Illinois State University (Adkins, Spesia, & Snakenborg, 2015). Dover and her colleagues responded with a subsequent article. The debate signaled a return to critiques by academics in teacher education, one that had begun to emerge early in the process but which failed to gain momentum until Teachers College Press published the Dover critique.

Accommodation as a response

Nonetheless, despite individual or collective misgivings, teacher educators have begun to accommodate the edTPA.
The IL-TPAC conference, held in September of 2015 was optimistically titled “Moving Forward,” and featured speakers and workshops addressing various challenges in implementing the consequential edTPA in Illinois. Dr. Amee Adkins, dean at ISU and the director of edTPA implementation in Illinois opened a conference in September, 2015, for edTPA coordinators throughout the state by discussing “where we’ve been” as a teacher preparation field.

The edTPA is indeed a change initiative, she noted, but “change is learning” and she argued that we might consider “what am I going to learn about my practice as a result?” Adkins argued that teacher education programs might consider reframing their approach, considering how they work together and what might be learned during this new process.

Adkins offered that this could be a scholarly process, referencing two critical readings that informed her own work. The first she cited was *The Social Construction of Reality: A Treatise in the Sociology of Knowledge* (1966) by Berger and Luckman. Drawing from that reference and speaking about edTPA implementation she urged us forward in “taking responsibility for the effects of that construction”. The other reference she offered was *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (1970) by Paulo Freire. In this instance Adkins argued that the change we were embarking upon was tantamount to a new movement for social justice. “edTPA has become a catalyst for intercampus collaboration and problem identifying and problem solving,” Adkins concluded.

A laundry list of items that IL-TPAC would be thinking about and discussing at this conference included: academic language, targeted student learning, videotaping, assessment practice, mutually developed strong rigorous insight, common assessments vetted by the profession, establishing priorities, monitoring progress, and moving to the next priority. Adkins main emphasis concerned the collaboration efforts that we would be engaged in and the “sharing out what we learn” while protecting student anonymity.

A Lake Forest College faculty member reported that her institution in 2012-13 implemented edTPA for the first year and conducted a pilot in the second, 2013-14. “All the teachers submitted for official scoring. We did a curriculum map with additional focus on academic language.” She continued, “all our full time faculty members are official scorers”.

Another faculty member, this time a department chair of Early Childhood Education at St. Xavier said that her school “started talking about it in 2013” and began to have more intense discussion, “incorporating the jargon, articulating a little bit better.” “You can’t put it on, fake it” [you] need to bring it into a repertoire of skills.” They spent time creating online modules and matching the preparation work with “concurrent field experiences”. They worked through their assessment courses aiming to “fine tune some of our course assessments” and conducted a 2010 small pilot, backwards mapping into our programs. Given this early implementation, by 2013 her college was “full on board”. Two thirds of the students in 2013 and, by 2014, two thirds of the teacher candidates were working on the portfolios.

Subsequent workshops attempted to clarify what was meant by “discourse and syntax” in the edTPA rubrics on academic language; retake policies, which ranged from resubmitting a single section of the portfolio to possibly repeating student teaching, and “condition codes” (which indicate sections of the portfolio deemed not able to be scored). Discussions included concerns and various understandings about the extent to which faculty are allowed to offer feedback to candidates as they create their portfolio.
Regardless of whether faculty from various institutions represented at the conference that day fully supported the edTPA, it was clear that they were taking seriously efforts to wrestle with challenges and to accommodate and correctly implement the now high stakes nature of the edTPA.

My own school, the Advanced Professional Programs in the National College of Education, National Louis University includes Educational Leadership, School Psychology and Educational Foundations and Inquiry. We opted to review curriculum offering in lieu of the edTPA demands. Reviewing curriculum is a normal procedure and occurs with and without state mandates, but certainly stringent state mandates get attention.

Cross-disciplinary discussions between my foundations and research faculty and our colleagues in teacher preparation are generally spirited and evoke interesting insights. The general thinking was pragmatic; we were already doing much of what edTPA calls for. Hence, what could we pro-actively consider to be helpful to move forward, given the legal mandate that we were now under?

The conversation continued in an Educational Foundations and Inquiry program meeting where faculty reviewed assignments, lessons, and activities that could reasonably relate to edTPA domains. The overarching takeaways included the conclusion that regardless of the edTPA, all faculty have a vested interest in better understanding how our candidates are doing in K-12 schools and how we as a college are preparing teachers. There are shared experiences and consequences across our college curriculum. We also concluded that potential existed to empower our candidates in foundations courses to understand where ideas supporting best practices came from, to use action research to help engage candidates in examining their own practice, and to pay closer attention to P-20 learning while creating professional learning communities.

Thus, in all of these examples, some efforts to accommodate the edTPA resulted in potentially beneficial conversations among faculty around ways to deepen and improve practice.

**Teaching complexity and the edTPA**

Teaching and learning is complex activity, not easily rendered as evidence, nor subject solely (if at all) to tabulation and quantification. Perhaps more significant to whether edTPA “works” or not is how it was conceived and consolidated. As part of a socio-political and historical-educational construction process, edTPA evolves from educational leadership efforts to strengthen teaching and learning standards. But just as crucially, edTPA represents the consolidation between educational school reformers from two decidedly different political agendas: the professionalization experts and the deregulation reactionaries (see Cochran-Smith, 2004).

Teacher preparation in the USA exists under an exceedingly strict condition(s) due in no small part to increased Department of Education (DOE) regulation(s) creating effectively an audit culture for higher education. Reflective of the general conditions described as “neoliberalism” (Harvey, 2006; Lipman, 2011; Watkins, 2013) public education as a whole is assigned to a narrow social space, serving predetermined market aims. Nonetheless, curriculum discussions continue in the academy and edTPA might as an unintended consequence provoke development of spirited social spaces for dialogue and inquiry.

It is a matter for philosophy to speculate on what edTPA ultimately means for teaching and learning, but from a curricular perspective, monitoring of teacher preparation is clearly increasing. It seems equally apparent that
edTPA as a tool for measuring teaching performance is merely a proxy for authentic teacher effectiveness. Perhaps the best example of the increased monitoring and limited measurement generalizability of the tool can be revealed by the process which requires candidates to submit video footage, two clips of no more than ten minutes, as their teaching effectiveness evidence.

As long time teacher-educator Stephen Farenga noted, two ten minute video segments of a lesson plan are a fairly narrow sliver from the hundreds of hours spent by teacher candidates during clinical supervision.

The teaching and learning environment, in all its complexity, is reduced by this part of the edTPA to a series of objective, discrete parts. Put under analysis by a trained observer and against a rubric, the task is to determine if those parts disaggregated as such are equivalent to the desired upon, and pre-determined standard. The performing teacher is aware of the rubric’s intended learning outcomes, and trained in the edTPA domains (and certainly in the other teacher preparation knowledge, skills, and dispositions beyond edTPA). But everything is reduced to just what is captured in the ten-minute video segments.

While the edTPA video segments might be interesting, they are by default thin with respect to all that is happening in a classroom with teachers, students, text(s) and broader epiphenomenal contexts. Because of this thinness scorers might input information to the video, information that is not already there, in order to make more meaning. Such is the nature of interpretation. The problem is not whether edTPA is subject to subjective interpretations; in fact professional judgment is valuable and what is called for when professionals by nature of their unique training, experience, and careful study of a field come together. Rather, the problem is in the notion that edTPA should be the penultimate gatekeeper as to whether a candidate goes any further toward becoming a teacher of record. As a gatekeeper, edTPA ensures that the faculty role in teacher preparation organizations will be deskilled, subsumed by edTPA preparation. edTPA will become, if we are not vigilant, literally perceived as excellent teaching and learning, instead of a proxy of the same thing.

The challenge with embracing the edTPA is that it effectively places teacher preparation under surveillance. If an institution fails to demonstrate that their candidates can pass the edTPA they will likely face censure, unofficially as well as officially.

A new teaching assessment such as the edTPA will not reveal what better teacher and learning looks like in its fullest dimension. Only flesh and blood can fully do so, and that work is happening day in, day out, off camera and behind the scenes. Proposals for reforming edTPA policy in Illinois include moving the assessment out of student teaching and into the more legitimate milieu of the teacher’s own classroom. Videotape snapshots of teaching could be replaced with actual observation of the larger and fuller teaching environment, rather than being reduced to twenty minutes of video footage. Such reforms would push back against the redactive judgment of teacher effectiveness inherent in the edTPA and begin to return teacher preparation—as well as judgments about what makes for good teaching—into the hands of educators and away from the influence of the audit culture of standardization.

References:


Lesson study and curriculum development

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Lesson study is a teacher development process focused on professional practice that is receiving increasing recognition in many countries around the world. Although very popular in mathematics, there are experiences in many other school subjects, both for in-service and pre-service teachers. Originated from Japan, it receives local adaptations regarding the national cultures and conditions and also the agendas of those that promote it. Lesson studies constitute reflexive and collaborative activities as teachers work together, identifying students’ difficulties on a given topic or issue, documenting curriculum objectives and guidelines, analyzing tasks, and planning what those teachers regard as an “exemplary” lesson. This lesson (called “research lesson”) is taught by one member of the group whereas the other participants observe it with a focus on student learning. So, the teachers seek to verify to what extent this lesson achieved the sought objectives and what difficulties arose. We may regard this process as a small investigation of the teachers on their own professional practice. Lesson studies take into account the curricular guidelines and the research results on the topic or issue under study. In this paper our aim is to discuss how teachers consider curriculum guidelines in three lesson study experiences carried out in mathematics, with special attention to teachers’ views on the nature of the tasks, students’ reasoning processes, and classroom communication.

The methodology is qualitative, using participant observation, as practitioner research. The participants are three groups of teachers from a cluster of schools in Lisbon, at 1st, 2nd and 3rd cycles of basic education (corresponding to grades 1 to 9), and the four authors of this paper. Three of the authors conducted the lesson studies sessions and one author was responsible for data collection which included research journal, video recording with transcription of the sessions, teachers’ written reflections, and individual interviews. The lesson study at grade 3 focused on representing rational numbers as fractions and on the number line, at grade 5 focused on ordering and comparing rational numbers, and at grade 7 focused on solving first degree equations.

The results show that the current Portuguese curriculum documents (Programa de Matemática / Metas de Aprendizagem) were very important to map the development of the topics under study. However, the teachers did not agree with the formalistic orientation of these curriculum documents, and decided to emphasize intuitive elements such as connections with students’ reality and pictorial representations. With their participation in the lesson study, the teachers developed a sense for the importance of the wording of tasks and for possible students' difficulties in solving them. The teachers recognized that tasks with some degree of challenge were important to stimulate students’ reasoning and that in such cases unforeseen responses could be given by students. The teachers also got a clearer notion of students’ difficulties in reasoning processes (especially generalizing and justifying) and to aspects of classroom communication that promote or inhibit such processes. As teachers did not identify themselves with the curriculum documents, these did not play a significant role, besides the initial planning of the research lesson.
Introduction

Lesson study is a teacher professional development process that originated in Japan, in the beginning of the 20th century, and is receiving great attention in many countries around the world. It is carried out in the context of professional practice and has a strong collaborative and reflexive nature (Fernandez, Cannon & Chokshi, 2003; Lewis, Perry & Hurd, 2009; Perry & Lewis, 2009). There are many lesson studies carried in mathematics, and also in other school subjects, such as science, social science, and language. There are experiences at all school levels, from infant school to university and both with in-service and prospective teachers (Burroughs & Luebeck, 2010). There is an international organization – The World Association of Lesson Studies (WALS) (http://www.walsnet.org) – which aim is to promote the exchange of experiences and the collaboration of researchers, teacher educators, and teachers aiming to develop lesson studies (Clivaz, 2015).

In a lesson study, teachers work together, identifying students’ difficulties on a given concept or curricular issue, study curriculum documents and research results, analyse tasks, and plan a “research lesson” that they expect will help students to learn the sought objectives (Murata, 2011). The leader may be a practicing teacher or an external person, as a university teacher educator or researcher. We regard this process as a small investigation of the participants on their own professional practice given the fact that this work develops from an issue identified as a professional problem, stands on studying the related literature, draws on collecting relevant data (the observation from the lesson), and seeks to arrive at conclusions by careful analysis of this data (Ponte, 2002; Zeichner, 2001).

Lesson studies yield a strong combination of practice and theory as they promote a close look at students’ thinking at the same time as the need to take into account the curricular guidelines and other curricular documents and the research results on the concept or issue under study. In this paper, our aim is to discuss how participants in three lesson studies carried out in Portugal in the subject of mathematics deal with curricular guidelines. We pay special attention to their views on (i) the nature of the tasks to propose in the classroom, (ii) students’ reasoning, and (iii) classroom communication.

Lesson study and mathematical curriculum approaches

In a lesson study, the observation and discussion of the research lesson are key phases of the process but we must not underplay the role of the planning phase. A suitable definition of the topic for the lesson to guide all work from the beginning to the final reflection is a critical issue for the success of the whole activity. Furthermore, the identification and study of relevant literature is also very important, as well as the practical work of analyzing mathematical tasks and samples of students’ work that may suggest reasoning strategies and difficulties. Very often, a preliminary diagnostic study is conducted (Murata, 2011) to figure out students’ previous knowledge, especially regarding important pre-requisites for the concept or issue under study.

The participants plan together the research lesson aiming to promote students’ learning regarding the proposed aims, which may concern a concept, a representation, a procedure, an important capacity (such as reasoning, problem solving or communication) or other curriculum aim. They select or construct one or more tasks to propose to the students, anticipate possible responses and foresee difficulties that may arise when the students are working on these tasks. They pay attention not only to students’ errors and difficulties but also to their different strategies.
that may lead or not to the correct solution. This anticipation of students’ responses and possible difficulties and strategies is a central feature of lesson studies (Meyer & Wilkerson, 2011).

The analysis of the research lesson focuses on students’ responses, taking into account the features of the tasks and of the classroom communication processes. This analysis may lead to the reformulation of the lesson plan with changes in the task, in the supporting materials, in the strategy to follow, in the questions to pose to students, and so on, and this cycle of planning/observing/analyzing may be repeated several times (Lewis, Perry & Hurd, 2009).

Carrying out a lesson study requires a careful preparation and conduction that may be undertaken by experienced teachers, teacher educators, or researchers. In Japan, there are teachers who specialize as leaders of lesson studies. The other participants also have a high responsibility since in between lesson study sessions they need to carry out specific work, such as selecting tasks and reading relevant literature. The dynamics of the sessions depends both on the leadership and on the high involvement and capacity of the other participants to interact in a professional way, raising questions, critiquing, listening to critiques, and supporting each other as necessary. In order that a lesson study reaches the sought aims, it is necessary that all participants assume a strong commitment regarding this professional development process, both in the sessions and in carrying out the individual work collectively decided by the group.

Lesson studies have as a focal activity the teaching and the observation of a research lesson, with its subsequent analysis and discussion. The activity of teacher that teaches this lesson is in the spotlight. However, a central aspect of lesson studies is that they focus on the students’ learning and not on the teachers’ work. In fact, lesson studies aim to examine students’ learning and to observe the way they participate in the lesson. As the goal is to produce a successful research lesson, this is usually taught by an experienced teacher; however, lesson studies may be also targeted to support the development of prospective teachers and unexperienced teachers. By participating in lesson studies, teachers may learn about mathematics, curriculum guidelines, students’ thinking processes and difficulties, classroom dynamics, and many other professional issues.

Regarding the subject of mathematics, lesson studies provide opportunities for teachers to reflect on the possibilities of an exploratory approach to mathematics teaching, an approach that has an increasing support in curriculum orientations for this subject (e.g., NCTM, 2000, 2014). In this approach students are called to deal with tasks such as problems and explorations for which they do not have an immediate solution, constructing their own methods by using their previous knowledge (Ponte, 2005; Ponte, Branco & Quaresma, 2014). This contrasts with the teaching in which the teacher introduces a new idea, demonstrates a few examples and then presents many exercises for the students to practice. Exploratory lessons also include exercises but there are combined with problems and explorations. Communication processes are also important in an exploratory approach by promoting students’ opportunities to participate in the discourse. That is, communication becomes much more dialogical than univocal, as it tends to happen in many classrooms.

Usually, an exploratory lesson develops in three phases: (i) introduction of the task, which is a collective moment where the relevant information and terminology is discussed; (ii) students’ autonomous work on the task, which may be carried out individually, in pairs, or in small groups, and (iii) whole class discussion, in which the students present their solutions and have an opportunity to argue with which other. This discussion may end with a final synthesis of the most relevant aspects of the concepts, representations, and procedures involved in the work done as well as signalling connections to other topics and issues. Exploratory work creates many opportunities for
students to build or deepen their understanding of concepts, procedures, representations, and mathematical ideas. Students are thus called to play an active role in interpreting the questions, representing of the information given, and designing and carrying out solving strategies which they must justify to their colleagues and to the teacher. Exploratory teaching seeks to develop students’ reasoning processes, especially developing strategies to solve problems, making conjectures, generalizations and justifications (Lannin, Ellis, & Elliot, 2011; Mata-Pereira & Ponte, 2013). However, conducting exploratory mathematics teaching is a serious challenge for teachers, demanding specific knowledge, competency and disposition.

To analyse the work and the professional development of teachers, one must take into account the different levels of curriculum development and implementations (see, e.g., Gimeno-Sacristán, 1989): (i) the official curriculum documents issued by the educational authorities, (ii) the textbooks and other materials that offer written interpretations of these official documents, (iii) the teachers’ interpretations of the curriculum, textbooks and other documents and lesson plans, (iv) what happens in the classroom, as result of the teacher/students’ interactions; (v) what students learn, and (vi) what is accessed in large scale exams and other evaluation programs. In this paper we are mostly concerned with level (iii) but we also explore links with levels (i), (ii), (iv) and (v).

The work of the mathematics teacher in the classroom is always made in the frame of curriculum orientations. In the last few years, the mathematics curriculum in Portugal experienced a strong change, from a perspective largely aligned with a problem solving and exploratory approach that was developing since the 1990s (Ministério da Educação, 1990, 1991a, 1991b, 2007), to a back to basics approach (Ministério da Educação e Ciência, 2013), that emphasizes abstract concepts and representations and often presents the mathematical content at very demanding level for most students. This situation poses great problems for the teachers, most of whom were supportive of the previous curriculum orientations: Therefore, the teachers face the issue of attending to the new curriculum demands and still be able to lead their students in experiencing success in mathematics learning.

Research methodology

This study is a practitioner’s research carried out by the four authors who designed, conducted and analysed the lessons studies. The methodology is qualitative, using participant observation. The participants are teachers at 1st, 2nd and 3rd cycles of basic education, and the four authors of this paper. The 1st and 2nd cycle teachers were from the same cluster of schools (agrupamento) in Lisbon and the participants of the 3rd cycle were seven prospective teachers (for teaching grades 7-12), studying at the University of Lisbon, and the mentor teacher from the school where they were doing fieldwork. The authors took part in conducting the lesson study sessions and were responsible for data collection which included video recording, teachers’ written reflections, and individual and group interviews. The video records of the sessions and the audio records of the interviews were transcribed. A research journal was also made by a member of the research team, recording the most salient reflections from each lesson study session. The curriculum document used by the participants was the Programa e metas curriculares Matemática: Ensino básico (Ministério da Educação e Ciência, 2013) which includes, in a first part, a syllabus with a condensed presentation of the content and, in second part, detailed standards for each topic and grade level. In this paper our analysis concerns: (i) the participants’ views on the nature of the tasks to propose to students, (ii) their perspective on students’ reasoning processes, (iii) their views on classroom communication,
especially concerning whole class discussions, and (iv) their perspectives regarding the curricular guidelines and how they were interpreted in the lesson plan and put into practice in the classroom.

**Learning addition of rational numbers (grade 3)**

*The lesson study.* This lesson study was carried out in a cluster of schools in Lisbon, involving three teachers from a 1st cycle school. In the first session, all participants (teachers and teacher educators/researchers) decided that the topic would be the learning of addition and subtraction of rational numbers. The new curriculum required this topic to be studied using fractions and number line representations, two rather abstract representations, and moved it from grade 5 to grade 3. The fact that the students in this school had a weak level of attainment made this topic particularly challenging to teach.

One of the teachers (Irina) had a strong interest in mathematics teaching and assumed in practice a leadership role regarding her colleagues. She did most of the preparation work for the research lesson and was selected to teach this lesson. Given the fact that the two other teachers (Elsa and Manuela) had a weak mathematical preparation, a considerable time of the sessions was devoted to solving mathematical tasks and reflecting about possible students’ difficulties. Some of this work was based on a diagnostic test the teachers made in their classes. The three teachers reported great satisfaction with this professional development process, indicating that it provided a deeper understanding of didactical issues. In addition, Manuela referred that this study was important for her mathematics preparation:

> It enriched me a lot. No doubt about that. I think it was a new world that just opened for me . . . I have no doubt that I feel [now] much more comfortable in the area of fractions and I am able to help them [the students] much better. (Manuela)

In her final reflection, Irina writes the following about this experience:

> With the new curriculum standards and related introduction of new contents there is still a scarcity of sources to search for ideas of tasks to use in the classroom, especially regarding rational numbers, so I find very important [the attention given to tasks] in this professional development activity... When I decided to participate in this professional development I did it... because I have the notion that the current curriculum standards would bring increased difficulties for teachers and students... [Rational numbers are] no doubt the critical point of the standards, the point that implies more fear in the teachers and difficulties in the students. (Irina)

*Curriculum interpretation.* The research lesson was supported by a very detailed and ambitious lesson plan with two tasks involving a context of competition among wild animals. There was a strong attempt to follow the curriculum guidelines regarding doing addition and subtraction in the two representations (by finding equivalent fractions and by juxtaposing segments in the number line), immersing those tasks on an appealing imaginary situation. Some of the questions posed to the students were rather simple, just requiring the use of the conventions

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53 There were more teachers in the first session, who later decided not to participate in the lesson study.

54 More information about this lesson study may be seen in Ponte et al. (2015).
of the representations (exercises), whereas others were more complex, requiring interpretation and combination of
different kinds of information (explorations). Both the lesson plan and the actual lesson show that the teachers put
a high value on students’ reasoning processes, especially concerning generalizations (how to add fractions when
denominators are equal and different) and justifications (using the meanings of fractions as part-whole and as
measures on the number line). A particular difficulty that was perceived during the lesson was students’ tendency
to see fractions as represented by dots on the number line and not by line segments. Ways to support students’
communication in the classroom were also object of attention, organizing students’ autonomous work in pairs and
leading a whole class discussion at the end of each task. These discussions were widely participated by students
of different ability levels. A few students in the class appeared to have understood the aims of the lesson, but many
of them showed trouble with one of both rational number representations. In the final reflection, the participants
considered that the major change needed in the task was the introduction of more questions to make sure that
students would interpret correctly the meaning of the different representations of fractions.

Summary. The lesson study provided an opportunity for the teachers to take a close look at the current curriculum
for grade 3 that they had trouble using as a guide for teaching practice. Their reflections indicate that they become
more confident in dealing with the curriculum documents and related teaching resources. The overall strategy of
the lesson study strived to combine the rather demanding and formalist approach dictated by the official curriculum
with an appealing context and an exploratory approach regarding the students’ learning of the topic. For both the
teachers and the researchers the way the students reacted to this lesson was a confirmation that rational numbers
are a very difficult topic for most of the students that is hardly suitable to be taught using the proposed approach
and representations at grade 3.

Comparing and ordering rational numbers (grade 5)

The lesson study. This study was carried out in a 2nd cycle school in Lisbon, involving all its 5 mathematics
teachers. Three of these teachers knew each other since a long time but rarely worked together and the other two
were on short term contracts and felt as outsiders in the school. The topic of rational numbers was selected for the
research lesson in the first session. The teachers considered that the students had strongest difficulties in this topic
and that it was very appropriate given the school calendar. In a later session, the specific issue of comparing and
ordering rational numbers was chosen as the aim of the research lesson.55

In an initial phase of exploration of the topic the teachers analyzed the curriculum standards. Afterwards, they
solved several mathematical tasks and analyzed students’ solutions. They also did a diagnostic test in their classes
to know the previous knowledge and the difficulties of their students. It was not simple to decide what class should
be used for the research lesson, since all the teachers felt uncomfortable with the idea of being observed by a large
group of people. Finally, it was decided that the research lesson should be made in the class of Luísa, one of the
new teachers in the school. This teacher was concerned with the weak attainment level and behavioral problems of
her class, but the other possible classes still presented more complex problems. The lesson was base d in several
tasks seeking that students discovered some of the properties of ordering rational numbers given as fractions. The
aims of this lesson were only partially attained, as the teachers concluded that it was necessary to make a deep

55 More information on this lesson study may be seen in Ponte et al. (2014).
revision of the task for future applications. Even so, there were interesting moments in which students elaborated generalizations and justifications. The teachers considered that the lesson study was helpful to learn about the teaching of rational numbers but stressed that its most important feature was the collaboration that took place among the participants.

Curriculum interpretation. The teachers were surprised with some of the tasks that we suggested could be proposed to the students. They felt that their students only could handle quite straightforward tasks posed in mathematical language (that they called exercises) or in real-life contexts (that they called problems). The work on the lesson study led them to accept that another productive distinction concerned the low or high level of challenge of a task. They saw several examples of students designing interesting solutions to quite challenging tasks, and the level of change become the main feature to classify a task as an exercise or a problem. In their research lesson the teachers included some challenging tasks.

I think that it is [useful]… We have to open the spread and, it is what we say, we have students that [need to do] the exercises, exercises and more exercises, but we have to think that there are students that have capacity for much more than that, and we must not think just in the students that have difficulties, and very often we have classes in which there are possibilities for the students to make generalization and justifications. (Tânia)

The reasoning processes of the students were object of attention in this lesson study. The teachers identified situations of generalization and justification in the students’ work and included tasks aiming to promote these processes in their research lesson. One of the highlights of the lesson was a justification made by a student regarding the validity of a statement about the equivalence of fractions based on a pictorial representation which was clearly perceived by the teachers:

That girl… Berta represented the aimed \( \frac{4}{6} \). From \( \frac{2}{3} \) she went to \( \frac{4}{6} \), I think that she explained it in a really simple way, putting a line at the middle and the others really saw… Very well… And she led the others to understand. (Inês)

Classroom communication was also object of attention and the teachers recognized the value of conducting whole class-discussions in which students have the possibility of arguing with each other. The interesting moment that we just mentioned occurred during a whole class discussion.

Summary. As with the 1st cycle teachers, those that participated in this lesson study faced the need to implement the new mathematical curriculum. They preferred the previous curriculum but accepted as a matter of fact that this new curriculum was officially approved and were interested in learning how to deal with it or, at least, to adapt it to the particular conditions of their classes. The lesson plan had some exploratory flavour but the actual lesson was not as successful as sought by the teachers. They considered that the tasks proposed in the lesson plan should be reformulated in order to achieve the aim of having students making generalizations by themselves.

Similarity of triangles (grade 7)

The lesson study. This experience was undertaken with seven prospective teachers for the 3rd cycle of basic education and secondary education and the school mentor teacher. All the students in this teacher’s class had a
very weak mathematics attainment and were taking grade 7 for a second year. The topic of similarity of triangles was chosen attending to the school calendar and also to the perception that the students usually experience significant difficulties in learning it.

In a first phase, a thorough analysis was made of the current curriculum guidelines concerning similar figures and, in particular, similar triangles. The prospective teachers solved several mathematical tasks involving similar triangles, many of which they selected and brought to the class. They discussed the features of these tasks and analyzed possible students’ difficulties. Two lessons were planned, one aiming to teach the criteria for similar triangles and the other to promote the ability of solving problems using this criteria. As the prospective teachers were in the first part of their teacher education program, we decided since the very beginning that the research lesson would be taught by the mentor teacher. The prospective teachers were divided in two groups and all of them observed the two lessons. Each group was responsible to analyze one lesson. Both the mentor teacher and the prospective teachers took an active participation in the planning and in the reflection phase. In their final reflection, the prospective teachers recognized that this work helped them to develop a much better understanding of the processes of identifying students’ difficulties and of planning a lesson which strived for a strong involvement of the students.

The mentor teacher made the most important decisions regarding the adaptation of the mathematical content to the class. She decided not to present the formal definition of similar figures stated in the curriculum that she considered too formal and out of reach of her students’ understanding. So, she presented a less mathematically rigorous but more intuitive definition. She also decided that the criteria for similar triangles (that are the main tools that students have to solve problems on this topic) should be presented in an intuitive way and not derived from other mathematical theorems regarding relations of segments in parallel lines, as the curriculum established. She made these decisions on the grounds of her knowledge of the students and her willingness to take this into account in making the adaptations that she regarded as necessary in the curriculum documents. The prospective teachers were intrigued at first with such decisions but with time they accepted them as the most suitable for that particular students’ class.

Curriculum interpretation. The participants strived to use several kinds of tasks in the two lessons, including problems, explorations, and exercises. The tasks required very significant practical work, including measuring line segments and angles and computing ratios between line segments that proved to be productive entry points to support students’ participation in the classroom activity. These tasks were taken from a variety of sources, including textbooks and the internet, and most were extensively adapted during the lesson study with the prospective teachers. One of them recognized that, in this experience, the nature of tasks and the way of working with the tasks constituted an approach to mathematics teaching that is very different from what she experienced as a student:

> It was more the way of introducing the task, as an exploration… Because usually this is not the way one works… As we worked when we were at school… In planning [a lesson], we have to take into account students’ difficulties and the choice of the task we want to propose. (Ana)

Reasoning played a significant role in the lesson plan. One of the criteria for similarity of triangles was presented in a worksheet and it was intended that the students would formulate two other criteria, thus making generalizations. Reasoning was also important in some problems which solutions required a rather elaborated strategy.
**communication** was object of attention, as the mentor teacher decided that the students could work individually, in pairs or in small groups, depending on their will. The whole class discussion provided ample opportunity for the students to present their strategies and results. Another prospective teacher acknowledged the value of discussions:

> I think that the systematization is very important in the final discussion. They [the students] may have some questions, that accumulate, and this is the moment in which, OK, they learn this... Therefore, I think that this structure is very important to improve learning. (Carla)

This participant also indicates that this curriculum approach was different from her previous experience:

> It is more exploratory tasks, and they are much more interesting... What we presented was more towards problems, not towards exercises, and I think it develops reasoning better. (Carla)

**Summary.** The overall strategy for the interpretation of the curriculum was developed by the mentor teacher and the researcher that conducted the lesson study. The prospective teachers, who had already courses in which curriculum issues were discussed, did not present any problem in accepting their interpretations. All the participants had already a critical view regarding the current curriculum orientations for teaching this topic, and this lesson study just reinforced their perspectives. Therefore, they took the most visible elements of the curriculum (knowing criteria for similar triangles and solving problems involving the use of such criteria) as key points for those two lessons, approaching them in an intuitive way and dispensing the abstract and complex approach indicated in the official curriculum documents.

**Discussion and conclusion**

The development of these lesson studies shows that the current Portuguese curriculum documents (Ministério da Educação e Ciência, 2013) were essentially used to map the content to teach. The participant teachers and prospective teachers were nor comfortable with the formalistic orientation of these documents, and decided to emphasize intuitive elements such as connections with the students’ reality and use of pictorial representations. As the new curriculum documents do not have much more to offer besides the specification of content, they did not play a significant role besides the initial planning of the research lesson.

By participating in this lesson study, focusing on mathematical tasks and on students’ reasoning, the participant teachers had many opportunities to get involved in doing mathematics through an exploratory approach. They discussed in depth the features of tasks that make them simple exercises or more engaging problems or explorations as well as features of reasoning processes such as justification and generalization (Lannin, Ellis, & Elliot, 2011; Mata-Pereira & Ponte, 2013). The teachers developed a sense for the importance of the wording of tasks and for possible students’ difficulties in solving them. They recognized that tasks with some degree of challenge were important to stimulate students’ reasoning and that in such cases unforeseen responses could be given by students. The teachers also got a clearer notion of students’ difficulties in reasoning processes (especially generalizing and justifying) and to aspects of classroom communication that promote or inhibit such processes. The key feature of lesson study of anticipating possible difficulties of students and looking at what they actually do in the classroom was effective in leading the participants to reflect and consider how to carry out their practice...
within an exploratory approach, taking into account the nature of the tasks, students’ reasoning processes, and classroom communication.

Lesson studies aim the development of teaching practices and of the reflexive capacity of teachers. The three experiences that we report in this paper had distinct dynamics but they all show that this formative process involves a strong relationship with teaching practice, yields a deep look about the mathematical and didactical issues of the selected topic, enables a deep look about students’ difficulties as well as of their reasoning processes. It is a professional development process framed by collaboration and reflection, in an investigative framework. In addition, it constitutes a process of production of professional knowledge deeply rooted in schools and from which it is possible to draw important elements for classroom practice (Murata, 2011). However, this professional development process does not guarantee the participants’ learning. It only creates conditions for this to occur. As in any learning process, to reach the aimed goals a deep personal engagement is required. In order that the generalization of lesson studies may lead to significant transformations in teaching practices, it will be necessary that they assume a prominent role in educational policies as it happens since a long time in Japan (Takahashi & McDougal, 2014). The experiences that we presented show that lesson studies have a potential to lead to significant professional learning, supporting teachers in their interpretation of curriculum frameworks, but they are not immune to problems and difficulties. This creates an interesting agenda for those that are interested in the professional development of teachers.

Acknowledgement

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Accompanying primary education teachers in their improvement. Results of a research project on the student voice in Cantabria (Spain)

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This paper was written within the framework of a research project focused on promoting improvements in education by increasing student participation (*Analysis of the processes of educational inclusion/exclusion in compulsory education. Development of local change projects and school improvement. I+D+i: EDU2008-06511-C02-02/EDUC*). The project which took place over a four year period (2011 – 2015) under the concept of what the English speaking world calls “the Student Voice” was divided into four phases: 1) Entering the school; 2) Needs assessment and return of information; 3) Pupil consultation; 4) Improvement activities and 5) Assessment. The tools used for data collection in this ethnographic research project based on qualitative research methodology were observation, field notes, audio and video recordings and interviews. Data collection was focused on reaching an in-depth understanding of teaching practices with the aim of designing improvements in which all participants felt valued. The methodology used took into account the point of view of the participants in the school, placing particular emphasis on the importance of recognizing the value of contributions made by students. The study was developed with schools from all levels of education (from nursery to secondary), including so called “second track” programmes. The sample consisted of a total of 11 schools. In some schools we worked with several classrooms and teachers at the same time or over successive years.

This paper details the work carried out in two primary school classrooms during the 2012-13 academic year. It analyzes the views of education professionals (tutors and counsellors) on how their teaching has improved as a result of their participation in this project and looks at their approaches to educational reality, classroom methodology, student opinions and their role in improvement projects, etc. The main source of information used was eight interviews with four professionals at the beginning and end of the project.

The results demonstrate the importance of the participation of these professionals in the project in raising awareness about the practices of student participation already being developed in their schools, a factor which is conceived as essential for the establishment and survival of this project. Furthermore, the project has enabled them to organize space and time for reflecting on their teaching practice, improving co-ordination and creating a team consisting of all the professionals in the school involved in it. Finally, these professionals have identified other significant changes for improving their teaching such as their opinion of their students, the development of tutorials, the methodology used and the level of autonomy and participation of their students in these methods.

**Keywords:** Student Voice, school improvement, primary school

**Introduction**

The school improvement movement has demonstrated the importance of providing schools with different strategies for promoting change from within. While schools and their teachers can make changes based on external mandates resulting from major reforms and changes to the law, research into school and curriculum organization
has shown that local changes managed by participants involved in education are the ones that make more sense to the school community. In other words, these are the changes that are rooted in educational needs and are more effective, producing real transformation that lasts over time, thus making educational change more sustainable (Bolívar, 2005).

While there are various strategies and ways that a school can make improvements, in this research project we have worked under the hypothesis that promoting democratic dynamics that increase pupil participation (hand in hand with teachers) can act as a catalyst for change. Thus students begin to have an increasingly active role in educational processes beginning with a discussion process where ideas are debated and contrasted leading to proposals for various improvements at different levels affecting a wide range of aspects from assessment, teaching practice or curriculum content to other more organizational issues or those directly affecting the school such as playground management or local community relations (Bragg & Manchester, 2012; Rudduck & Flutter, 2007).

Our research project was carried out based on 5 phases (Susinos & Rodríguez-Hoyos, 2011) using different ethnographic qualitative research methods for data collection. We shared space and time with the schools and professionals participating in the project within a collaborative research model (Boavida & Da Ponte, 2011; Lall, 2011) where all participating agents (not just the university researchers) were involved in order to obtain in-depth knowledge of the educational realities these professionals wanted to change and define the framework and conditions required for this change.

These research phases meant that each school could identify their own needs, consult pupils about improvements that could be made, decide between all participants what type of improvements could be put into practice and assess them.

Working with the professionals involved in the project (teachers, counsellors, support workers, management teams) was fundamental during all the phases of the research project from the role of agents that merely supported the project (as was the case with the management teams) to the most active participants such as co-researchers in their classroom or school. In this regard, each teacher developed an active, critical role in relation to their own educational practice which enabled them to distance themselves from their daily reality, opening up space for observing, thinking and coming up with ideas for improvements. The development of a professional, reflective, critical identity open to change was encouraged within the framework of this project, opting for a continuous training model directly linked to the needs identified by the teachers themselves and a conviction in the potential of creating action groups for reflecting and introducing measures for improving education.

Although within the framework of this project we have worked with schools from different levels of education in this paper we analyze work developed in two primary schools during the 2012-13 academic year, focusing our discussion on how teachers and tutors have altered their views and their teaching practice. These professionals are now more aware of the importance of developing participation both in the school and in the classroom, they also regard the curriculum as a work in progress and express an interest in understanding how power relationships affect teaching-learning processes.
Methodology

The methodology used for this project based on qualitative research methods (Angrosino, 2012; Flick, 2007) had led to the implementation of various ethnographic strategies for data collection, although for the objectives of this paper we will only focus on the interviews with professionals from the two schools studied.

Therefore our main source of information were the interviews (Kvale, 2011) with four participating professionals (two tutors and two counsellors) at the beginning and end of the project. In each centre a total of three different interviews were carried out: the initial individual interview (one for each of the participating professionals, in total 4), the final individual assessment interview (one for each of the participating professionals, in total 4) and a final group interview for reflection in which one member of the UC (University of Cantabria) research team that had participated in each school and one of the participants from each school (in total 2) were interviewed. Therefore the results of a total number of 10 interviews will be presented. A summary of the interviews is shown in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Initial Interview</th>
<th>Individual Assessment Interview</th>
<th>Interview for Reflection</th>
<th>TOTAL NUMBER OF INTERVIEWS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>- Tutor</td>
<td>- Tutor</td>
<td>- Counsellor and UC researcher</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Counsellor</td>
<td>- Counsellor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>-Tutor</td>
<td>-Tutor</td>
<td>-Tutor and UC researcher</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Counsellor</td>
<td>- Counsellor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 54: Interviews carried out

The objective of the so-called initial interview was to find out how participation in the project was perceived in the school and in the classroom where the project was going to take place through the perspective of the participants. The researchers attempted to find out what concept of participation the participants had and what dynamics of participation they identified and supported in the school. They also asked about what experience these professionals had in the school or in others where they had worked previously and what issues they wanted to address within the framework of the project, etc. The aim was to begin to collect data in order to establish a type of “state of affairs” with regard to participation from the point of view of education professionals. These interviews were carried out individually in the first phase of the project (Entering the school).

The final assessment interview was developed in order to evaluate the overall development of the project. It gathered the impressions and opinions of the adults in each school. All the phases of the project were reviewed with the aim of finding out what the weak and strong points were and what could be done to improve the development of these. These interviews took place during the final phase of the project (Assessment) and were carried out individually.

Finally, the interviews for reflection were carried out collectively with a participant from each institution represented (school and university). These were held six months after the completion of work in each school for the 2012-13
academic year. These interviews were carried out as part of a final Master’s thesis whose main objective was to document the entire research process, an audiovisual essay was used for this (Ruiz, 2014).

Description of the cases and their improvement projects

The first case is a state school located 14 kilometres from the city of Santander with 350 pupils. The teacher to pupil ratio in this school is low compared to other schools in Cantabria with hardly any groups numbering more than 20 pupils per classroom. The total number of teachers during the 2012-13 academic year was 30. The school has a counselling team consisting of a counsellor, a teacher of therapeutic pedagogy and a hearing and language teacher. The school teaches two levels of education - nursery and primary (3 to 12 year olds).

In this school we developed a classroom and school based process of participation involving Year 6 pupils. These pupils became aware of their time at school, they were able to propose improvements at various levels and present these proposals to the school’s management team. There were a total number of 15 pupils in the classroom (6 girls and 9 boys) together with their tutor, the school’s counsellor and three researchers from the University of Cantabria.

Following the end of the Pupil consultation phase, it was decided that the class should be divided into two large groups with two different activities: writing a letter to the director of the school and the development of a farewell message from the school and a welcome for new students (video recording). Once each group (consisting of half the class) had completed their task (developed over several classroom sessions) the groups swapped over so that all pupils experienced the two tasks (letter to the director and video). By changing the groups around a sharing process was created. Through the use of a digital blackboard they read and discussed the letter to the director. Similarly, the video group showed their work by reading the sentences that the students were creating and which would form part of the script for the video together with the selection of music, etc. The sessions were developed during time set aside for tutorials and Spanish language classes.

Once the process of writing the letter to the director was completed and he was aware of its existence the director decided to visit the classroom to hold an assembly with the students to discuss, answer and expand on the improvements set out in the letter. All pupils were given a copy of the video given that this group of students were in their last year of primary education and would go to a secondary school the following year. The video was viewed during the leaving ceremony.

The second case is a state school located in the city of Santander with 311 pupils and a team of 30 teachers. It teaches from nursery to primary education (including two classes of two year olds) covering education for 2 to 12 year olds. The school is very culturally diverse with more than 50% of its students coming from immigrant homes.

At the time of carrying out our research the school had undergone certain changes such as changes to the school’s management team, the incorporation of a new counsellor the previous year and the incorporation of new nursery teachers as well as the arrival of some students doing teaching practice (from the Social integration training cycle). All this appeared to create a suitable environment for the start and development of new initiatives and projects.

Three participatory trials were carried out in this school: one in nursery education, one in primary education and one covering the whole school. In the trial for the class of 9 year olds consisting of 20 pupils (9 boys and 11 girls)
we developed a participation process aimed, on the one hand, at improving different aspects of the curriculum and, on the other hand, analyzing the neighbourhood where the school is located in order to develop proposals for improvements. Following different sessions in which the group analyzed, documented and reflected on the state of their neighbourhood the students went to the town hall in order to make a written request (this was accompanied by report in CD format) in which they demanded improved cleaning and more green areas. The group was met by the councillor in charge of neighbourhoods who thanked them for their report and said that measures would be taken to improve their surroundings. The following table summarized the most important points for each case.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Professionals involved</th>
<th>Improvements</th>
<th>Subjects involved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 semi-rural area</td>
<td>Year 6 (Primary Education)</td>
<td>- Tutor - Counsellor - 3 UC researchers</td>
<td>- Letter and assembly with the director - End of year video</td>
<td>- Tutorial - Spanish language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6 girls + 9 boys: 15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 urban area</td>
<td>Year 4 (Primary Education)</td>
<td>- Tutor - Counsellor - 2 UC researchers</td>
<td>- Improved curriculum - Work on projects: My neighbourhood</td>
<td>- Environmental studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11 girls + 9 boys: 20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 55: Cases - object of study

Results

Take time to think. Reviewing the role of teachers and becoming aware of the areas of participation in the school

The professionals who participated in the project highlighted how important it had been for them to participate in it. They noted that it had enabled them to create space and time to reflect on their teaching practice, rethink their lesson planning and become aware of the areas and dynamics of participation that already existed in the centre.

In this regard, one of the tutors had taken on a clearly secondary role in relation to activities carried out in the classroom in order to develop an observatory role which would enable her to get a different point of view on the dynamics of her classroom and the level of autonomy her group of students had. This presented a real challenge to her given that her daily work as tutor of the group was to lead and manage the class. The positive consequences of this were, on the one hand, learning new methods for class management put into practice by the school's counsellor and a UC researcher and, on the other hand, the opportunity for the tutor to have space and time dedicated to observation and reflection on educational processes and the participation of students from her class. The tutor highlighted the following:

“The project has given me certain ideas, and that is it’s clear that it’s really important to let students manage the things they do a lot more, from moderating debates, in which I should try to take on a supporting role not so much (...) when I’m giving a class, correcting, explaining but they can work very well on their own in groups and make interesting proposals (...)” (Final Tutor Interview Caso 1).
From the perspective of this school’s counsellor, one of the positive aspects of their participation in this project is that it has allowed them to become aware of the things that the school was already doing to promote student participation. During this research it became increasingly clear that the project could be developed in the school because some participatory dynamics had already been introduced. Some examples of this are the existence of an assembly of school delegates, the project of achieving one day a week playing in the playground without balls (an issue managed by the students themselves), mediation activities or co-existence activities with other primary school pupils from the area with the aim of preparing the transition to secondary education. Both UC researchers and a counsellor from the school said:

“-Researcher: No school starts out from scratch, everybody does something that encourages a little participation. I remember that the assembly of representatives was already taking place, although improvements were suggested, also mediators for co-existence.

-Counsellor: Yes I have always had an image like that in the school where I work that a lot remains to be done, that I’m not aware of what is already being done. And when I left that first interview I thought “well yes they are doing something”. Because I remember that you asked me about that sort of thing and I talked about co-existence between other schools which was something that was already being done with other schools in the area, about playground mediators and Fridays without balls in the playground…Yes there things that are already being done (…). And at first from day to day you think that nothing interesting is being done that goes beyond the purely academic curriculum” (Interview for Reflection. Case 1).

In case 2 the launch of the project also led to an awareness of those times during school life when pupils were able to participate more freely in addition to the identification of activities in which students could hardly take decisions about what happened in the school. This project has enabled us to identify that the view that professionals held on participation greatly influenced the perception of what happens at school. In other words, while the counsellor identified the lack of participation as one of the problems at school, they also recognized that a number of formal channels already existed to deal with pupil intervention in school life. More specifically, a system of representation existed through the use of delegates who met regularly with some representatives from the management team. It was described in the following way:

“A system of delegates exists but it is very bureaucratic and routine, at least that’s what I think. I’ve never been informed. I found out by accident and I think that it’s a missed opportunity. So if there are occasional meetings when the Director of studies meets the delegates, but I don’t even know who the delegates are, I haven’t been informed.” (Initial Counsellor Interview. Case 2)

Therefore, the opinion of the counsellor was not based so much on the lack of space for participation but rather that it had been turned into a routine that did not listen to all the pupils.

Furthermore, the counsellor thought that the space where pupils could participate more freely was the playground, given that it was a moment in school life when children organized their own games autonomously without the intervention of adults. She noted:

“The playground is a space where they participate freely, it is where they decide who wants to play and who they want to play with. (…) There they manage themselves, they play, look for alternative
games...Inside the classroom? I would have to think of exceptions, I don't know. And time organized like that? There isn't any. All their time is very structured and managed by adults.” (Initial Counsellor Interview Case 2).

For her part, the tutor in Case 2 thought that pupil participation was more common in the different activities that took place inside classrooms than in the school as a whole. In any case, she recognized that there were certain aspects that had a decisive influence at the time of allowing pupil participation in the classroom. One of the more relevant aspects was the subject being taught given that in some subjects more student intervention was allowed (those that were considered to be less academically important such as art for example) the same did not occur with more traditional subjects (maths or language):

“[On the subject of participation] I would focus the emphasis on subjects. In other words, in the classroom there are traditional subjects such as maths or language, environmental studies and art are separate from this group. What happens? Normally the dynamics of the text book, the dynamic of what you have always done means you give classes that are much more teacher focused in maths and in language (...). It's true that participation is much higher in art and environmental studies than in maths and language (Interview for Reflection. Case 2).

**Curriculum and teaching methodology**

In the first case, the developement of the project in the classroom was favoured by previous work that the counsellor and tutor had already done with pupils in Year 6 (Primary Education). Two weeks before the start of the project, the tutor contacted the counsellor showing an interest in cooperative learning. A classroom projct arose from this initial interest devised by these two teachers focusing on maths in which pupils would "go from solving mathematical problems to creating mathematical problems".

This previous work facilitated the implementation of the project under the logic of various teachers in the classroom using group work methodology. Within this general framework the phases of Pupil consultation and Improvement activities (letter, meeting with the director and development of an end of year video) were developed, given that pupils had already been organized in small groups. Later on the contributions of each group were taken to the class assembly where decisions were eventually made together. This work took place during tutorials and Spanish language classes.

These methodological changes were incorporated gradually into the teaching style of the tutor, who went from very controlled class management to a more democratic class management style where students progressively gained more autonomy and power to make decisions. This is how the tutor descibed it:

“I think that at other times my role is to be much more present, what I mean is that I control activities more (...). And on this occasion I've always stayed in the background. (...) It places more importance on them (...) than on me as a teacher that controls the activity. (...) a point of view that doesn't involve me can arise from the activity. (...) What has surprised me is seeing (...) what they can do for themselves”. (Final Tutor Interview). Case 1).
These changes became apparent during the same year the project was taking place, but also in later work carried out by this tutor with other groups. As highlighted somewhat ironically by the counsellor a year after the development of the project the tutor commented:

"I’ve come to see what you think of the list of responsibilities I’ve compiled for this year because as you told me last year that I don’t know how to delegate, this year I’m going to start by giving these responsibilities to the pupils". And she has started by making someone responsible for reviewing the diary, another for raising and lowering the blinds, well these types of daily tasks because before she was in control of doing everything" (Interview for Reflection. Case 1).

Moreover, the “obsession with the curriculum”, as it is planned in advance is another of the aspects where the counsellor has seen a change, the tutor now appears to favour a more flexible curriculum, one that leaves space for new things that may emerge during each year in each classroom. The counsellor highlighted:

“What you do in class has a lot to do with your teaching style…Specifically this tutor is really bothered by the need to fulfill curriculum requirements, fulfill the agenda, do what is required in the books…it is already May and we have to organize the festival but these things need also need to be completed…Furthermore, as the pupils are going to Secondary school next year the new school will not only value its pupils but also the activities of those teachers who teach the final year of primary education. These are all factors that have an effect and to some extent I think she is more relaxed (Interview for Reflection. Case 1).

In the second case, the research project led the tutor to develop a thorough review not only of the methodological strategies used, but also of the organization of school knowledge. In some of the subjects the tutor replaced her initial design (like for example in environmental studies) in order to develop more globalized contents through an approach which was closer to project work. The tutor used the analysis of the neighbourhood as a topic with the objective of identifying and documenting those aspects that pupils did not like so that they could suggest making improvements or changes. This meant that, on the one hand, the tutor intensified the use of collaborative methodological strategies and, on the other hand, that the existing barriers between different subjects (environmental studies, language, etc.) became blurred, with the use of text books being abandoned in favour of using other types of learning materials. It can be said:

“[To make change real it is important] to leave text books to one side because maybe while we have this tool the teacher becomes so attached to it that it becomes impossible to change the curriculum” (Interview for Reflection. Case 2).

In any case, it is important to point out that while the tutor was very satisfied with the results obtained when introducing these modifications to the curriculum, this did not prevent her from having to face some difficulties. One of the difficulties identified was related to the limitations that, for many teachers, is imposed by the existence of a national curriculum which outlines in detail the different elements that need to be covered. Far from becoming a tool which needs to adapt to each context, the tutor felt pressured by the predicted results, preventing the exploration of those questions put forward by pupils during the project.
“The structure, the curricular framework prevents you from developing, you don’t have the freedom that you could have, despite the fact that all skills can be used much better using this type of product compared to working through subjects” (Final Tutor Interview. Case 2).

In the same way, the tutor identified some difficulties that could be considered to be external. On the one hand, the need to obtain good results in an external evaluation imposed by education authorities at the end of primary education led to pressure which placed the development of the project in danger. As understood from what the tutor said, the existence of this test has a decisive influence on the curriculum and leads teachers to develop strategies aimed at trying to obtain good results although this means adapting work carried out in the classroom.

On the other hand, the tutor recognized that the changes introduced in the curriculum caused an unexpected reaction from the pupils’ families due to the break with disciplinary organization and the introduction of certain methodological strategies that had not been used up to this moment. The tutor acknowledged that once the initial doubts put forward by the families had been dispelled, she could count on the support of this group which later participated willingly in the activities developed in the classroom.

The concept of pupils

The project has helped the professionals involved change their perspective on the role of students in educational processes. In this regard, it can be said that school organization in the classroom has favoured an adult-centric approach where pupils have not been given the opportunity to develop a consolidated experience of participation in the school. Nevertheless, it can be seen that pupils participate more at classroom level than at school level although the need to enhance decision making for the youngest pupils at both levels is clear.

In case 1 the proposals of the project connect with some demands which, according to the counsellor, the students had already achieved such as the opportunity to work more in groups or change some classroom dynamics (group work, management of speaking time, etc.). In addition, it can be concluded that they feel that their voices have been listened to and that they have been able to participate.

All these changes would not have been possible without the creation of meeting places where younger pupils are able to develop their autonomy, make decisions and discuss issues based on their role as “experts” in education. In the words of the counsellor:

“I respect the pupils, I think it has been an experience with a before and after for them, because perhaps during their primary education they haven’t experienced anything similar, and this is something that they transmit, (…) they say that they wouldn’t have done things differently and therefore, the dynamics were new to them. I have also seen an evolution in them since the start of the project up to the end of the school year with regard to the way they work in groups (…).There is an interest in listening to us although it was really difficult to get them to lift their hand up and wait for their turn to speak. Despite everything small but important steps have been taken both at classroom level and learning as citizens” (Final Counsellor Interview. Case 1).

The transformation of the perception of pupils can also be seen in case 2. In fact the tutor demonstrated that the work carried out had enabled her to review decision making (who decides, how, when…) in relation to different
aspects of the curriculum. In this regard, she considered that it had gone from being a one-way process to one in which pupils were able to participate. She specifically highlighted that her teaching style had become more democratic. The project helped the tutor recognize the ability of pupils to reflect on what happened daily in the classroom. She said:

“Well I see pupils more at my level, that is, as people who you can ask specific things “What do you think about doing this, or what do you think about my idea”, things that perhaps before wouldn’t have occurred to me (…). If I’m running over the idea of introducing something in the classroom in the afternoon or in the evening before I would have done it directly, now I consult my pupils and to be honest they are much happier and so am I, because what we decide together is going to be better, because we have all participated in deciding it should be done like that” (Final Tutor Interview. Case 2).

In a similar way, participation in the project provoked a change in the school's counsellor's perception of her pupils. While this professional recognized that she had always had a positive perception of this group, she considered that the work carried out had helped her moral development greatly and had enabled pupils to become aware of their responsibility when changes were introduced, not only in the classroom but in the school itself.

“Well formalizing ways of listening to them has made what they say important and means that they can also take responsibility for their errors. You can see it in the last assemblies, how their moral development has increased because they said: “no, no, we think that in the playground it should be done like this because…”, and they were beginning to think about the organization of their proposals. You realize that when you present an opportunity like this pupils also respond (in contrast to how we usually view them as passive beings, receptors), in other words they have been turned into agents for change, generating in them emancipation, empowerment” (Final Counsellor Interview. Case 2.)

Conclusions

In this paper we have presented a research project developed in two schools that has helped education professionals reflect on their teaching practice and propose improvements. Thus, based on the premise of the student voice as a lever for school improvement we have encouraged reflection on the opportunities for participation which already existed in these schools, identifying those areas where participation can be developed naturally or on the contrary, where barriers exist.

Furthermore, we have been able to see the impact the project has had on the teaching methods of tutors. In both cases there has been a review of the methodology used in the classroom, promoting working in groups and collaboration between pupils, tutors and counsellors. The idea of the curriculum is geared more towards a strategy, with more importance now placed on processes and development rather than on advance planning. Text books have stopped being central to the organization of the teaching-learning process, leaving the way open for more globalized projects and concerns that are more directly connected to the school and its local community.

The perception that adults have of young pupils has also changed, pupils are now understood to be active agents, with the ability to voice their own opinions and take action for improving the school, despite the fact that the difficulty of changing perspectives is openly recognized given that the culture of participation is not rooted in Spanish schools.
Lastly, it should be noted that the project has generated a work environment where both tutors and counsellors have had the opportunity to think about their role as teachers and advisors. Undoubtedly, as with previous research, this type of work enables us to “learn some lessons” on the importance that this type of research has for renewing the curriculum and reinventing the role of education professionals, that is, research that focuses on promoting democratic culture in educational institutions (Calvo, Haya & Susinos, 2012; Ceballos & Susinos, 2014).

References


Curricula comparison of health and social management programs in Czech Republic, Finland, Portugal and Scotland

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Managing social and health care services places higher and higher demands on managers. Nowadays managers have to find ways how to deliver high quality services with less available resources. Clients' needs have become very complex and therefore they must be guaranteed to have an access to both social and health care services. Managers in order to provide quality services also need to be multidiscipline professionals. Usually they need to have an academic degree in a public health discipline and/or in social work. On the other hand they must be also well trained managers, who are able in turbulent times to lead multidisciplinary teams of experts to deliver excellent outcomes.

No wonder that the universities are asked to design special programmes in which 21st century social and health care managers could be trained. So far many of such programmes have been developed especially at national levels. Current experiences show that the national borders have to be overcome even in the area of new curricula development.

The aim of this paper is present how five European universities started work on Joint Master Degree programme in social and health care management. In order to achieve such a goal they needed to analyse the content of their curricula to define their similarities and to be aware of their differences. The comparison was made by curricula, usually programme’s and modules’ description, analysis accompanied by online interviews. This article presents the main findings of the curricula comparison.

The main objective of a curriculum development it’s to address and answer to the societal needs and aims and to the results of the analysis do it by academics and professional about the competencies needed in future.

Share and build a curriculum between different Universities, with different background, experiences, interested, core competencies, culture, and way to do the “things” is a challenge and demands a carefully methodology design, in order to prevent a remission in curriculum coherence.

The idea to develop a curriculum in Health Care Administration at European level requires a strong commitment with knowledge and the idea of a common European framework of curriculum design. To answer to this we need work on a curriculum comparison methodology, in same way defining a benchmark analysis of curriculum that is used at National level.

The involved programmes share many similarities in their general set ups. This finding can be documented mainly on the absolvents' profiles and learning outcomes’ statements. Three main thematic areas can be identified in each
involved programme. These areas are: health and/or social care systems, social research and management. On the other hand in Bologna declaration regulated environment surprisingly many differences have been discovered too. Different programme’s documentation, length, credit values, modules’ amount belong among the most important ones. The curriculum comparison has shown there is a good base for creation of Joint Master Degree programme in health and social care management if a careful attention is paid mainly to different national approaches to Joint Master Degree programme accreditation, each programme concrete ways of deliver and the proper choice of suitable technology for international collaborative learning.

Introduction

There is a common understanding that university curricula should address societal aims and represent updated disciplinary understanding and competencies (Levander and Mikkola, 2009: 275). The goals and correspondingly the curriculum content, however, are often a collection of more or less structured knowledge that has been passed on and evolved over time.

The main objective of a curriculum development it’s to address and answer to the societal needs and aims and to the results of the analysis do it by academics and professional about the competencies needed in future. All curricula vary in the way that it is constructed (planned/designed), implemented and experienced, in one hand, and they are often governed by national legislation (Kako and Rudge, 2008), in same case European or International rules, in another hand.

Share and build a curriculum between different Universities, with different background, experiences, interested, core competencies, culture, and way to do the “things” is a challenge and demands a carefully methodology design, in order to prevent a remission in curriculum coherence.

The idea to develop a curriculum in Health Care Administration at European level requires a strong commitment with knowledge and the idea of a common European framework of curriculum design. To answer to this we need work on a curriculum comparison methodology, in same way defining a benchmark analysis of curriculum that is used at National level.

Curriculum evaluation is needed for decision making (around curriculum). It is difficult to over emphasise the inter-subjective nature of problems associated with processes and products, outcomes and the issue of value judgements – all are of critical interest in curriculum decision making (Hall, 2014: 344).

The curriculum design requires “a systemic view of designing teaching, constructive alignment calls for a systematic and outcomes-based approach from the teachers” (Levander and Mikkola, 2009: 276) to define the contents, the pedagogical methods, outcomes and the learning objectives. To develop an European Master Program in Health Administration its needed work with this particular curriculum design, but mixed this with all different partner, with the different perspectives.

Assuming that curriculum is “a deliberate set of planned learning opportunities”, so “curriculum requires scrutiny and evaluation of learning objectives, processes and content” (Hall, 2014: 343). When we have five different curriculum programs, that exist in four different countries and we wish develop a common curriculum between all of these partners, with all of these differences, we need work in the methodology of curriculum comparison. So, this
article will apply to define a methodology to create a benchmark tool to compare the curriculum that each partner university as in Health Management area.

In this sense, this paper is structured as follow: first, we will provide an about comparative curriculum analysis and we will provides the research and benchmark methodology that supports our study; second, we will present some of the work than until this moment in this project; and third, some final ideas and conclusion for a good practices in curriculum comparasion.

**Design methodology and State of the art in International Curriculum comparison**

It's always complicated make comparison internationally, not only from different legal systems, but also a several cultural, practices and requestes differences. Even so, according to Bakalis, Bowman and Porock (2004) an international comparison of curricula is a relevant approach to compare the contents of education in various countries.

Levander and Mikkola (2009: 275) emphasises the benefits of Core Curriculum Analysis and of the deployment of a course description database as a tool for curriculum design.

When we work to develop a program we need establish some comparisons terms and concepts to define the main disciplines and knowledge that it's needed work to build the curriculum.

Curriculum evaluation is also about assessing the nature, impact and value of a curriculum through the systematic collection of evidence, analysis and interpretation of that information with the intention (aim) of making a decision. A variety of techniques such as questionnaires and interviews are useful to provide the comprehensive collection of information to aid curriculum evaluation.

We use a benchmarking analysis to make this international curriculum comparison; Hall (2014) proposes a model of curriculum analysis and evaluation – BEKA, incorporating four major steps, benchmarking, evidencing, knowing and applying. It is argued that this framework provide a powerful tool enabling understanding of actual process of teaching coverage of curriculum content and assessment, and demonstrate linkages between theory and practice. This is our roadmap to build the Joint Master Degree Programme in Social and Health Care Management.

In international curriculum comparison we need look for a several aspects and characteristics, such as: degree profiles, key programme competences, structures of the programme, study unit learning outcomes, education style, and assessment criteria and methods.

The project “Development of Culture and Quality of Care – Master’s Degree Programmes Enhancing Social and Health Care Management Competencies” (Careman) started in October 2013. There are 5 universities responsible for the project implementation (presented in alphabetical order), one from the Czech Republic (Charles University, Faculty of Humanities), two from Finland (Lahti University of Applied Sciences a HAMK University of Applied Sciences) one from Portugal (University of Évora) and one from Scotland (Edinburgh Napier University). The project will end in September 2016. The purpose of the project is to develop a Joint Master Degree Programme, whose graduates will have attitudes, skills and knowledge needed for providing quality health and social care services in current Europe. A curricula analysis belongs among the project activities.
The aims of this project are:

- To develop an Erasmus Multilateral Master of Sciences program that combines and utilizes the strengths of the five collaborative Universities that already specialize in care management to create a European perspective.

- To produce high calibre post-graduates who are equipped with skills, theory and competence to effectively manage an integrated organizational culture to achieve optimal quality of care.

In Bologna Declaration European countries have agreed to implement student centred, outcome based and transparent higher educational programme on Bachelor, Master and the Doctorate level. For academic staff responsible for designing and delivering degree programmes, this means that the degree programmes should be organised in view of their desired results. The outcomes of the learning process should meet the aims of the programme, but also that those outcomes should meet the need and expectations of students and society, ensuring employment, personal development and citizenship.

Student-centred degree programmes must be designed in such a way that learners will develop the particular mix of competences considered useful and necessary for the academic, professional and / or vocational area. Learning outcomes state the extent and the level or standard of competence. The precise number of credits allocated to individual learning unit or entire programmes reflect the amount of time a learner normally needs to achieve the learning outcomes. The successful acquisition of these learning outcomes is verified at the end of the learning unit and / or the degree programme.

So, the objectives of the project will take in attention this reality, and they are:

- To compare, contrast and map the views, values and ideals taught in the participating master's degree programmes; those practiced in working lives; and the social and health care management and business management curricula of participating master's programmes,

- To use the mapping process outlined in 1 to develop a common part of curricula that will meet the aims of the project.

- To evaluate the joint degree process with a sample of students. This pilot program should be formalized in a joint degree between the five universities. In practice this would mean that a subset of each master's programme's yearly student in-take could choose this joint degree path in their studies. The other students would continue their studies according to each university's own curriculum.

The first step is the benchmarking analysis and that is the next section.

**Curriculum analysis results.**

The significant factor influencing formal appearance of the analysed documents was the fact, that all the universities come from the countries taking part in Bologna Process, and therefore studying programmes founders had to somehow reflect on recommendations of the Framework of Qualifications for Higher Education Area (EHEA Framework). Particularly they had to reflect on recommended learning outcomes for the second studying cycle. Despite this fact from the results of comparison it is obvious that there are notable differences among the universities and their similarly oriented studying programmes. Some of them may be noticed just by comparing the
studying programmes general descriptions as it is shown in Table 56, for others more in depth analysis has to be executed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Czech Republic</th>
<th>Finland</th>
<th>Finland</th>
<th>Portugal</th>
<th>Scotland</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Charles university,</td>
<td>HAMK University of Applied Sciences</td>
<td>Lahti University of Applied</td>
<td>University of Évora</td>
<td>Edinburgh Napier University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Faculty of Humanities</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sciences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studying programme</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>title</td>
<td>CU</td>
<td>HAMK</td>
<td>LUAS</td>
<td>UoE</td>
<td>ENU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Management and Supervision in Social and Health Care Organisations</td>
<td>Management and Development of Social and Health Care</td>
<td>Management in Health and Social Care</td>
<td>Administration of Health Units</td>
<td>Health Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimal entry</td>
<td>Bachelor degree plus entrance exam</td>
<td>Bachelor degree in subject related to nursing, social services, physiotherapy or equivalent</td>
<td>Bachelor degree</td>
<td>Bachelor degree</td>
<td>Honours degree in a subject related to health sciences or management. English Language: IELTS 6.0 equivalent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>requirements</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>Czech</td>
<td>Finnish</td>
<td>Finnish, English</td>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 56: General overview and comparison of each curriculum

Following common features can be defined from the formulated graduates profiles (CU, LUAS, ENU), mission statement (CU) and/or studying programme’s aims (UoE), some ideas can be described:

- All universities seek for graduates well prepared to work at managerial positions (in CU case they can be also supervisors) in social and/or health care.

- The graduates should have leadership skills, they should be active also as experts at both national and international levels.

- All graduates should be prepared to manage provision of quality services in rapidly changing and uncertain environment.

- To successfully manage social and health care services all the graduates will have to know specifics of national and international health and social care systems.

- The graduates will have to adopt managerial skills and while managing organisations they will have to able to use knowledge gained through social research.
- Necessary graduates’ skill will be their ability to work within a multidisciplinary team and also their ability to undertake lifelong learning.

- All graduates will have to able act ethically while being responsible for health and/or social care providing organisations.

Particular universities then may stress some specific aspects in their graduates’ profiles and/or mission and goals’ statements of their studying programmes. For CU for instance it is important that its graduates understand and are able to react to the needs of disadvantaged groups. ENU expects its graduates to perform well at international level. UoE wants its graduates to get involved in the social stability and social cohesion supporting processes.

Only two universities (LUAS and ENU) defined in their curricula learning outcomes in the format recommended by EHEA Framework for the second study cycle. LUAS presents the competencies described in Finnish National Qualification Framework.

The subject of the next analytical work was to compare the structure and the timing of particular studying programmes. Table 57 introduces a basic description of the studying programmes’ modules.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compulsory</th>
<th>Czech Republic</th>
<th>Finland</th>
<th>Finland</th>
<th>Portugal</th>
<th>Scotland</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Health and Social Care Systems</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics in Helping Professions</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision in Social and Health Care Organisations</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource Management</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication workshop</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

56 In the framework of this module the students have to choose two out the three following modules: Change and Foresight Methods (5), Work-related Research and Development Skills (5), Development of Social and Health Care Practice (5)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Credit Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Law in Management Practice</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing work Community</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operational Quality and Performance Assessment</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epidemiology</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualitative research in health and social organisations</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social and Health Economics</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing and Communication in Healthcare Units</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantitative Research Methods in Practice</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research-Based Development</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounting and Finance of Healthcare Units</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diagnosing Organisations</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methodology and Communication Studies (Investigative Writing, Methodology)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Information System Management</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality in Health and Social Care</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Health and Social Care</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logistics in Health</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European social policy systems</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Organisation, Quality Management</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Systems in International Comparison</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Behaviour and Human Resource Management</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and Social Services from the users perspective</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compulsory modules for management specialization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Language Presentation</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice in Management</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to Financial Management</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to Economy</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Theory and Practise</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Management</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

592
Table 57: Studying programmes’ module structure (course and ECTS)

| and Business plan | | | | |
|-------------------|------------------|
| Community development | 2 | | | |
| Law in management practice | 2 | | | |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thesis</th>
<th>28</th>
<th>30</th>
<th>30</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>Health Administration Project</th>
<th>30</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Optional modules</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Competence Development in a Network Environment</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Contemporary Ethical &amp; Professional Issues in Healthcare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Supervision and Consultation in work community</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>International Health and Social Care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Leadership of Expert organisation</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 57 clearly shows different approaches to designing a studying programme module structure in particular universities. UoE offers to its students just compulsory modules and leaves them thus no space for any individual choices. Remaining universities combine compulsory modules with optional ones, CU even adds compulsory optional modules that all students of management specialization have to select. Supervision specialization has its own composition of compulsory optional modules. Beside UoE all other university students must finish their studies by defending of their thesis for which they receive 30 ECTS credits. CU is the only exception as its students receive just 28 ECTS credits for their thesis defences.

The number of compulsory modules varies from university to university. Whilst ENU studying programme consists of 5 compulsory modules with donation of 10 ECTS credits for each module, in case of CU there are 13 modules with different number of credits. The reason for such a high number of modules is at the faculty used practice according to which it is not possible that one module extends the timeframe of a semester. HAMK offers seven 5 ECTS credited compulsory modules, LUAS 10 and UoE 12. While taking into consideration content composition of the modules, they can be divided into 3 main thematic groups. The first group could be named Management. Table 58 shows the compulsory modules that might be classified into this group.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compulsory</th>
<th>Czech Republic</th>
<th>Finland</th>
<th>Finland</th>
<th>Portugal</th>
<th>Scotland</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CU</td>
<td>HAMK</td>
<td>LUAS</td>
<td>UoE</td>
<td>ENU</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision in Social and Health Care Organisations</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Strategic Leadership and Economy in Social and Health Care Field</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Management Theory and Practice</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law in Management Practice</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Management in projects</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>HR and Competence Management</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality in Health and Social Care</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Operational Quality and Performance Assessment</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Logistics in Health</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compulsory optional</td>
<td>Law in management practice</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice in Management</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Thematic modules’ orientation could be further categorized. Studying programmes of all universities contain a module oriented to gaining competencies in the area of Human Resource Management. Financial Management (CU, UoE, ENU), Quality Management (CU, LUAS, UoE, ENU) and Strategic Management (CU, HAMK, LUAS, UoE) are also frequently represented in studying programme’s structures. Some modules can be found among compulsory modules of just one university. CU’s Law in Management Practice, HAMK’s Management in Projects, LUAS’s Management and Workplace Organisation, UoE’s Marketing and Communication in Healthcare Units belong to those modules.

The second compulsory modules’ thematic group could be entitled Social Research in Management. Table 59 presents the social research modules belonging to this group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Compulsory</th>
<th>Optional modules</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>Finland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>Finland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Qualitative research in health and social organisations</td>
<td>Work-related Research and Development skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quantitative Research Methods in Practice</td>
<td>Societal Change and Foresight Methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diagnosing Organisations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optional modules</td>
<td>Practice in Management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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Table 59: Modules with social research orientation (course and ECTS)
As it can be seen all the universities, except UoE, focus on building competencies strengthening their graduates’ ability to use social research outcomes while managing social and/or health care organisations. Studying programmes founders wanted the graduates to be able to meaningfully incorporate outcomes of social research in their work and to know both its limits and possibilities. In case of credits donation of these modules, LUAS and UoE can be found at one side. Their students will receive 5 ECTS credits after accomplishment of all social research oriented compulsory modules. CU stands on the other side with 18 ECTS credits. In HAMK’s case the amount of obtained credits can vary based on a student choice from 5 to maximum 10 ECTS credits. 10 ECTS credits receive students in ENU as well. CU asks its students to diagnose management of one specific organisation in the second semester and subsequently to implement an organisational change in the same organisation. Other universities do not impose similar requirement on their students. They remain either at the level of introduction of research methods (UoE) or description of use of social research in an organisational development.

Social and/or health care systems and policies is the last thematic category. Table 60 presents the modules belonging to this category.

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<th>Czech Republic</th>
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<td><strong>Compulsory</strong></td>
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<td>National and International Challenges in the Health and Social Sector</td>
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<td>Societal Change and Foresight Methods</td>
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<td>International Health and Social Care</td>
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<td>Health Systems in International Comparison</td>
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<td>CU</td>
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Table 60: Social and/or health care systems and policies modules (course and ECTS)

From the table the awareness that particular universities pay to introduction and/or comparison of health and/or social care can be defined. Whilst ENU considers this module optional, for other universities it is a compulsory one. Required competencies are built with a help of one (HAMK, UoE), two (LUAS) or three modules (CU). Studying programme founders believe the graduates must be able to describe the systems of health and/or social care they must be also well informed about the actual health and/or social care policies. CU wishes its graduates to be able to compare adjustment and performance of different health and social care systems. Taking into consideration time consuming study measured by number of ECTS credits then for fulfilment of all studying obligations in HAMK and in UoE will be awarded by 5 ECTS credits, by 10 credits in LUAS and ENU and by 13 ECTS credits in CU.
The key competences to be developed by the learner in the framework of the degree programme can be described as following:

- Competences represent a dynamic combination of cognitive and metacognitive skills, demonstration of knowledge and understanding, interpersonal, intellectual and practical skills and ethical values.
- Competences are developed in all course units and assessed at different stages of a programme.
- Some competences and subject-area related (specific to a field of studies) while others are generic (common to any degree programme).
- The competence proceeds in an integrated and cyclical manner throughout the programme.

The key programme competences should be the most important ones that the graduate will have achieved as a result of the specific programme.

If the profile statement gives the overall aim of the degree programme, the degree programme learning outcomes show how this overall aim break down into different abilities developed by the students as a result of undertaking the degree programme.

The purpose of learning outcomes is to describe accurately the verifiable learning achievements of a student at a given point in time, for example at the end of a degree-course, study module or a period of learning in the workplace.

Learning outcomes describe what a learner is expected to know, understand and be able to demonstrate after successful completion of a process of learning. Accordingly programme learning outcomes express what a graduate of the programme demonstrably knows, understands and is capable of doing after completing successfully the degree programme. They are statements of concrete verifiable signs that witness or certify how the planned competences, including the required levels of knowledge, are being developed or acquired.

Statements of learning outcomes can be formulated to describe any type of learning that can be validated, whether it is achieved in a formal or a non-formal or informal setting.

When degree learning outcomes are examined, it is usual to break them down into categories. There are certain categories that typically appear such as knowledge, skills and attitudes. Another ways of dividing them is used in the UK: Knowledge and understanding, Intellectual / Cognitive Skills, Practical Skills and Key Skills. In this comparison, a combination of these is used. It includes 1) Knowledge and Understanding, 2) Cognitive skills and application, and 3) Generic skills.

The Learning outcomes, after completing the programmes, are:

1. Knowledge and Understanding: the students are able to:
   - have broad and advanced knowledge of the chosen field to enable them to contribute to the development of the sector
   - have in-depth knowledge of the sector, its role in the wider economy and society
   - have a systematic and critical understanding of the key concepts in strategic and operational health administration
- have a critical understanding of the social, political and personal context of leadership
- have a critical understanding of the contribution that Human Resource Management processes can make to the administration of health and related services
- provide students with adequate and solid scientific training in Management

2. Cognitive Skills and Application – students are able to:
- follow and analyse research and development of the sector
- solve demanding problems using research and / or innovation methods
- develop new knowledge and procedures
- apply and combine knowledge from different fields
- (by appraising competing theoretical perspectives) to undertake a Health Administration project as well as underpin own evidence-based practice
- analyse the factors that influence the quality management within health units.
- is able to apply subject-specific knowledge in a range of work-related situations
- analyse the impact of their own organisational role and approaches and devised ways of making these more effective
- demonstrate independent and creative thought in an interpretation of complex material.
- work independently in demanding expert roles
- lead and develop complex, unprecedented and novel strategic approaches
- evaluate the performance of individuals or groups
- accumulate knowledge and practices in the chosen field and / or take charge of other people’s development

3. Generic skills
- have skills for life-long learning and continuous professional development
- are capable of professional communication
- communicate orally and in writing to both specialist and non-specialist audiences
- communicate at an advanced international level and interact in one official language and at least one foreign language
- have skills for networking and cooperation
- be engaged in critical learning and made use of constructive feedback
- have employability skills: time management, problem solving, team working, information handling, and presenting written arguments
- Work as an entrepreneur

Similarities between programme learning outcomes lead the way to formulate those of the joint training. The shared learning outcomes could be summarized as following:

- **Knowledge and Understanding**
  - The students know and understand the concepts, purposes, influences and the context of leadership and management in the field of social and health care and in the society

- **Cognitive Skills and Application**
  - The students are able to utilize knowledge, research and innovative methods and apply those in complex situations in their work field.
  - The students are able to take responsibility for the development of the practices in their field and carry out leading tasks independently and professionally.

- **Generic Skills**
  - The students possess good oral and written communication skills and are able to act fluently in interpersonal cooperation and networks.
  - The students have good problem-solving skills and they can show personal and intellectual autonomy: self-management, critical thinking and setting goals.

Another, yet minor, difference between programmes concerns their connection to competence-based approach. Some learning outcomes do not necessarily describe the actual learning outcomes. Instead, the learning outcomes are perceived from the general point of view such as: to provide students with training of Management. These features appear very little within the programmes.

### Some conclusion and topic ideas

Comparing curriculum always is critical. The differences between the curriculum's, the reality of each country, the pedagogical cultures of each university is a critical issue that will be need worked to create a European Programme in this topic, and all of the topics.

We can find differences between the Bologna rules in each country and also a critical issue about ECTS (European credit transfer system) we find; each university, accordingly National rules in same case, count 1 ECTS differently, per example: 1 ECTS in ENU are 20 work hours and in UoE are 26 hours.

Another key issue are the cultural position and approach to lectures and learning process that has different perspectives from these universities and countries.
Even so, after do this benchmarking analysis, the team project develop a first stage to create the European Programme with 30 ECTS working in three main topics: human resource and knowledge management, quality management, and assurance intercultural management.

References


Cooperation in Science Teaching: The students’ contributions, speeches and arguments

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In this paper, we acknowledge curricular practices and other perspectives used for the teaching work in Science teaching, contributing to Teacher Education studies. The specificity of other approaches is sought, whether centered on the relationship between young people and those who them, and their skills to identify how to learn best, assuming a special focus on teaching, explaining and learning Science through the discourse of young secondary students. Different practices and interaction in educational domains are identified in order to achieve better results in school work, through studying the way students «see science education», therefore accomplishing better learning skills and curricular justice in the school environment. In the course of research and review of the literature it is noticed in the speeches of students a reluctance to follow the studies in science (Cachapuz, Gil-Pérez, Pessoa de Carvalho, Praia & Vilches, 2005). This "crisis of science education" (Pozo & Gómez Crespo, 2009:15) is manifest in the classroom with the teaching of a form of science disjointed of scientific knowledge which sometimes is translated into a decontextualized learning. Generally, and consequently, students reveal discomfort,
doubt and anguish to continue their studies in vocational areas where science subjects – Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Geology and Geography – are nuclear. Research in science teaching shows that “most of the students don’t learn the science they are taught” (Pozo & Gómez Crespo, 2009:15). Affirming students’ don’t learn, is clearly different from affirming that students don’t learn what is taught. It is as though two different “sciences” are being taught. In this perspective, we notice a decreasing demand of students for scientific studies. Due to the uncertainties and difficulties presented by students regarding the valid curricular standards there is an increasing demand for alternative science learning skills in non-formal contexts, such as tutoring. Within this context, the project “CiênciasForaEscola” (CFE, SciencesOutsideSchool), which involves a transnational team in a networking and multidisciplinary partnership, that includes the participation of two secondary young students. In this paper, we will present the six tutors’ narratives, three clippings of the focus-group interviews and the preliminary results of the survey answered by tutees and secondary education students from Portugal and Cape Verde. The main aim of this research consists in understanding different strands of knowledge that allow us to understand the Science teaching curriculum for learning and equity, challenge cooperation in Science Teachers Education and develop curricular justice in education.

**Keywords:** “Cooperation in the Science teaching”, “learning sciences”, “curriculum and equity in school”

1. Introduction

This communication presents the path of this research since the construction of the team to the definition and development of the object of study. The presentation and reflection on the foundations of this mode of investigating has been within the team a scientific and political debate. It is a research located in qualitative looming in education focused on interpretative paradigm that discovers and promotes the debate within the team and the articulation of knowledge and diverse knowledge of its members. Emphasize the experiences and the narratives of all involved in a dynamic of sharing and reflection individual and group. The point of start of this study focuses on students who are studying science and the quality of their learning. Demand to know what their motivations to choose vocational areas directly connected to the sciences, that expectations had, or not, on them. It is also intended to determine the difficulties they encounter in studying the hole content in the school context and/or in their study outside of school. Recognizing the importance of good educational relationship with the teachers of science, it is important to this study know what are the difficulties experienced by students in the context of the classroom, in what ways can, or not, to clarify their doubts and how they feel more or less motivated to continue your academic path in areas and courses with strong scientific and technological. For this project it is essential to identify and enumerating the difficulties experienced and referred to by students and can also find the causes that generate as well as articulate and cooperate with the students, teachers and all educators another look on the concepts and content that are taught to the students feel safer to study science and achieve better academic results in sciences. The ongoing search develops with the intention to reach the strands of knowledge, learning science outside and inside the

57 It is a project in progress entitled: “Science Outside School” (CFE) that seeks partners to integrate and stabilize the research team and that at the time it brings together a group of researchers with practical knowledge and diverse, but common interests around learning, pedagogies and the challenge of teaching and the study of the sciences. So the team account with three
school, the understanding of the relationship between teaching, explain, demonstrate and learn science, that is, " ... identify modes OF pedagogical work in the act of teaching, to analyze the relationship between those who teach and learning of young people, recognize pedagogies and relations between scientific knowledge and professional." (Ferreira, E. Fonseca, M. & Teixeira A., 2014). In a 1ST step to cooperation with Cape Verde it is accomplished through the integration of a science teacher initial team of the project and that together they think and promote the exchange of knowledge and of difficulties intrinsic to each one of the realities and the recognition of common singularities in the teaching and learning of science where the cooperation can help one another to training of science teachers and earn a prominent place in understanding the transnational phenomenon. When you take the need everyone to contribute to a policy of education for all and for all, we need to look, but with a new look, for those who teach and study. The look that suggests tends from the vision of those who are the main recipients of education, students, in particular the young students. This meander began to research by collecting and analyzing two narratives of professionals in the study and teaching of science, one of Portugal (PA) and another of Cape Verde (PB), a focused discussion with a group of 12 students and a questionnaire collected an exploratory group (n= 40) and " In this context several were and are the questions: Why not include in the research work what they say and think young people on the content of what they teach and how they are taught? Why not form a research team with diverse partners, educators and young students? Why not listen to those who practice the teaching in contexts outside of the classroom and even outside of school?" (ibidem). It is precisely on the concrete and the initial training of the students that the Project CFE directs its research work while open to the contribution and the sharing of all the other actors in the process of teaching and learning science. This text summarizes the idea of cooperation in science and we will present preliminary results of work through the visions of the one who teaches and the arguments that the young people come to us.

2. Cooperate in Science

In an increasingly global world, Education is, with total justice, a priority in the promotion of the development of a state and a pillar of security and respect for the fundamental rights of its citizens, as well as the cultural values that characterize them. Thus, "The history of education of the 20th century until the present registers a growing national movement and international and intellectual cooperation between entities of political society and civil society that act in distinct educational specialties." (Sander, 2014:35) According to the European Union "The education and training has a crucial role to play in meeting the many challenges socio-economic, demographic, environmental and technological to Europe and its citizens, today and in the years to come." (in Official Journal of the European Union 5.28.2009 : C 119/2). We live in a society where science and technology are present in all the steps that we take in our daily lives. These advances allow us to travel without leaving the place, communicate in isolation and access to all kinds of information, thanks to the phenomenon of globalisation, having dethroned the school as the only means of access to information to become another means possible. In this way it seems paradoxical when, in the course of research work and the review of the literature it is clear that in the speeches of the young a reluctance in follow-up studies in the area of sciences (Cachapuz, Gil-Perez, Pessoa de Carvalho, Praia, & Vilches, 2005). Over the course of time the teaching of science has to be socialized in all children and young people along researchers in Science Education and three teachers/educators in science (Physics, Chemistry, Biology and Geography). It also has a special feature to include in the team two young students of secondary education.
the basic education, however, only a minority is able to achieve the success - the elite - which constituted, an opportunity for the teachers identify and distinguish them from the more able and talented among all, which will be forwarded to the universities (Aikenhead, 2009). Throughout basic schooling, has been to develop the idea that the previous levels serve as preparation for the following levels and, in the last instance, prepare for university education, reached only by a minority, since the "outsiders" are finding options and alternatives to courses scientific-technological. Those are the "world of diversity", are on the way, being considered as the not endowed with a scientific vision, making Science a culture strange (ibidem). This "crisis of science education" (Pozo & Gomez Crespo, 2009:15), manifested in the classroom with teaching a form of science spineless of scientific knowledge, sometimes leads, a learning uncluttered. Although the entire school does not form experts, does not comply with the its role in forming citizens who may find strategies to respond to the problems that the society offers. This is due, in part, to the content and procedures associated with their teaching, based on the transmission of school knowledge that is not always a representation of scientific knowledge. Sacristán (2013) states that there has been to open a gap between what are the scientific knowledge produced by experts and the knowledge which has been approved by the children and young people in schools, where the second, sometimes appears as caricature of first, revealing an intellectual degradation. The content of the curriculum are selected in accordance with the role that education must play, with reasoning of ideological nature, as to what you want to that society will come to be in the future. The education system can focus its action in forming people as citizens/Democrats able to understand the society and intervene in it (Zabala, 2002), or in the training of professionals in response to (and as the needs of the market).

In relation to the cooperation and when we consider the Official Journal of the European Union, we emphasize the understanding that 'The European cooperation in the field of education and training should be undertaken in a looming lifelong learning, effectively using the open method of coordination and developing synergies between the different sectors of education and training" (ibidem 5.28.2009 : C 119/2). But for that linkage and cooperation mentioned above and recommended are successful, it is justified that internally also establishes a good relationship and cooperation between all stakeholders in educational act. Therefore, it will be opportune and useful reverse the chain of information so that all the different levels of education internal feel well represented to commit to programs and teaching methods more global. We need -because, a study and a study of perception of what is taught, how to teach and finally, how to learn " Only an efficient and sustainable use of resources - both public and private), as appropriate, will make it possible to achieve the high quality that if you want to, there are simultaneously that promote in this field the adoption of policies and practices in education and training, based on actual data." (ibidem). Assuming then, of a political approach and enlarged international, requires, at the same time, a coherent implementation and sustained the principles and goals of education that the different stakeholders are extensively. Thus to define content and objectives the more possible cross between nations and peoples, it is required that the customers stakeholders know and share the best of the educational reality of each one, in order to be able to create and develop programs that are well articulated, in respecting the characteristics of each of the countries involved, providing a dynamic education capable of promoting a teaching to and along the life becoming crucial to clarify and set ways and resources to achieve the goals set are achieved with the citizens. If we consider the narratives collected realized the importance that the actors attach to international cooperation and the education/training in all contexts and poor or in desenvolvimento while possibility solidarity for the change and the improvement of conditions of the populations through the training of their young students. Repair the
narrative of PB in that the author was clear and safe to enumerating the main difficulties for the study and learning of these disciplines and who are responsible for failure and school dropout. In their words:

"Here in Cape Verde there are two causes of Conforming our reality economic and social that determine a significant decrease in the number of students pursuing their studies after the completion of basic education.

The first is exactly the fact that the state ensure charge only the basic education that is required, by which only those students whose parents have higher economic conditions and some sensitivity to the importance of school education is sponsoring the frequency of cycles of education that follow. The other is the pregnancy precoce that even if checks and limits the continuation of studies for many of our students”. But when questioned about whether the students who continue their studies, in particular those who arrive to secondary education, reveal difficulties in the study of instructors as Mathematics or Physico-chemical, responds:

"Students in general do not like Mathematics or Physical-chemical and show many difficulties and do not have good notes to them. And this happens by the materials given do not identify with the reality in which they were born, live, and grow. On the other hand, they do not know studying these disciplines, because they fall into the error of doing a study on that predominates the garnish. I do not understand the concepts, not having method of study and not felt motivated in the classroom, has failure and then make choices on your academic future of distant areas of science and technology. And that is bad for the development of our country that lacks tables properly qualified in the areas of engineering and technology”.

The title flowchart our understanding to cooperate in science assumes a dynamic exchange of experiences supportive and reflective in that everyone can benefit and understand the challenge of teaching and learning in science for the building of a world that is more just and fair given the power that is given to these knowledge. The political commitment and the involvement of all becomes essential in the development of knowledge in the sciences.

3. Arguments of Young on cooperates and learns more science

The teaching and learning of science in the voice of the students listened to, in the form of discussion focused, within the framework of this project, it allows you to identify the difficulties experienced by them in their daily school and that in very affect their use and many times they generate disillusionment, lack of motivation and school dropout.

When freely questioned about the difficulties and worries that the study and learning of sciences raise them, show us that the difficulties in Mathematics, and the Physical-Chemical they commit themselves, many times, the linkage with the knowledge of the other sciences, such as Biology, Geology and Geography. They evoke in his speech that many of the difficulties they experience in the study of sciences are related to how the lessons of these disciplines are carried out, in particular the relationship with the respective Professor, greatly influenced by their doubts and school performance:
"The teacher gives the matter to those who are best, headlightsnever approaches that holds more
difficulties. There are many students in the class and he did not have time to ourselves, who are more
learning difficulties".

And clearly need saying:

"The teacher has their favorite students, those who are more attentive in class, and those who have the
best notes".

To focus on a good part of their difficulty in educational relationship unsafe and demotivating effect that has with
those who teach them science, reinforce what we state in this respect Perrenoud when he says that "In truth, the
know rarely is decoupled from person who embodies and know well that a good teacher can make pleasurable
even knowledge ungrateful." (2001:79). Despite the doubts and difficulties encountered in the context of the
classroom, the students add that your individual study outside of school also does not contribute to reverse the
situation as you would expect generates failure in learning. This is why they claim that in general use the
explanations and the explainers, form of education outside the School, implemented in different educational
systems and with a dimension known and recognized and even studied under several prospects.

The students justify this way of Teaching/Study as a way to clarify their doubts and to complement what they learn
in the classroom with the Teacher, trying to look better and be able to improve their performance at school.

"I came to explanation to improve the medium, I came up the notes". Others have said that the first reason to have
explanations is due to the fact that they are not able to study in an individual way and autonomous these
disciplines: "At home do not study, I get lost (etc. .) I at home I am not 2002-2010 (etc. .) And I do not have at home
a good method of study and my parents opted for me to put in explanations in these disciplines (…) ".

However, the students heard show, in the form of Investigation by questionnaire, that the study of disciplines
related to science is very important because:

" The sciences cover a large part of the things of the world that surrounds us and sometimes are faced with
problems and questions whose answer is only given by them".

Also recognize that the study of these disciplines will be important throughout your life to the extent that "It is
essential we know them in the Future", either because they are part of our daily lives", either because they give us
'the knowledge and information necessary to fulfill our future work". To recognize the importance of studying and
learning science in a dynamic future students, even though young people and many difficulties in their study,
corroborate the need for a study and a learn to life in accordance with the educational goals established by political
power on an international scale that calls for a concerted cooperation " particularly in basic skills in the areas of
reading, math and science : investigate and disseminate existing good practices and the results of the surveys by
intensifying the existing cooperation to improve the component mathematics and science at higher levels of
education and training to improve the teaching of science." (in Official Journal of the European Union 5.28.2009 : C
119/9).

This way, and from the data already collected at the stage of investigation the students, they also have the notion
that the areas of Science and Technology has "much more outputs and cover so a wide choice of options".
Paradoxical as it is, the students even those with more difficulties in mathematics and physics and chemistry, show
taste for studying science, in spite of some being Biology as the preferred, mathematics, physics and chemistry occupy the positions following in their order of preference.

4. Final Considerations

The movement of this exploratory work in progress is clearly heuristic and dynamic process in which young people have visions debatable but audible and fundamentally, the participation of them as research partners gives them certainly an unprecedented nature of thought and effort to identify indicators that will realize and point as crucial for the improvement of the study and of knowledge in science. Therefore, it is important that we continue to study, in the form of an educational research continued, the more cross as possible to different educational contexts, for which an open cooperation and critical to understand and monitor the possible causes, motivations and barriers to a study motivating and successful that affects many students that the study and learn or that promotes the widespread leakage to your study. It also emerges in this first approach to informal, on the educational reality of Cape Verde, nomeadamenente, with respect to the teaching and learning of mathematics, difficulties similar to those that the students of European countries with level of compulsory schooling differently, such as Portugal, show. We must therefore bring to the debate the educational awakening to the need for a greater and better articulation of knowledge shared between the disciplines related to the sciences, to which, on the one hand, we can define and work the closest to the students, inside and outside the school to reverse the failure and discouragement to mathematics, discipline across all fields of science as says Barroso " despite the specificity inherent in the teaching of Mathematics [...]the problems related to the shortcomings of his teaching and the failure of their learning may not be off the shortcomings and failures of school education in general." (Barroso,2004:10). On the other hand, it is very important that the political power with direct responsibilities in Education is sensitive will need to improve the knowledge of science and of the conditions and the profile of Teacher/ Educator for and in the teaching of science. In fact, the professional who teaches science is identified eplos students as a reference for good or for evil. Once that the pupils themselves to recognize and define the person with whom they study and learn science, inside and outside of the classroom as a determinant for a study more inspiring, enlightening and consequently to better use. In the words of the students about what they like or appreciate who teaches them these disciplines is clear when we say and relate be: " how explains and how transmits the knowledge", and also the fact that attempting to "find an answer on the basis of the reaction to the question we asked you", highlighting " that to be able to explain in several ways the same subject for people studying the understand". In addition to the clear and reasoned that those who teach must have for their students, they also add " the ability to listen to and is not entitled to top, even if the is", " must have good provision to teach and also professionalism". It is because in the person of the Teacher/ Educator who is part of the secret of the success of teaching and learning science. A summary of the argument of the young people to know in science is the interdependence of the enthusiasm of those who teaches with the will of those who learns much more than with the reality and or conditions of contexts or programs.

References


The curriculum and teacher education fields in Brazil

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The fields of Curriculum and Teacher education are interconnected fields, once curriculum becomes a concrete reality through teacher's pedagogical practice. Nevertheless, each one of these areas has its own specialized production, with its own journals, academic groups and scientific events. Curriculum and teacher education are fields whose pedagogical dimensions can give the necessary support for school practice and educational policies. In this context, the objective of this paper is to analyze the production of these two fields, seeking the identification of subjects, authors and theoretical approaches used in both areas and their contribution for school practices and educational policies. To reach these objectives, recent literature of these areas was appraised, looking for articles that discussed the production of each one of these fields. The data for discussions on the field of teacher education derives from surveys produced in this area considering its own academic production. Differently, the curriculum field has not produced surveys for the discussion of its recent production. Thus, the data for this field was collected from papers presented at the Lus-Brazilian Colloquium on Curriculum held at the Minho University, in the city of Braga [Portugal], in 2014. Based on the data of these two fields, this paper analyzes the development, raises questions and points out ways which could help to overcome some of the identified problems. At the Colloquium on Curriculum, the largest number of papers was focused on the axis Curriculum, Didactics and Teacher Education (22.7%). It was also observed that few papers of this axis raised critiques, gave suggestions or made proposals for the curricula of teachers training courses. At the same event 11.5% of its production was focused on the axis entitled Curriculum, Knowledge and School Disciplines. It was also found that on this axis only some papers seek to provide contributions for the development of school curriculum and suggest ways of pedagogical approach for the different disciplines. Regarding the academic production on the field of Teacher Education, the surveys show that while in the 1990's predominated theses and dissertations focused on teacher training courses or initial teacher education (76% of the academic production in this area), in 2007 they start to focus on teacher identity...
Teacher Education

(53%), including thematics as opinions, representations, knowledge and practices about teaching. Finally, we can observe that, despite having grown the number of articles in the field of public policies, in these two fields, the academic production could make a greater contribution to teacher education and to school practices, by discussing teacher training courses, its curricula and practices and also by presenting alternatives to the curricula of primary and secondary education. Research must invest in the knowledge of schools, identifying the main problems faced by teachers and students of primary and secondary education, because it is urgent and necessary to improve the public educational system in Brazil and, consequently, students' performance.

Introduction

The fields of curriculum and teacher education are interrelated areas, since the curriculum itself becomes a concrete reality through teacher's pedagogical practice. Although many researchers - mainly from the curriculum field - also study and research on teacher education, each area has its own specialized production, with its own journals, academic groups and scientific events. Production in both fields has the potential to support school practices and educational policies.

In the referred context, the goal of this paper is to analyse the production of these two areas in order to identify themes, authors and theoretical approaches used in both of them, as well as their similarities and differences. To achieve this goal, recent literature from these fields was appraised looking for articles in which the production from each area has been discussed. Data regarding the curriculum field were collected from surveys conducted by curriculum scholars on the development of this field in Brazil, as well as data collected from papers presented at the Luso-Brazilian Colloquium on Curriculum held at the University of Minho in Braga, Portugal, in 2014. Data for discussion concerning teacher training have originated from studies that seek to take stock of the academic production from this field. Based on the data from these two fields, this paper analyses the development of both, raises questions and points out ways that could help to overcome the identified problems.

Firstly, I will present and discuss the production of both fields. At the end I will make an assessment starting from my own view of the research carried out in these two educational fields. I will initially talk about the curriculum field and then about the teacher education.

Curriculum field in Brazil

As I have said elsewhere, production from the curriculum field in Brazil has considerably advanced since Moreira (1990) discussed the emergence and development of referred area in our country. Curriculum scholars, influenced by the predominant critical trend in that field during the last decade, sought to analyse and diagnose problems, as well as to offer suggestions and recommendations intended to overcome chronic problems present in school curricula.

In such context, it was criticized: the discipline-based curricula; the hegemony of academic culture in curricular contents; the hierarchy of disciplines within curricular proposals; discrimination regarding social class, gender and ethnicity, which occurred in official curricula as well in teaching materials and school practices. That time period witnessed the rise of multiple papers defending concepts such as: the respect for cultural differences and a
curriculum that would be closer to the everyday life and culture of the community where the school is located. Those papers additionally claimed that schools should not only provide cognitive contents, but also value - and work with - the body, the emotions, the social skill and values, i.e. a reorganization of the classroom towards the establishment of more democratic teaching practices and the use of different kinds of teaching materials (Santos, 2007).

Curriculum studies are recent in Brazil and from an academic point of view the field has been organized in more depth in the last three decades. Moreira (2002) remarks that only in the mid-1980s, within the National Association of Graduate Studies and Education Research (ANPED), a Working Group (WG) on Curriculum Studies was organized and began to bring together the academic field. Whereas WG contributes to develop the curriculum field and to reveal such development, Moreira (2002) then analyses the curriculum field development in Brazil, based on the proposals, activities and dynamics of the WG itself. The referred author analyses the trends in the areas of curriculum studies based on the papers presented within the Working Group from 1996 through 2002. According to Moreira, those papers show:

(...) concerns with the school routine, the construction of knowledge in networks, different cultural artefacts, curricular proposals, multiculturalism, the power of control and govern embedded in curriculum, as well as with the history of curricular thinking and the history of disciplines (2002: 93).

Also according to Moreira (2002), among the authors more often quoted in those papers are Brazilian authors linked to the curriculum field, and foreign authors, predominantly Americans (particularly Giroux and Apple), followed by British authors (such as Bernstein and Goodson), and Spanish authors (such as Sacristán and Santomé). The papers also quote other Brazilian and foreign authors who deal with the areas of Sociology, Philosophy and Cultural Studies.

The main observations on the curriculum field that are highlighted by said author include: (a) the field production does not focus on certain themes or issues, once their interests, sources and theoretical influences are very diverse; (b) there is a lack of dialogue between the many authors, so the overall production neither shows crossings and intersections nor a clash of ideas; (c) the papers in connection with dissertations and theses clearly reflect the influence of the respective programs, research lines and supervisors with which and whom those papers are affiliated; (d) there is a lack of formulation of original ideas, and the application of what has already been produced thus dominates (Moreira 2002).

Macedo, Paiva and Lopes (2006) also analysed the curriculum field production in Brazil, with reference to the theses and dissertations from 1996 through 2002. 453 studies selected from 27 out of the existing 65 education graduate programs in Brazil were analysed. The authors selected theses and dissertations from those programs with a focus on the area of curriculum studies or which had research lines or a group of researchers that concentrate their investigation on curriculum studies. This survey focused only on studies related to basic education.

The main conclusions of this survey can be summarized as follows: out of the 453 these and dissertations which were analysed, 43.5% focus on the curricular practices, most of which discuss the relationship between the official curriculum and classroom practices; 22.3% are related to the analysis of official curricular proposals; 17.7% have as its central theme the curricular organization; 16% focus on the selection of contents. The authors highlight a
certain reification of school knowledge and note that the studies do not problematize either the selection or the organization of curricular contents. This survey also shows that those studies do not clearly state which their main theoretical approaches would be. In the 453 studies analysed, the authors also identify the prevalence of a sociological/philosophical approach, reaching a percentage of 63.6%. Regarding the authors who are more often quoted in those studies, the survey shows that, alongside authors of the curriculum field, theses and dissertations also refer to authors from the areas of philosophy, sociology, psychology and anthropology (Paiva, Lopes and Macedo, 2006).

One of the most important conclusions drawn from the survey is regarding a certain contradiction pointed out by its authors in the analysed studies. Firstly, Paiva, Lopes and Macedo (2006) show that, under the strong influence of critical theories, political aspects linked to curriculum selection and organization began to get more emphasis, while studies related to curricular management and prescription were shrinking in number. However, the authors identified that 15.2% of them did have a strongly prescriptive nature. At the same time 90% of this production, in the form of recommendations and suggestions, also propose some sort of intervention in curricula, particularly those of teacher training courses. The authors also consider the fact that in Brazil, as in other countries, cultural studies begin to have a great influence on curriculum studies. From such perspective, studies of poststructuralist orientation really predominate. Yet, the authors observe that only a few theses and dissertations address cultural issues. References to poststructuralist authors are scant, with the exception of papers and research produced at the Federal University of Rio Grande do Sul, where the influence of said literature was a major one. Paiva, Lopes and Macedo (2006) also dismiss the unfounded criticism of those who claimed that studies which are carried out at universities would grant little centrality to the reality of schools, once their survey has detected a large number of studies that actually have their focus on public schools (Paiva, Macedo, Lopes, 2006).

In 2014, in the International Handbook of Curriculum Research, edited by William Pinar, which features articles on the curriculum field research developed in 34 countries, Lopes and Macedo presented an article entitled The Curriculum Field in Brazil since the 1990s. In this article, the authors highlighted the increased dispersion of the themes addressed in the curriculum field, as evidenced by the registration of 614 groups of scholars who carry out research work described as being related to the curriculum field (namely research groups registered with the National Council for Scientific and Technological Development - CNPq). The authors also emphasized the loss of prestige of papers with a Marxist orientation, which give way to poststructuralist references, especially after the second half of the 1990s, when the latter trend begins to dominate the curriculum field scene. Therefore in Brazil, according to the authors, under the influence of both Brazilian and foreign authors, there has been a mixture of critical and poststructuralist/postmodern trends in the curriculum field. Even now post-critical and poststructuralist approaches, despite being dominant, continue to be merged by critical theories (Macedo and Lopes, 2014).

Considering the clash between critical theory and poststructuralist studies, the authors decided to examine four themes: knowledge, culture, everyday life and politics. Regarding knowledge, according to the authors, the curriculum field dangles from a relativist position (which considers the different sources of knowledge as equally valid from an epistemological point of view), to a universalist view (which deem as being of the highest value the knowledge that enables emancipation and social changes towards a more democratic society). According to the authors, culture gains prominence in the curriculum field, and its meaning depends on the selected reference (critical or poststructuralist theories), but the centrality of this theme is more related to the growth of poststructuralist perspectives. Regarding the studies on everyday life, which back in the 1980s were oriented by
critical theories, the authors argue that from the 1990s these studies have been expanded by using poststructuralist references, yet without managing to release the utopia of emancipation. Also according to Lopes and Macedo, studies on curricular policies have grown in recent years. This specific area has been addressed by studies simultaneously oriented by both - critical and poststructuralist theories, mainly by the influence of authors such as Stephen Ball (Lopes and Macedo, 2014).

The hybrid character of the curriculum field had been previously highlighted in some chapters of a book organized by Pinar, in which Lopes and Macedo (2003) and Moreira (2003) had written about the curriculum field in Brazil. In this book introduction, Pinar commenting on the chapters highlights the fact that Lopes, Macedo and Moreira in both articles did claim the hybrid character of the field in Brazil (Pinar 2003:10). In those two articles, according to Pinar, the authors state that such hybridity stems from the fact that postmodern studies and poststructuralist studies (which had gained increasing influence in the curriculum field from the 1990s) are merged with different theoretical orientations.

With conclusions close to those of Lopes and Macedo (2014), Kumar (2011:27) states that studies in the curriculum field have gone through three phases, namely the pre-Marxist (first), Marxist (second) and post-Marxist (third) phases. Tyler’s instrumental thinking dominated the first phase. Concepts such as power, ideology, hegemony and reproduction prevailed in the second phase, which was centered on the relationship between school and society. The third phase, which began in the second half of the 1990s, witnessed a prevalence of the postmodern, poststructural and postcolonial discourses that emphasize subjectivity, everyday life, hybridity, culture and difference.

In 2011, Pinar organized a book entitled Curriculum Studies in Brazil: Intellectual Histories, Present Circumstances, eight chapters of which were written by Brazilian scholars of the curriculum field. Pinar himself wrote both its introductory and final chapters. The book chapters cover the intellectual history of this group of scholars, together with the development and current scenario of curriculum studies in Brazil. These studies were part of an international panel organized by Pinar, through which the group exchanged ideas over two years. Pinar (2011:xi) highlights that four topics stand out in curriculum studies in Brazil, namely enunciation, eventfulness, the quotidian, and hybridity.

Henceforward in this essay will be analysed papers presented in 2014 at the Luso-Brazilian Colloquium on Curriculum at Braga, Portugal, from which the following survey has been conducted. The coordinators of this conference proposed 14 main topics for the event, for which there were 786 papers approved by the evaluation committee. Some of the main topics include the following approved papers: Curriculum, Didactics and Teacher Training with 179 papers (22.7%); Curriculum and Educational Policies with 122 papers (15.5%); Curriculum, Knowledge and School Subjects with 87 papers (11.5); Curriculum and Higher Education with 83 papers (10%); Curriculum and Culture with 69 papers (8.5%); Curriculum and Formal, Non-Formal and Informal Education with 62 papers (7.8%); Curriculum and Performance Assessment with 57 papers (7%) and Curriculum and Technology with 41 papers (5%).

Upon referring to the bibliography of papers applied for the Colloquium, one can realize that there is a wide dispersion in relation to the quoted authors, including the ones identified by Moreira and some others. The references list as many different authors as those linked to the historical, dialectical materialism (such as Vasquez, Kosik), to authors linked to post-structuralism (among others, Bauman, Deleuse, Derrida, Foucault and Laclau) and
those authors who belong to the curriculum field itself (such as Ball, Bernstein, Apple, Popkewitz). Regarding Brazilian authors, names such as Saviani, Lopes, Alves, Moreira and Silva, are quoted.

In short, it is observed that the articles on the production in the area of curriculum reveal that this field really was developed according to three phases described above by Kumar. But this development did not occur in a linear succession. Up to nowadays those three influences are present in the field, i.e. studies and research based on: (a) instrumental Tyler’ approach, (b) critical (c) and post-critical theories. Really, studies on curriculum field have mixed those influences in different ways and from different perspectives.

Despite the differences within the field, at present, it can be said, there is a subject for which the positions converge. It is that the vast majority of the researchers on curriculum area are against the proposal for a Common National Curriculum Base (CNCB). The purpose of this proposal is to set content for different years and for different subjects to be taught in all schools throughout Brazil. The CNCB was developed through the ministry of education, supported by some groups of specialists on different areas, non-governmental organizations, and groups and entities linked to the private sector. Several articles by scholars of the curriculum field criticizing the CNBC are being produced, which is made evident from a dossier on this very theme that was published in 2014 by the E-Curriculo (E-Curriculo) journal in its third issue. This fact shows the growth of interest on curricular policies, already evidenced in the Luso-Brazilian Colloquium on Curriculum (2014).

Research on teacher training

It should be noted that teacher training is a field that grows increasingly in Brazil, mainly from the late 1970s. The works produced in this field include themes like the following: initial teacher education; in-service teacher education; teaching knowledge; teaching practice; identity and professionalization of teachers; working conditions (including teacher health); labour and teacher education policies; career, salary and labour movements of teachers.

According to Zeichner (1998), by the end of the 1970s, “the quantitative experimental studies on the effectiveness of different methods to train teachers for specific tasks” did predominate in the field of teacher training (1998:77). The main concern was the modelling of teacher behaviour. Similarly in Brazil, under the influence of behavioural psychology, micro-teaching was included in teacher training courses in an attempt of getting future teachers to acquire, practice and/or develop the technical skills required for the very art of teaching.

In the mid-1990s I wrote a book on teacher education, one of whose chapters had a subtitle entitled “from the teacher education as organic intellectual to studies on teaching knowledge”. My core reasoning was that studies of Marxist orientation prevailed in the 1980s. However, the most orthodox interpretations of the early 1980s Marxism started to give way to more eclectic referentials, resulting from the intersection of dialectical materialism with other theories in the social science field. Also according to the aforementioned paper of mine and within said context, the studies on teacher education take on new perspectives. The “lights on the stage”, so to speak, now highlight the teacher figure, who is now focused under new prisms. One seeks to understand how teachers build their own professional identity. The goal here is to study both their professional life story and their personal history, while analysing how these two experiences intersect. One seeks to know how teachers, both before and during their initial education, as well as through the exercise of teaching, keep building on their own knowledge about their
profession. So, both during initial education and continuing education, one gets to work with life stories as a means of better understanding their own education process itself (Santos, 1995).

In said essay of mine, I had already mentioned the influence of poststructuralist studies on the teacher education field, which deem discourse itself as a constituent element of reality. Thus, some papers seek to show how the discourse in the field of pedagogical theories gets to build the very identity of teachers. Similarly, some studies began bringing to light the issue of power, seeking to identify which interests are being met, and which interests are being excluded from the teacher training field. I believe that these aspects were addressed in a very incipient fashion in the 1990s, yet it is my understanding that they have become more frequent today in some researches particularly focused on teacher training policies and on the question of identity and subjectivity of teachers.

At this point, a certain similarity is present between the curriculum field development and the teacher training field development, regarding the replacement of the Marxist matrix by other approaches. However, it is important to emphasize that despite the fact that poststructuralist works also influence the areas of teacher training, their strength thereon is not so intense as it is on the curriculum field.

I shall now analyse papers on the state of the art in the teacher education field in Brazil. In an article André, Simões, Carvalho and Brzezinski (1999) present a survey on a number of research works in the field of teacher education from 1990 through 1996. According to the authors, 284 dissertations and theses focused on teacher training were defended during that period, out of which 216 researches were on initial teacher education (76%), followed by studies on continuing education. Note that the latter group has far fewer researches than the former theme, with a total of 42 papers (14.8%). Lastly, the authors show that teacher identity and teacher professionalization were the chosen themes in 26 papers (9.2%) (André et al. 1999).

Regarding research methodology, the article states that 72 papers (25%) study a single case, “be it a given course, a discipline, a class, or a teacher.” Besides, 14% of research papers are about analysing testimonials with data collected from questionnaires and interviews, “aiming to know opinions, points of view or representations provided by informants” (André et al. 2002).

The authors also analysed the production of literature on teacher training in Brazil, as published by ten journals between 1990 and 1997. The journals were selected based on the criteria of access to them, their circulation and the reputation of their publishing institutions, in which period 115 articles were found. The results of the analysis of those 115 articles show that the prevalent themes among them were teacher identity and teacher professionalization, with 33 articles (28.7%). Secondly, come the continuing education theme, and then the initial education theme in third place, with 27 articles (23.5%). The authors highlight two aspects concerning these data: (a) the fact that such production is distributed evenly among the four themes, unlike the production shown by graduates in their aforementioned theses and dissertations; (b) there is a prevalence of articles on teacher identity and teacher professionalization in the journals, while the theses and dissertations had initial education as their predominant theme.

The article also presents data from a survey carried out by a WG at ANPED on teacher education during the period from 1992 through 1998, and the authors note that from the total of 70 papers presented, 29 of them (41%) deal with initial education. Secondly come 15 papers (22%) on continuing education, almost half the number of articles on the previous theme. Next come 12 papers (17%) on teacher identity and professionalization (third place) and
finally there are 10 papers (14%) on teaching practice and 4 papers (6%) that are basically a literature review (André et al., 2002).

In conclusion, the authors emphasize: (a) a major interest in the education of teachers of lower grades; (b) a major silence, with rare exceptions, on the issue of difference and cultural diversity, which is an important theme regarding teaching practice; (c) the lack of data that could support educational policies and practices.

André (2009) presented the results of another survey conducted about theses and dissertations carried out by graduate students from 1999 through 2003. The author’s goal was to identify changes in these surveys regarding themes and theoretical/methodological approaches, in order to compare them to the survey conducted earlier and commented above. André noted that there was an increase in the number of theses and dissertations in the field of teacher education, which then reached 16% of the overall production of the graduate programs. Among the 1184 theses and dissertations in the teacher education field produced during the analysed period, the author found that the teacher identity and professionalization theme was the one that got the highest percentage of articles with 41% of surveyed papers, followed by the initial education theme with 22%, then the continuing education theme with 21% and finally the education policies with 4% of papers. According to André (2009), themes such as new technologies in the teacher training process grew within the field, while gender issues have fallen short of the author’s expectation.

The author shows that the researches carried out by graduate students revealed a great dispersion regarding the quoted authors thereon, whereas the survey showed a total of 437 authors in the bibliography of theses and dissertations, yet some of them appeared in but one research. According to André (2009:3):

    (...) the ten most quoted authors were: Vygotsky (43 quotes), Paulo Freire (37 quotes), Nóvoa (35v), Schön (24 quotes), Bakhtin (19 quotes), Tardif (16 quotes), Perrenoud (14 quotes), Foucault (14 quotes), Piaget (13 quotes) and Bardin (13 quotes).

At the XV National Conference on Didactics and Teaching Practice (ENDIPE) held in 2010 in Belo Horizonte (Brazil), André (2010) also presented a paper entitled Research on teacher education: contributions to the delimitation of the field, which brought about important contributions to research in the area, and is based on a survey of dissertations and theses defended in 2007 in graduate programs, using the summaries of the papers themselves. André (2010) showed that researches on teacher training were the target of 6-7% of graduate students’ papers in the area of teaching during the 1990s, having then grown to 22% of dissertations and theses in 2007, amounting to 298 papers in that year. As seen above, in her article published in 1999, the author showed that during the 1990s the researches of graduate students focused on initial education with 76% of papers. In the 2000s, the themes that got the majority of papers were teacher identity and teacher professionalization, which then reached 53% of research theses and dissertations in 2007. Similarly, in a work commissioned by the Teacher Training WG of ANPED, Brzezinski (2007) analysed WG production from 1999 through 2006, having found in the 83 papers presented that the teacher identity and teacher professionalization themes got the majority of papers (28 papers, i.e. 34%).

Regarding theoretical approaches, André (2010) shows that only a few authors make their referentials explicit, which is the case of those who stated that they had guided themselves by the dialectical and historical materialism
and by the historical social psychology. According to the mentioned author, there is also a wide dispersion in relation to the authors quoted in those different papers.

In relation to methodologies, the author points out that there is a great weakness in this area, which is evidenced by the lack of theoretical foundation on the methodological approach applied to research. In the few papers in which work methodologies were identified, the author calls them micro-studies that include a few subjects and “a very limited portion of reality.” As to the data collection techniques, André notes that some progress has been made in this direction, with the growing use of questionnaires, plus the use of “discussion groups, focus groups, written records, autobiographical accounts and videography” (André, 2010: 283).

Brzezinski (2014) coordinated a research entitled *Education of Teaching Professionals* (2003-2010), the data collection of which was performed by a group of researchers from different Brazilian universities. The first chapter of this published research presents the results of a survey conducted about the theses and dissertations defended from 2003 through 2007, while the second chapter presents the results of theses and dissertations defended from 2008 through 2010. The results of both studies released data and observations which are very close to those of André’s works, yet here I shall only present the results of the survey of authors’ names that appear in the referenced bibliography of the analysed papers, so that it is possible to identify the theoretical trends prevailing in the area.

In the first period, namely 2003-2008, the author shows that among the most quoted authors were the most known Brazilian scholars working in this field, such as Marli André, Selma Garrido and Bernadetti Gatti, among others. However, the authors who got the top three places in the presented ranking were Paulo Freire, Demeval Saviani and Miguel Arroyo, who are not actually researchers of the teacher education field. The top three foreign authors quoted were Nóvoa, Perrenoud and Tardif. It is important to note that Foucault was ranked sixth in a total of 23 authors rated as the most quoted ones, ahead of authors such as Marx, Gramsci, Bourdieu and Habermas. In the second period, namely 2008-2010, the survey ranked the eleven most quoted Brazilian authors and the eleven most quoted foreign authors. Among the 11 Brazilians, the top two were Freire and Saviani, followed by three authors of the teacher training field. Among the foreign authors, Marx, Bourdieu and Foucault were ranked the in first three places, yet authors like Perrenoud, Tardif and Alarcão (who are the most related to the field itself) got the last places (Brzezinski, 2014).

Therefore, as evidenced in the two surveys coordinated by Brzezinski and the survey carried out by André, Foucault is the only poststructuralist author who appears in the references of theses and dissertations alongside authors who are closer to the critical theories, which is the case of both Brazilian and foreign authors.

According to André (2010) the number of studies that addressed the conditions of teaching, career and union organization in the 1990s has been reduced. This scenario has once again changed, especially nowadays, as will be seen below. Three major surveys in recent years sought to know the reality of Brazilian teachers, identifying their social-economic status, their education, their personal values and their working conditions. Two of these surveys were carried out with the sponsorship of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). The third survey was funded by the Brazilian Ministry of Education and conducted by a group that studies and researches issues related to the teacher’s work.
The first survey, presented in the book published by UNESCO and coordinated by Andrade (2004), *The Profile of Teachers in Brazil: what they do, what they think, what they desire*, involved a sample of five thousand teachers from both public and private schools from all twenty-seven federated units of Brazil. The survey sought to draw a picture that could feature the Brazilian basic education teachers, identifying their social-economic and professional characteristics, as well as their perceptions and opinions on educational, social and political issues.

Gatti and Barreto (2009) coordinated the second research, which did a great survey of the situation of basic education teachers. The survey results are in the book *Teachers of Brazil: impasses and challenges*, published by UNESCO. This survey includes data on the professional insertion of teachers, like career, salaries and further data. It also analyses in depth topics like the education of Brazilian teachers, the curricula of undergraduate courses on initial teacher education, the profile of undergraduate students seeking such courses, continuing education, initial teacher education courses and distance education courses.

The latest survey was coordinated by Fraga and Oliveira (2010) and its results are presented in the paper entitled *The teaching work in basic education in Brazil - a synopsis of the national survey*. This survey was funded by the Brazilian Ministry of Education, carried out in seven Brazilian States from different regions the country, and led by the “Study Group on Educational Policies and Teaching Work” (GESTRADO). The sample consisted of almost nine thousand teachers. The report presents data on the social-economic and cultural profile of teachers working in the various stages of basic education, including data on career and salaries. Moreover, the survey disclosed data on the working conditions of teachers, the main tasks developed by teachers, the learning resources provided by schools, the access to continuing education, and the impact of changes brought about by the educational policies upon the teachers’ working activities and their health.

**In conclusion**

As seen above, both research fields - curriculum and teacher education - share some common aspects. The first aspect is the growing expansion of the two fields of research in the last decades, which firstly occurred in the field of teacher training and then in the curriculum field. While the former started to expand from the 1980s, the latter grew mainly from the 1990s. Another aspect relates to the dispersion of themes addressed in both fields and pointed out in the surveys presented herein. Moreover, it is important to show how these two fields are intertwined, once a recurring theme in the teacher education field is related to initial teacher education courses and the researches on this topic make always reference to the curricula of such courses. Similarly, many surveys that focus on the curriculum in action, i.e. the curricular practice in the classroom, discuss aspects that are related to the pedagogical practice of teachers, a theme that is also related to the field of teacher education. So, as I said at the beginning of this essay, the fact that several researchers working on the curriculum field also produce papers on teacher training facilitates the interpenetration of ideas between these two fields.

It is equally important to note, as it has been shown, that the studies based on poststructuralist literature currently predominate in the curriculum field, while the teacher training field remains predominantly oriented by the tradition of critical theories. The influence of post structuralism on the latter may be the result of the fact that the curriculum field researchers develop and/or supervise researches in the teacher education field.
Furthermore, prior leadership in the curriculum field by researchers from the Federal University of Rio Grande do Sul has now been replaced by the researchers from the State University of Rio de Janeiro. One can also say that the researches focusing on issues more directly related to initial training courses, continuing education, pedagogical practice of teachers, and issues of identity and gender, get more emphasis at the Federal University of São Paulo, while researches on the teachers' labour conditions gain prominence at the Federal University of Minas Gerais.

Finally, I would say that both fields - curriculum and teacher training - need to expand and improve their production, by conducting researches that involve different institutions from distinct federative States, and by producing studies with broader scopes, so that they can actually contribute to public policies in connection with the actions and measures taken by central administration at the federal, state and local government levels. From my perspective, curriculum and teacher training are key areas for the development of basic education. Thus, studies on these fields should focus on surveys about what happens in schools and classrooms, and this includes the teaching work itself and professional development of teachers and their connections with the policies and curricular practices of different disciplines and areas of study. This would be a great contribution, because only when we understand a certain reality are we able to transform it. Hence the important role of educational research by bringing data and producing theories that allow us to understand the reality of Brazilian education in its different aspects and levels of teaching.

References


The curriculum in edupesquisa: When teachers idealize their own formation

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At 2013 the Federal University of Paraná were invited by the Curitiba’s Municipal Secretary of Education to organize and implement a Pilot Project with experimental character on Teachers Education, entitled “Edupesquisa”, with MEC (Federal Ministry of Education and Culture) means. This movement intended to reformulate and renovate the further education which have been already realized in cooperation between University and SMED.

It was offered a 1200h course to a group of approximately 500 municipality teachers, chose by the fact of taking master’s degree or other kind of post-graduation. The “Edupesquisa” was a semi-present course proposed by local policy which objective to qualify its professional team and which model continues to stand.

In the pilot project six thematic classrooms were set. I was invited to act like former in the “Curriculum” one. In this virtual classroom, with the help of six tutors all master’s students at education or related areas, I could, during four months, debate curriculum questions for create a new program. The contents selected for being discussed were divided in three groups or classes: a) The curriculum like a field to recognition of ours cultural identities; b) The curriculum like a field for questioning new “others” representations; c) The curriculum like a field for cultural critique; d) The curriculum like a field for researches development. The purpose was to question: the teacher judges himself able to organize a curriculum reformulation at his school? For this, they have to glimmer three key-words proposed in the pilot project guide: in vigor curriculum; learn and teach methodologies; projects organization.

At the first class I planned to problematize the relation between curriculum and culture, based on Moreira and Candau. But I had to fall back and talk about what curriculum is based on with Goodson, Silva, Stenhouse. Then, at the second class which proposition was to compare two contradiction curriculum proposals, I brought Young and the UFPR-Litoral experience with Cunha. At the third class, with proposition character, I instigate the teachers to build their wished curriculum: times, contents and organization model, to face the 21st century questions. This activity was conducted by text fragments of Moreira, Pacheco, Leite.

The work in this last class was very remarkable for the teachers. The present classes counted with enthusiastic participations and questioning. In this process was collected enormous data base and very diversified answers about what these teachers understood by curriculum and which curriculum they seek. This diversity, I reflect, comes from the new audience of basics education institutions that demands others attentions to an equity distribution of education’ process. I bring here some data that idealized multiply curriculum, arranged to promote critical and creative professional that is challenged to not fragmented himself with his executed tasks.

Context

The theme of continued formation of basic education teachers has been in the center of discussions in Brazil lately and it has stood out in the primary actions of the Ministry of Education and Culture in the most recent Brazilian governments. This article proposes some reflections regarding a certain notion of curriculum idealized by a representative group of teachers invited to reformulate the continued formation program offered by the Town of
Curitiba\textsuperscript{58}. It aims at making some appointments on a pilot project named \textit{Edupesquisa}\textsuperscript{59}, based on the Federal Government policy entitled “Plan of Education Development” (PDE), which intended to reform the continued formation of teachers, linked to the municipal board of education, in local schools.

The issuing of the Decree 6.755, in January 29 of 2009, known as the “National Policy of Formation of Teaching Professionals for Basic Education”, intended to invest in collaboration among Union, States, the Federal District and Municipalities to answer the necessity for reshaping, initially and continuously, basic education teachers from the public education system. Inasmuch as the \textit{Edupesquisa} is an action of the current municipal administration, this project was meant to comply with the national policy, which is unavoidably linked to a broader context of global economy. Qualifying teachers becomes in that sense an imperative to education management, which means an advance in the social developing process subscribed to economics.

Ever since, governments started to constitute many efforts to promote improvements in Brazilian basic education, namely the reflection about the curriculum needed for teachers’ formation. In spite of that, these actions are occurring without rupturing with the tendency to put teachers and their expertise in service of dispersive energies, once their managers tend to interpret legal demands merely as imperatives or something that has to be done without a discussion to qualify them, which ends up not enabling real change but only reorganizes the same old structures.

In the last decades of the twentieth century, some advances in democracy started to legitimate new rights in Brazil, insofar as the female presence in the labor market became more effective; the children’s right to education was strengthened and the educational institutional basis was forced to grow.

Even though the Brazilian Constitution of 1988 made obligatory to all government entities build nurseries, preschools, basic, middle and high schools, this demand was not fulfilled with desired quality. As the Brazilian middle class, since the eighties, has been assuming the responsibility to pay for their children basic education, the public structure raise attended mostly low-income families. Whereas there were not enough qualified professionals to occupy these basic teachers’ roles, a lot of people entered in this career by market choice, once a college degree was not demanded in several cases.

This historically disinvested school ends up causing a big onus to the State. Professionals with low level of performance do not offer conditions to develop an efficient educative project. There are still high numbers of evasion and failing, and equal alarming low indices of improvement obtained from external evaluations, which contributes to keep common sense discredit in public basic education. The children and the teenagers who are not in school because they couldn’t remain there are unguarded – and on the streets left by negligence tend to become inoperative to the production process.

\textsuperscript{58}From municipality’s website: “The estimated population of Curitiba in 2007 is 1.8 million inhabitants, occupying the 7th position in the ranking of Brazilian capitals. In Paraná State, it stands out as the largest municipality in number of inhabitants, accounting for 17.5\% of the total population. The average rate of population growth in Curitiba, which reached 5.3\% per year in the 1970’s decade, is currently at 1.7\%. One main reason for the reducing population growth rate is the drop in birth rate. Regarding age composition, the range of 15 to 29 years old account for 29\% of the population. Women account for 52.05\%, and Men for 47.95\% of the total population”. Further information at: http://www.curitiba.pr.gov.br/idioma/ingles.

\textsuperscript{59}For further information, check the project’s website: http://www.educacao.curitiba.pr.gov.br/conteudo/o-projeto-edupesquisa/3893 (available only in portuguese).
One achievement of Brazilian democracy was the perception by a big part of the population that children and youths out of protection from the education structures certainly will need other institutions to lodge them and those will accomplish that in worse conditions, costing more and earning less to the State and the country’s future. Therefore, taking care of low class offspring by professionalizing it and allowing its inclusion in the production process, which nowadays organizes itself socially around the economy, become an imperative. In that sense, the basic education emerges as an emancipatory policy focus of a left-wing government elected and re-elected in the country in the first decade of this new century.

This expanded Brazilian public school, however, faces fragilities around the educative process in its interior, such as the unprepared teacher occupying many institutional spots who despises his own professional value, as they are not well prepared to act in school. The potentiality of his professional being and the attention to the constitutive elements of his profession are what would allow him to replenishes and go forward, turning his role evident in a society which public education is a conquered right. Although, teachers cannot fully accomplish that as they collide with their limited autonomy (BOLIVAR, 2007).

The lack of empowerment of teachers regarding their own profession emerges from a group of factors that affects actions trying to review their condition in the actual socioeconomic scenario. Though, it is necessary to consider recent actions of a national policy to expand instruction in all levels of education and the disposition of some resources to teachers’ formation. This expansion makes technical and scientific conditions advance in order to comply with an emancipator commitment, although this progress has happened in a fragmentary and shy way.

**Pilot Project: thesis and antithesis of a curriculum**

The growth of courses of basic and continued formation, which aim at qualifying teachers, followed tendencies of this expansion context. However, those policies and governmental actions arranged only in offices do not revise origins of problems they have to solve.

Trying to rupture with this model, the initial proposal of Pilot Project Edupesquisa tried to organize propositions for a diversified teachers’ formation curriculum. It set one mixed course divided in 100 hours of e-learning course and 20 hours in classroom, for which a temporary curriculum was structured – curriculum that in thesis should provoke its antithesis.

A significant number of teachers from Municipalities’ schools was invited to participate of this experience. It was intended to discuss with 500 of these professionals, distributed in educational units, and other coordinating departments, in collaboration with professors of Federal University of Paraná, a reform in the continued formation of municipal teachers. It intended, based on logics of professional and academic development, to abandon the previous model of continued formation, called “University and School”, without clarifying what disadvantaged the former model.

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60 This lack of empowerment refers to the State’s action which imposes models for teaching acting. Otherwise, it's not possible to disregard teachers’ union acting. They keep mobilizing the class of teachers to acquire and maintain rights of professional qualification.
As foresaid by Michel Serres and Bruno Latour (1996, p. 56) dialectic is the logic of masters; that is to say dialectic is a mode of discussion that settles a starting place for discussion. It makes, most of times, that what is proposed or presupposed, just return to the starting place with superficial advance. In case of Pilot Project Edupesquisa, the starting place to discuss a curriculum built from hearing teachers’ needs was the organization of six semi-present classrooms developed by three dynamic phases in which the same formation would be debated from different perspectives or aspects. Classroom number one had as theme “Continued Formation”; classroom number two “Curriculum and Ways to Organize Projects”; classroom number three “The Researcher Teacher”; classroom number four “Participative Management in Projects Composition”; classroom number five “Digital Medias” and, at last, classroom number six “Virtual Environment Learning/E-learning”.

Analyzing these classroom themes it is clearly verified guidance to an instrumental curriculum of continued formation, a utilitarian curriculum that targets to prepare research teachers. This teacher must learn to use the virtual environment to make easy to access and propagate possible projects he would make reform the school with low costs. There was no discussion about classroom themes. It was just used to conduct to a presupposed reform in this group of classrooms, as there was a curriculum already conceived, previously.

These classrooms could lead to a discussion of the use of techniques as a political element, the use of virtual environment and its growth in educational spaces etc; demanding the commitment of new postures to reflect about teachers’ formation. Nevertheless, it has just been conducted a reorganization of the presuppositions by which the University analyzes the school from half distance. Conforming to more or less efficiency, this analysis about reality affirmed an image associated to the teachers’ context that only belongs to it as object, but not as subject.

The initial idea of this project was to listen to teachers of the basic education system in order to create a way to list the challenges presented to the working conditions of this group of professionals. As said by Stenhouse (2010), it is not possible to develop a curriculum without developing the teacher. Each classroom of this Pilot Project was coordinated and directed by a professor of UFPR, named forming professor, who should organize contents and activities to contribute to a new proposal discussion. Each classroom also counted with collaboration of six tutors\(^\text{61}\) to help the discussion and the understanding of texts and other proposed materials, studying activities, writing, videos, sent with the objective of provoking debate and the construction of a new model of curriculum. In the virtual environment, each tutor was mediator of formation of thirteen colleagues also teachers of basic education system.

**The classroom of “Curriculum, methods and projects organization”**

There were 100 hours divided in three phases. In phase 1, after inaugural class, there was a first face meeting of 4 hours to present the proposal and material of the next 16 hours online, which should be used as foundation to debate the curriculum of new or future “Edupesquisa”.

In phase 2, there were predicted two more face meetings of 4 hours and others 64 hours of online studying. It was utilized to organize feedback of discussed contents that should have led to an action at the end of each classroom

course. In the third and last phase, composed by 16 online hours, the proposal was to organize data from previous activities that would form a report to produce a scientific paper or a Digital Media.

Despite the frustrations with the approach taken by this reform of municipal schools teachers’ formation, participating in this project made possible to understand how a curriculum is comprehended in school reality. It allowed detecting countless empty places in these teachers comprehension of their own professional activity when they try to translate it as analysis object. Working the conception and comprehension of curriculum forced the specialists’ analysis to have minimum work conditions. With this base or thesis it was possible to propose an antithesis, another necessary curriculum that could handle basic schools teachers’ issues.

In the first face meeting class, teachers received the work proposition with great enthusiasm. It consisted in debating, based on the text “Questions about curriculum: Curriculum, knowledge and culture” from Moreira and Candau (2007), today’s issues mainstreaming school’s curriculum. This text deals with main concerns of extended and democratized school. Authors affirm that the curriculum carries a potential to make people capable of understanding their role in changing their immediate context and society in general. They also say that the curriculum as education project can help to acquire knowledge and necessary skills to make effective actions that contribute to school reality demands. They consider the curriculum a dispositive in which concentrates relations between society and school, between wisdom and practices socially built and school knowledge (CANDAU; MOREIRA, 2007, p. 22).

Reading this text seemed to be the best starting point to differentiate school questions in the actual context from relations between the teacher and his professional field. It approaches the difference or relation between knowledge coming from school practice, which is also a social practice, from the others called the ambit of curricular reference. This was used as base to deal with reference and exchange relation between school curriculum and what is beyond school: a) institutions producers of scientific knowledge (university and research centers); b) world of work; c) technological developing; d) sportive, cultural and physical activities; e) artistic production; f) health field; g) diversified ways to exercise citizenship; h) social movements.

This differentiation between socially constructed knowledge and school knowledge could deepen the role of practices in the school context, once it is from practice emergence that new school knowledge occurs and it is possible to recognize the intrinsic relation between curriculum and culture.

The teachers should read this text to mark the curriculum conception expressed by authors and summarize its mainstreaming questions in a didactical way. However, participants of curriculum classroom considered the text complex and hard to interpret. Before sending the text and doing activities to analyze it, there were approximately three meetings with tutors preparing them to debate. These meetings were fundamental to overcome difficulties. This group performance showed a collective work between forming professors, tutors and teachers attending the course.


63 To sumarize, Moreira and Candau (2007) suggest to make a curricular reformulation identify: a) Curriculum as place of recognition of ours cultural identities; b) Curriculum as place for questioning our representations about the “others”; c) Curriculum as a cultural critique place; d) Curriculum as place to develop researches.
Tutors responsible participation made classroom discussion to evolve and all group felt as if learning with that experience. The group appealed to basic knowledge already proposed about what was a curriculum, passing this comprehension to all and enticing that general and fragmented conceptions were gathered and common sense understandings started to dissipate on this first phase. The curriculum had to be unfolded of its constitution to make teachers able to problematize it on practice. As said by Silva (1999) narratives contained in curriculum, explicitly or implicitly, embody particularly notions about knowledge, about society organization ways and diverse social groups.

To unfold the curriculum

Discussing the curriculum is to unfold it in its nuances, themes and subthemes. It is to clarify the politics manifested in it when making considerations about which knowledge is legitimate and which one is not, which ways to know are valid or not, what is right and what is wrong, what is moral and what is immoral, what is good and what is evil, what is beautiful and what is ugly (Silva, 1988, p. 185). The base of what is a curriculum is not clear for teachers performing in school, so the need to unfold the bundle first. In that way, it turns possible to problematize which visible and invisible forces act and are reproduced in this structure, pointing to references that sustain it.

Before leaving phase 1, which dealt with the conception about curriculum, and move to phase 2, in which was intended to discuss the kinds of curricular structure; an overview from the curriculum genesis until the present was made through unfolding. Hence, by unfolding the current curriculum conception, it was possible to link its origins to the ideals of Renaissance and the Protestant Reform; that its use adhered to the concepts of knowledge and control, and later, this disciplinary dimension added, at one side, what must happen in classroom, and at the other side, what should diverse in the teaching contents, once that the same grid have to touch different children from different ages and worlds.

Between folds and unfolds of this leafing through, it was presented others terms of curriculum, as Trivium and Quadrivium, the ones linked to the called “liberal arts” from the 12th and 13th centuries, also others versions as ordo and discipline in the Oxford English Dictionary of Glasgow (1633) as pointed by Hamilton (quoted by Goodson, 1995). It was shown that the idea of ordo (order) meets with the notion of ratio (reason), which refers in its logical notion to “knowledge ordination” or to an idea of arranging things in its correct succession (Terigi, 1996, p. 167).

Through deconstructing linearity between past and present, it was observed that the new notion of scientific curriculum influenced by industrial and scientific Revolution of the 17th and 18th centuries emerged in Modernity. The guidance of this notion was efficiency and standardization serving to supply cultural, personal and social deficiencies of individuals. Closer to today’s reality, this notion of curriculum expresses the relation between the school and the factory as its objectives are oriented according to society’s necessities for labor, practices and professionals (Doll, 1997). The school, composing this bundle as hierarchical and closed system, many times organizes a curriculum that installs contents as blocks of subjects, which should be transferred and transmitted from teacher to student.

Finally, in this phase 1, arrived in Contemporaneity, the curriculum suffers the influence of “sociology of education” development. Moreover, in this moving unfolding, the curriculum shows, above all, as a practice developed from multiples processes in which diverse subsystems or practices are intercrossed (Sacrístán, 1998). Amid these
systems and practices, in the Brazilian scenario, it is visible that something escapes from teacher’s autonomy and his pedagogical activity developed and anchored in this curricular bundle, which should give instruments to his practice as first order element in the education process completion. Instead, what is observed in this reality is an expropriation and exploitation of his own practice, an external devaluation related to, among others, economic conjuncture. This imposes to school itself the disfavor of being a long-term investment with uncertain profits to the process of production.

This commonly disfavored professional class has often its authority dismissed and the legitimacy of its actions overlooked. When public policies come to assist their situation, they receive them as countermands of a socioeconomic order that keeps their fragility like a way of shelter. The lack of value of teacher in society and the imposing way that reformist propositions come from State does not arise teacher’s will of move forward in his own profession. Therefore, he does not have the urge of qualifying himself to validate his fundamental role in society.

Disbelievers’ advances

During all the way of this Pilot Project, teachers questioned the purpose of discussing their curricular formation. This happened because they do not perceive themselves as capable agents of changing the complex bundle of curriculum. Even clarifying its folds, showing that the curriculum handles practices, means, methods, ways, and so all instruments the education professionals use in education institutions. Telling that these instruments are the way to suggest and to develop young’s intellectual knowledge, their students. Even so, it seemed that teachers do not feel satisfied with these reasons and they have kept questioning.

On the other hand, the search for the meaning of this discussion and even the disbelief in something to favor them at the end of the project did not get teachers less involved. They have participated intensely of discussions in curriculum classroom and the tutor’s work was exhaustive. Whenever practices, derived from duty or from right, are themed, it should not be forgotten that the curriculum constitutes a territory of conflicts and contests, a space of fight to transform relations of power (MOREIRA; SILVA, 1994).

It was getting clear that the curriculum, whether in its practical or abstract folds, is never neutral, but a result of relations between State and Society. It is not an abstract reality detached from the socioeconomic system and without a cultural background. On the contrary; the curriculum is a bundle, an architecture that dialogues with the strengths crossing it constantly as a context.

In phase 2 of the course, the different kinds of curricula were analyzed based on Zabala’s analysis (2012, p. 33), which has in its core the relations between subjects. It was shown that the multidisciplinary curriculum, when content organization focus more in the traditional way, brings school contents as independent subjects from each other. Moreover, being the knowledge distributed in simultaneous disciplines, relations between them are not explicitly manifested.

The “pluridisciplinar” curriculum is the one where there are complementary relations between disciplines or subjects; and the interdisciplinary curriculum is when the interaction between two or more subjects implies in transferring laws from one subject to another, giving origin, in some cases, to a new body of disciplines as, for example, the biochemistry or psycholinguistics. At last, the “transdisciplinarity” curriculum is considered the one by which the maximum level of relations between subjects is achieved, in a way that reaches a global integration.
inside a totalizing system. This system makes easy to build an interpretative unity that objectives to constitute a science able to explain the reality without fragmentations (ZABALA, 2012).

Data discussion

According to Moreira and Leite (2012) there is a logic that lays deep roots in school: what works differently tends to be disqualified. They alert we all have been formed by this logic. Though, more recently, many teachers have started to question themselves about presented situations in their practices in classroom. When this teacher starts to self question about the normality and abnormality of things, about the disciplined and the undisciplined, he starts to reflect about the social, political and cultural context of education - he starts to professionalize himself.

When this teacher begins to observe something he could not see before and reflects about his surroundings, he is becoming a researcher (LEITE; FERNANDES, 2010). He opens the bundle and sees it differently, searching for other logics and other languages to interpret his own context. He assumes the possibility of the new, giving himself the chance to act towards the creation of a fairer and more democratic school.

In this phase 2, it was also worked on the text “The future of education in society of knowledge” of Michael F.D. Young, published in Brazil in 2011. In this article, the author brings an important discussion about the subjects’ role in the curriculum. Based on this text a discussion was proposed: which curriculum should guide teachers’ professional practices, who intend to update themselves having by fundamental means the research? As counterproposal to this text, a proposal of a curriculum organized in projects in effect at Sector of Litoral 64, a distinctive experience in Federal University of Paraná (UFPR), bringing attention to research importance in teachers’ formation, was discussed.

Different questions came from analyzing these texts. The group debated possibilities of using a curriculum centered in subjects and going thoroughly into specificities of their field of expertise, as well a diversified curriculum that uses the research as tool to mediate contents and mainstream themes of schools. A curriculum that exercises research as professional refinement and turn practice into a way of action at socio-cultural needs present in school is able to reform this school? Would not this curriculum of teachers’ formation put external responsibilities and superpowers in teachers’ profession?

The interpretation of the current policy seems to impose to teacher the rise of action in detriment of reflection. There is a political conception related to action research (in Portuguese “pesquisa-ação”) that takes to this understanding, but there is no need to discuss it in this paper. The point is the necessity of including teacher’s profession in the school ambit and in relations between school and society, strengthening his professional ethos.

Demo has aforementioned that what is learned wears away, because everything that once was new gets old (2012, p. 48). This statement seemed important to make a reflection about what should be learned in teacher’s formation. One can’t learn to be a teacher in a continued formation, as he is already a teacher. Learning, according to this author, in teacher’s formation, demands reconstructive effort. It means that the human being has to challenge

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historical and cultural structured manners of his own learning (DEMO, 2012). The learning process has its own
dynamics; therefore, to learn in teacher’s formation doesn’t mean just making revisions but to be open to a
deconstruction process. One that revises, renew and re-signify old knowledge.

Pedro Demo (2012) is a much used author to talk about research in teacher’s formation and research in school and
classroom contexts. His reflection was of good assistance to wake teachers up to reconstructive learning, typical of
research, besides other themes.

At the end of this experience, in phase 3, two colleagues\textsuperscript{66} started to participate in the classroom’s work to
contribute in data collection. There was an attempt to summarize data from proposed activities which referred to i)
wished hourly workload; ii) conception of curriculum; iii) contents and activities distribution; iv) type of final work; v)
which content should be in this project. Seventy six people answered the questionnaire.

Thus, the follow data was collected:

i. About “hourly workload” the following options were offered: 100h, 200h or 300h. 35 teachers opted for
200h; 23 opted for 300h and 8 opted for 100h and, aside from the fact of not being available, 8 teachers
suggested a bigger workload of 360h and 2 suggested a smaller one, of 50h. It is a meaningful result to
demarcate total hourly workload for teachers’ formation courses.

ii. About the type of curriculum or the drawing of the bundle, which also suggests a curricular conception,
there was a list of choice possibilities: Curriculum by themes; Curriculum by axis; Curriculum by modules;
Curriculum by projects. As result, 28 teachers chose the Curriculum by Modules, 21 chose the one by Axis,
17 by Themes and 10 chose by Projects. There were no further suggestions.

iii. About activities and content distribution the proposal was to differentiate hours to deepening contents from
hours to develop the project and other practice activities – two open questions should be answered with
independent numbers and in coherence to total workload expectance. Only two answers indicated less
than 50 hours as ideal for content deepening as for project developing and practice activities. No answer
indicated the need of workload superior to 300h for each option. Teachers’ choices seems to indicate that
to deepen contents, more time dedication is needed than practice activities, giving priority to it in the range
of time from 100 to 199 hours and even from 200 to 299 hours. On the other hand, in the time raging from
50 to 99 hours there is precedence to project development and practical activities, reinforcing that workload
distribution could be organized to emphasize deepening of contents.

iv. About the type of conclusion work, there were the following suggestions: research project; article;
monograph; teaching or didactical material. The research project was elected (42%), and the second
highest choice was article elaboration (35%). These two options if added totalize 77% of answers,
revealing participants preferences for research and analysis diffusion. The rest of people opted to
elaborate a monograph (12%) or a teaching material (4%). Five people, or 4%, declared to prefer that all
choices be available as conclusion work.

\textsuperscript{66} Contributed in data collection professor Lennita Ruggi and tutor of research Rita de Cássia Waldrigues. Maria Tereza C.
Soares just accompanied work in classroom.
v. About contents that favor practices to this new project of teacher’s formation course, the answers were analyzed in qualitative way, identifying common themes, assembling suggestions in topics with close or common characteristics. These topics grouped four big lines of contents. All suggestions as contents showed up in network in these big boards. Teachers could visualize their proposals and re-choice in the four boards of themes and contents what should be maintained. In this kind of recap the following contents/themes were chosen to compose the future curriculum of Edupesquisa: i) Sustainability of knowledge (school and community); ii) Formation to research practice and teacher’s practice; iii) Digital inclusion and other current mainstream themes; e iv) (Re)democratization of time and spaces of schools.

Conclusion

In Brazil, democracy advancements made possible the enlargement of school’s social base and the access of social excluded and culturally diversified. Heterogeneity and complexity resulted from this process put new challenges to teachers, demanding different pedagogical practices and more autonomy and capacity of using it. Today there is a new order in school, more centered in learning organization than in content transmission.

As affirmed by Oliveira and Pacheco (2013), in these days the issues society creates happen to be complex and challenge others dimensions broader than education and curriculum. The current curriculum, in its complex folding, needs to be fold and unfold many times to move forward actions that qualify its dimensions. It is the professionals' competence to entitle themselves to recognize and act in face of new social agreements that imply the difference and social/school inclusion.

Nevertheless, as said by Young (2011) and Goodson (1995) it is needed to recognize that the curriculum is not something fixed but is always in flux and transformation. The process of construction and development of the curriculum or the knowledge transmitted in the curriculum, based on analyzes influenced by Michel Foucault, should no longer be understood as a logical depuration process, which means that the knowledge developed and updated in institutionalized education will be understood as the result of social condensation – the curriculum ends up expressing exactly, between others, the way as some questions are defined as social issues (SILVA, 1996, p. 79). Giving autonomy to teachers is searching, under the rule of these influences, entice them to look for new ways and methods to develop their action in the curriculum. Thereby, understanding them not as passive but active actors of institutional learning processes.

The globalized world imposes new educational and formative conceptions and practices tending to favor citizens transformation and emancipation. The globalization itself talks about a time in which knowledge develops under technologies stigma. So, sheltering and emancipating the teacher reflects into sheltering and emancipating the children and young people who start to become a part of this new process of school democratization. It means to propitiate them with the opportunity to overcome the role of passive receptor of information. It implies in giving them all the opportunity of work knowledge in a dynamic and not passive way.

It requires investing in capable, autonomous, competent professionals that feel as actors of their content work and curricular practices. Thinking an emancipatory education through curriculum means to desire to break through the stagnation underling the simple repetition and reciting of contents. It is needed to promote the professional teacher as a critic and inventive creator/producer.
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Teacher authority in the modern era: Questioned pedagogical act

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The lack of teacher’s valorization policies is a recurrent hallways discussion among teachers at Brazilian schools, and it reflects student’s indiscipline, questioning educator authority. Historically, the subject of lack of educator authority is a movement originated by different problems, and its root is the decadence of institutions. The research “Teacher authority in the modern era: questioned pedagogical act” was developed as part of doctorate project in a public university in Salvador-BA, Brazil, and it aims to analyze the teacher’s authority in the modern era and it’s implications in the pedagogical act. Qualitative approach research was used as method model, assisting in understanding and interpreting the acts of the studied subjects. Case study was used to analyze the phenomenon in its depth, given the complexity of each volunteer. The research was conducted in a big public estate school localized in downtown Salvador-BA, Brazil. The data was collect using observation, semi-structured interview and conversation with six last year of elementary teachers. For the data analysis and interpretation, descriptive and interpretative categories of the three instruments will be analyzed through the French speech analysis method, considering the explicit and implicit in the speech.

We are presenting a part of this research, trying to question and discuss the ambivalence of the docent statute, that in determinated and different context, are developed as acts of (des)authorization, and for that we started with the comprehension of the authority concept based in Kojeve(2006) and Arendt(2010). Authority presumes recognition, in other words, the one that has authority needs another to legitimate it, which is why it’s important to remember the fact that authority isn’t given through individual, but always is social. (KOJEVE, 2006). Arendt (20101,2011) emphasizes that maybe given negative way that authority is built, because it doesn’t use coercion or force, the author theorizes that violent or tiranic acts differ from authority only because of the freewill. In the educational scope, the discussion of teacher’s authority brings the need to think the place and position occupied by the teacher in the educational and social scenario, because the most prominent discussion is that this place has been poorly occupied, revealing that something was lost along the way. (CEREZER, OUTEIRAL, 2011) In this scenario, it’s necessary to think about what is behind empty authority place that is found in different institutions. Our goal is that our investigation brings reflexion to why some teachers, despite the lack of educational and social context, authorize themselves in pedagogical acts, transforming the learning and teaching in transforming experiences, while other, resempting a desauthorizing process, make their classes empty moments. What is implied in their curricular and formation grade of the former that make it possible their differentiated practice?

Keywords: educator authority, modern era, pedagogical act.
Introduction

This article has as its main goal to analyze the teacher's authority in the modern era and its implications in the pedagogical act. It's a part of an ongoing doctorate research, qualitative approach research was used as method model, assisting understanding and interpreting the acts of the studied subjects. Case study was used to analyze the phenomenon in its depth, given the complexity of each volunteer. The research was conducted in a big public estate school localized in downtown Salvador-BA, Brazil. The volunteers were three men and three women. The data was collected using observation, semi-structured interview and conversation. For the data analysis and interpretation, descriptive and interpretative categories of three instruments will be analyzed through the French speech analysis method, considering the explicit and implicit in the speech, based from different theoretical contributions, which falls in the intersection of a set of social sciences knowledge that has its assumptions based on historical materialism, language and psychoanalysis.

The object probes the look at the development on the teacher profession in the postmodern context, looking for unveiling the idiosyncrasies that conduct the pedagogical act when it comes to the teacher authority in the modern era. For that, the research was systematized in two sessions. The first session, entitled Thoughts about the concept of authority and modernity, has as purpose discussing the authority concept relating with the modern vision of the world. It has as source Kojeve (2006), Arendt (2010, 2011), Bauman (2011) and others. The concept of authority explored here, refers that the one who has authority will need the other to legitimate it, that's why it's necessary to pay attention for the fact that the authority is not individual, but is always social (Kojeve, 2006). Thereby, violent and tyrannical acts differ from authority, affirms Arendt (2011), only through freedom of choice is possible talking about authority. But, what Arendt announces is that authority is in crisis in the modern era, this crisis happens in political and pre-political areas, such as family, church and school. In turn, the world's modernization project in the West, intensified by the development of the consumption capitalism and marked by transformations of mass communication and transport technologies, takes proportions never seen in the last fifty years, operating new time and space dimensions, and changing the social connections.

The second session entitled Teacher authority and the pedagogical act in the modern era, proposes thinking the fracture of teaching in the pedagogical act, from the reflection about two fields that mix: the educational and the social. In this way, highlights the historical compositions that encourage the teacher (des)authorization. The debate in a matter has as its core the why of some teachers authorize themselves in invested pedagogical acts turning the learning and teaching in changing experiences, while others resentful teachers by a (des)authorization process are frequently interrogated in the class act, making these moments empty of meaning. What is implied in their curricular and formation grade of the former that make it possible their differentiated practice?

Thoughts about the concept of authority and modernity

To think about the concept of authority through the modern logic background requires first to observe multiples historical meaning that this word had. Authority can be defined by a person, i.e. the individual that have power or control, or can be understood by a place occupied by someone that enforces it, implying competency, influence and acknowledgement. (“Academia Portuguesa de Letras, 2001:431) Kojeve (2006) says that “authority’s act is
always thoughtful and free”. (p.35) He also says that authority needs an action, i.e. there is only authority in those
who embrace it, therefore it is "[…] it’s active, not passive." (p.36) Arendt (2011) wrote a chapter about the question
“What is authority?” (p.127), initially suggesting that "[…] should’ve been a safer title: What was – not what is-
authority?” (p.127) The author discusses the authority phenomenon, highlighting that during authority’s crises during
modern ages is due to its political nature, extending to the school. When correlating the education’s problem to the
authority crises, Arendt (2011) says that the latter is related to the tradition’s crisis, and both authority and tradition
are implied in education’s nature.

Authority’s crisis in the education system is strictly connected to the tradition’s crisis… It’s very difficult to
the educator to deal with this modern society crisis, because their job is to serve as a mediator between
the old and new, and their profession requires an extraordinary respect to the past. (Arendt 2011:243-
244)

Arendt emphasize that teaching relies in the past, and it’s the teacher job to translate this cultural and social
universe to reality. The political question that emerges is to identify "who governs who? Power, strength, authority,
violece –they are nothing more than words that indicate the way a man govern the other." (Arendt, 2010:27) she
also says that authority is not done through coercion or force. The author also says that violent or tyrannical acts
differ from authority. Violence undermines the other, where there is no choice, because it uses physical force or
other to the subordinate people to the one’s desire.

School and family are pre-political areas. They are considered stable traditional models, but absorbed
transformations from historical and social events through uncertain times. In the center of the new configuration of
modern era are the liquidity (Bauman, 2011), the shallowness, the joy, the spectacular, the narcissism, among
other. This movement expands to society, and is also seen in the school, changing the relationship between
teachers, students and knowledge, the curriculum and the pedagogical practices. However, those transformations,
that modify the structure time/space and start to produce new net of relationship, bring some theories that may
mean the modernity end. Bauman (2001) believe that this theory is premature, because the contemporaneous
society maintains the obsession for a modernization that has not ended. In his view, the modernity is changing from
a solid to a liquid phase, represented and named by different ways like: pos-modern condition, pos-modernity and
contemporaneity.

Among this group of transformations, Dufour (2005) theorizes about the world desymbolization (2005), saying that
“today, men are asked to get rid of all symbolic weight that used to guarantee their exchanges. The symbolic value
is dismembered, to the advantage of the neutral and simple monetary value of the product”. (p. 13) The author
theorizes about living in this globalizing neoliberal universe, where product exchange rise to a major need,
detached from their symbolic values. When discussing the concept of desymbolization of the world, Dufour (2005)
emphasizes that this situation imposed by the capitalism is rooted to ideas "[…] of fluidity, transparency, circulation
and renovation that can not harmonize with historic weight of those cultural values". (p.200) In other words, the
ethical, moral and cultural values do not belong to this new model, because they do not have a market value. The
author says that this new capitalism state make a new type of person, who is not a critic subject anymore (Kant),
neither is the psychotic subject (Freud), but is a noncritical subject.

Pereira (2011) says that “the view of authority is, this way, deconstructed to the point to undermine the bad, to feed
the violence, given this demoralizing state and absence of ideals.” (p.59) O author also discuss about these new
configurations constructed in the backstage of an era marked by the immediate, the urgency, the appearance and consequently by the speech of complete happiness that can be found in colorful aisles inside different size containers, depending on how much one can afford to pay for. Here is where we find the center of the complexity of our problem, because the process of desymbolization of the world highly affects the authority of the teacher, of the school and of the other institutions. In fact, a new modus operandi is born within the society, generated by the capitalist logic, making it a challenge to identify how to operate the thinking of contemporaneous authority the continuously scape in a transversal form in these two setting: social and pedagogical.

**School and social fields: teacher’s authority questioned**

The paths taken so far illustrate that the phenomenon of teacher’s authority is intricated to the social and school fields, and it is its complexity. This issue incurred in the school’s intramurals is interrelated, correlate of the authority fracture in modern, as Arendt (2011) contextualizes, We are historically constituted through a social project in which capital is raised to the maximum level of exploitation. At the heart of this process, as it was already said in this article, we see a shift of authority from the experience of modernity, shrouded in contradictions and ambiguities, it watches the utopian dream of order, control and the absolute certainties being dissolved. (Bermam, 2007)

Diagram 1 shows the school field inserted in the social field, suffering direct interference from economic, political, cultural and social in a diachronic and synchronic way. However, the specifics of school field distinguishes it from other fields, because it is governed by communicational logic, that is given in a process where different people play different roles. Ferreira (2007) says that “schools are complex spaces of social interaction for excellence. They are spaces of relation and communication. Schools are made of people who play different roles…” (p. 221) In this sense, the author affirms that the relational and communicational features of this space, whose protagonists should share languages, affections and experiences in their daily life. In the speech of the participant teachers of this research, we heard from them a defense dialogue in the relationship with the students avoiding the authoritarianism. But, in their classes, we saw that this perception sometimes appeared confused or even contradictory. In this article, we took as reference to interrogate the teacher’s authority in the modern era, two participant teachers of this research.  

The authority crisis is in the middle of social changes that the mass society has suffered, this crisis reflects a lot of questions that mix and agree to the lack of authority. When we highlight the (des)authorization question, they showed difficulties in the pedagogical act, pointing that this phenomenon increasingly present in the school field. Beyond the questions that contribute to the aggravation of this situation, we find the conceptual mess between

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66 The first teacher, a man, Teacher A (TA), teaches English in the high school, he is around his 45 years old, works for 22 years, always organized his classroom in a circle, and had a democratic speech as in the interview. The second teacher, a woman, Teacher C(TC), teaches history, is 36 years old, and her speech was very open-minded and committed to the social causes.
teachers talk in their speech the commitment with democracy and their student's autonomy, but, when questioned about teacher's authority, the teacher A affirms: “I think that the teacher is the adult in the relationship. The teacher is the authority in the classroom. Authoritarianism is when you say shut up because I own here, in my class I practice the dialogue with the students”. (TA) We see that the teacher A understands the dialogue as a basic element to the teacher's authority, and at the same time that marks the difference between authority and authoritarianism. In the notes taken at this teacher's classroom, we watched the constant investment in the ethical and relational posture, but in some groups of this teacher he couldn't keep a place and position of authority in the classroom, the noise of side conversations and jokes, as the use of cellphone and the insistent exits and entrances in the classroom needed an intervention of the teacher: “Have you heard the expression, ‘following like sheep?’ I'm not liking your behavior. I bring you an important deal. The jokes went too far. Let's get mature, ok? So, let's go.” (TA) The students answered shaking their heads, others just laughed, but after some minutes they came back to the previous behavior. What called us the attention, first was the teacher's posture, whose words sounded like a cry, and next he continued with the oral correction of the exercise. It seemed that in fact there wasn't no time to hear about the lack of interest and attention about what was being proposed. Of course, the malaise of the teacher was clear, in a futile attempt to sustain an authority that eluded him. Some questions emerged from these scenes. Why does in some groups he could strengthen ties and build a democratic space of listening and speaking, sensuring his place in the pedagogical act? And why does in the hardest groups, where the dialogue and the listening were so indispensable, he couldn't keep a place of authority? What about the relationship teacher-student; student-knowledge, seeing that in a determinated group the teacher sepaks the planned content, and in other groups he can't even communicate? Those questions makes us to think that the teacher’s authority isn't something so simple. In the speech of teacher A, the (des)authorization is linked to the social field. “The classroom is a continuity of what's out there. The (des)authorization goes through the lack of a harder dialogue, or preestablished rules in a didactic contract”. (TA) The teacher A speaks about a didactic contract, but this is only possible in a reciprocity perspective way. (Francisco, 1999; Aquino, 2014). In the classroom, with the hardest groups, he couldn't make this contract happen, because it can't be build in just one way, it has to be a two-way agreement. This contractual relation requires implication, availability, commitment, leadership, responsibility, competence, knowledge from the ones involved and it has to be build, and legitimated by those involved. But what happens when the basis of this contract aren’t agreeing? Of course that this contract loses its validity. Talking about the didactic contract, it must be implicit in the teacher’s part, the worry about the content, methodology, the construction of a relational ethical environment, responsibilities and commitment, and when that doesn’t happen, the teacher breaks fundamental aspects that put in a doubt the teacher’s authority. (Francisco, 1999)

In other way around, the construction of the contract based in a reciprocity relation, remember us of a pair relation, like brothers in the same position. Pereira (2008) and Aquino (2014) summon to think that equal position put to teachers in the core of that relationship. Pereira points that the pedagogical discourse, in a modern inspiration, has been insisting in reducing or extinguish the differences between teachers and students, “[...] masters and disciples are seen as similars, almost in the same condition” (2008:166) But, at the same time is also asked to transmit culturally organized knowledge, that requires from this teacher the occupation of a different place. Aquino, says that before the authority was sustained by an empty speech that required obedience and respect, “now the advent of simetrical communicational practices, gives them the right to speak it would have operated irreversible consequences on the exchanges diagram between school partners”. (Aquino, 2014:44) Both actors talk about questions that
have generated bifurcations within the teaching (des)authorization, if in one hand we have in the classroom a relationship of two brothers, or between two symmetrical pairs, what place does the teacher is in this locus? Aquino bets in an asymmetric relation and affirms that “teachers and students are distinguished primarily by the initiation time in a field of knowledge and, consequently, the degree of complexity about this discursive field” (2014:64) This asymmetric relation, demands that the teacher and the students to take the starring role, building an ambient where is possible the cooperation, respect and reciprocity, without forget that this is also a stress field, conflicts and clashes. We dare affirming that this question seems to be one of the main points of the questioned authority in the modern era. The way that the teacher realizes the confrontation of ideals, the lack of interest of the students, or even how solve the problems in the classroom are fundamental elements to make the teacher’s authority happen.

However, what we observed is that for a large number of teachers, the contemporaray pedagogical act have become a battle field, a field of antagonistic forces, where nobody knows who is who. In this union, the (des)authorization makes present. There are a lot of factors that contribute for this process. Some authors, as Esteves (1999); Pereira, Paulino e Franco (2011) describe some of those, like: conditions of work; changes in the teacher-student relations, contradictions of the teaching practice; desbelief in the school as social promoter; social value of the profession; change of the subject schedules and the fragmentation of teacher’s work; the new challenge of teaching practice and advancement of TIC’S in the educational environment. While we hear from teachers part of this research, the lack of structure and the dissonance of the school with technology seems to be an obstacle that somehow they say that step in the (des)authorization. The teacher C reveals the inadequate physical structure and shows how the lack of teaching resources compete to derail the classes, commiting the schedule.

“I have a school that doesn’t walk side by the society changes, with the technological era, I have a school where the boy has internet in his cellphone, but I still work with a whiteboard and a pen everyday, and sometimes the ink’s pen ends and I have no ink at the moment to fill it, then I go, I come back to the class and I can’t do the job I wanted because I no longer have ink. ”(T€)

Beyond the aspects said above as being an impasse in this process, we can’t forget that the curricular issues, that involves decontextualized content and meaningless for the student, inadequate metodologies and an avaliação system that the priority is the test for a training and evaluation are factors that also contribute to the (des)authorization of teaching. Thus, the teachers complain about indiscipline, lack of interest and violence of the students, they speak about the impossibility of educating in these new times. About this question, Esteves affirms that the reality of the teachers in this situation “is comparable to a group of actors, wearing costumes of a determinated time, and when suddenly with no advice the scenary changes half the stage, showing a new landscape, different from the last scenary. A new post modern, and colored staging that covered that classic and severe scenary” (1999:97) The author’s words are a metaphor about teaching practices that does not follow the social, political, technological and cultural transformations in the same intensity. Considering that a lot of school schedules in the school have no context, without the contemporary issues, making it inadequate, following an embrittlement of the speech, that loses its sense in front of the new crowd, explaining what Esteves wrote. The teachers heard in this research express this paradox.

Obviously, those questions contribute to the indiscipline, the lack of interest and the embrittlement of teacher’s authority. However, we’re gonna make a diggression, using the story about the lack of ink for the work, said by the
Teacher C. Often we witnessed in universities or technological courses, resources that don’t work, leaving the teacher without the material available to teach. It has happened, more than once, we seeing teachers dismissing the class, caliming the impossibility to develop their work, because they don’t have resources. On the other hand, we also saw teachers in the same situation, but with the plan B, to accomplish the didactic contract with their students. Back to the teacher C, we see that she resents about not having the adequated structural conditions to develop her teaching act, besides her commited speech to the “I think that today is necessary to work with a project, technology, working with youth leadership is what she has conditions to do.” (TC) In the observed classes, we saw that the teacher C knows her students, is commited to her job and looks for speaking the students language, but the class has an informality air that drew our attention. During the classes, while the teacher explained the subjects, we saw some students using their cellphone all the time, other sitting with their back to the teacher, the dispersion, the noise, attitudes that seem to be against teacher’s authority. The teacher C stops in some moments, calls the attention, but the student’s behavior repeats. She says that “As the student grow up, the school does not matches what he would like to do, or what he think he has to do, the school does not see the student as he is.” (TC) In this teacher’s vision is the school field that does not looks and listens to the student, and as the student isn’t noticed, he reacts with neglect, indiscipline and indifference in the class, and then teacher and student does not take center stage in the school field. In this logic, the automatic repetition of the school’s schedule and the (im)possibility to build an environment where the learning act has sense to the student, are questions that interfere in the teacher’s authority maintanance, and ultimately influence the desire to teach and learn. The teacher C refers to school in third person, as it didn’t belong to the space. We know that authority requires occupying a social builded place. (Aquino, 1999; Cerezer e Outeiral, 2011). But it happens that this place and the position taken by the teacher in the educational and social fields have been precariously occupied, revealing something that got lost in this road. (Cerezer, Outeiral, 2011). Listening teacher C’s words, it’s clear that she has a political dimension of this place, she says “I have some classes that I need to hear from the student what is going wrong. When the teacher doesn’t supports that, he’ll have problems from the first to the last day. Each group, each class that I teach, is going to give me the answer od what I can work with or not” (TC). Voltolini (2011:40) says that “educators strive to recover the meaning and consequently the value of education, but all of this is inefficient, since the problem is not teaching, but anthropological” The problem of meaningless education is connected to a set of experiences that question the man and his own humanity. When we hear the teacher C speaking about a determinated class group: “So, you’re doing your job and the days are finishing to the end of the semester. I’ve worked at a school that I had the sensation that they didn’t understand a word from the beggining to the end, and that also didn’t make any difference for them.” You may say that teacher’s work and school are losing the sense, just as other institutions losing authority in these uncertain times. In our understanding, the lose of authority is directly related with the social function of the school, that’s why, it’s necessary to ask again: Wich school do we want? Wich students do we want to have? In wich social project is this school in? Who is this studente? Who is this teacher? In the same way, it’s urgent to add new formulations: What does this student want? What does this teacher want? What are the resources that the teacher has to deal with this student?

Understanding the complexity of teacher’s authority in the modern era, is only possible when the school field meets the social field, as it was showed in the diagram 01. Therefore, it is possible to conjecture some possibilities where teachers can put themselves as agents of action, based on ethical alignment between the world and the act, because it takes the risk of listening to the perpetuation of the non-sense ones. But, it’s important to remember that this word isn’t alone, it is inscribed in a relational perspective, that’s why it also supposes speaking, listening and
action of other protagonists: students, children and citizens. Through this line, we agree with Ornellas (2013) when says that “listening is breaking the inside walls of the school, in the relationships with the teacher with himself, with the other and with the environment” (p.28) Taking these lines, it is required to (re)create the school, its curriculum and teaching practice, considering its relational logic, in which people could build a space where it is possible to invest in listening and speaking. Who knows, that this way, the contemporary teacher may get his place in the teaching act, and then can invest in his students sharing knowledge fulfilled with sense. Understanding then, though this way that teacher’s authority can be recognized and legitimated.

Final considerations

In the course of this article, we saw that the authority includes the understanding of a busy place by an agent sustained on ethical principles and technical political powers enabling some recognition. It is not any place, but a place and a position consisted of a subject enrolled in a family environment, in training courses, in professional development engendered in the bonds of the society. The observations of high school teachers, subjects of this research, there are many situations that advertise the scourge where elementary school is located, where the desire to learn and teach live in a confused way with the regulations of a universalizing curriculum, which often does not respond to a specific context. Teachers try to assert their status as responsible for the transmission, but the student shows a presence absence in many ways, whether in cell phone use, going to the bathroom, in conversations, or the unfocused look that signals no longer to be there. The teacher, pretends not to see the surrounds movement in the class, and so the teaching time is gone, it also running with the remnants of teaching authority.

In the investigation that gave support to this article, which is currently at the data analysis stage, we saw that the weakness of authority is not a teaching prerogative, but is a social construct which according to Arendt (2011) it was marked from the insertion in modernity and covers pre-political institutions such as school and family. The pedagogical act has been an expression of this process of (des)authorization, because it is the place where the mastery has been succumbed by the lack of social and school discourse that allows the teacher. The new times with its contradictions, ambivalence and insecurity, embody the silence of the students, indiscipline, the boredom of a body piece left in a chair, in the homeworks they didn’t do, in the distant view emptied of desire for teaching and learning. In this (des)authorization discourse, it is not difficult to find many teachers lamenting the hardships of the profession, tending to victimization. During our experience as professionals in primary school, a line of teachers called us attention because it was repeated in a timely manner to mark the dissatisfaction with some routing. “When I close my classroom’s door, it is just me and my students” In this phrase, spoken by many teachers, we realize that the denial in this situation produces a certain kind of a fractured teaching in his authority, devoid of its political role and consequently verberberates in the curriculum developed in the pedagogical act daily it is important to say that the interrogated authority is hinged to a complex set of factors, including: social, psychological and training. But, we should not forget that in this roaming, the steps come from a subject consisted of drives, whose latent contents and its manifest inscribe it on the (des)authorization and authorization route, in a continuous movement, just like life.
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Towards a gender violence prevention curriculum: Contributions from teacher education

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Gender and domestic violence constitute a flagrant social problem with severe consequences to all society and cannot be ignore when discussing Curriculum. One of the chore ways of implementing gender violence prevention in schools is through teacher education.

We present the experience of UMAR, that with a partnership with FPCEUP, has been implementing and developing teacher training courses in gender violence prevention in schools and addressing forms of dealing with and flagging violence.

Theoretically we reflect upon the role of the teachers in preventing primary and secondary violence but also we focus on the need for these professionals to be trained on forms of acting when facing and detecting violence within their work context.

Our 50 hours certified and accredited training course provides the necessary theoretical models and tools to implement a systematised and structured program for violence prevention by using the transversal components of each subject and by creating and articulating teacher networks.

We include core dimensions from feminist philosophy and practice in order to train the professionals in the deconstruction of the structural and cultural components of violence, and in order to provide a framework on which teacher can base their work on.

We apply a methodology that reinforces the need to put together and implement in schools curricular projects of violence prevention in their working contexts by requesting as a final essay a pilot project to be implemented by the trainees.

For each course, the trainees have to implement an integrated intervention with specific activities adapted to a theme of their choice, within the themes of violence prevention. These essays have to go beyond the individual subject taught by each teacher and must include a transversal perspective, in a way that it comes articulated with the school curriculum, but not limited to it nor excluding its guidelines, hence creating an innovative and integrated form of working, using clarity, precision and intentionally planned sessions specially created for violence prevention.

Our purpose is to analyse the final essays and projects provided by the teachers that attended 2014’s course in order to assess and evaluate the implementation of the gender violence prevention teacher training course and the ways in which they implement the protocol of disclosure and flagging violent situations in the school context.

67 UMAR – União de Mulheres Alternativa e Resposta http://umarfeminismos.org
We also want to assess how the contents are being explored and if the core dimensions, adequate pedagogical conditions and methodologies are being adapted to contents and objectives of a gender violence prevention program and evaluate the results obtained by each group of teachers.

From these results we can better evaluate the impact of the network of teacher we have been training since 2005 in order to establish the guidelines for building a curricular project for teacher that includes set themes, topics, coherence, planning and guidelines that can be implemented transversally through school subjects and throughout the community.

We aim to establish some guidelines in order to contribute with knowledge for building a gender prevention curriculum to be included in the national curriculum.

**Introduction: Domestic violence, children experiencing domestic violence and protecting children**

Gender violence is prevalent in Portugal and constitutes a social problem with severe consequences. In this framework Domestic Violence and Femicide present themselves as evidence, as following data can show. Only in 2014 in Portugal we had 27,317 denounces to the police and, according the data from Portuguese Internal Security System annual report, RASI (2004), the higher number of victims comes from intimate relationships (present or past) being 81% of victims women and 85% of the perpetrators are male.

Regarding femicide, in 2014, 43 women were killed and 49 suffered murder attempts. 81% of these women were in an intimate or family relationship with the perpetrator. 56% of these murdered women had reported and were flagged as domestic violence victims, which did not prevent their death (OMA-UMAR, 2014).

Regarding children who witness violence data from RASI (2014) reported that 38% of the times police intervened there were minors present. This consists in a very high exposure of children to domestic violence. These numbers, however, lack in giving a full perspective because they consider only the presence of minors when the incident occurs, which corresponds to a narrow perspective where witnessing domestic violence consist in being present, ignoring that children can hear, see the consequences of violence after the attack, feel the emotional distress, etc. Also, by limiting their presence to one specific moment, this information is blind to the fact that domestic violence tends to obey to a prevalence in time, to the existence of a violence cycle and escalating violent attacks (Walker, 1991).

Sani & Cardoso (2013) describe these, and all children who witness violence in their family environment, neglected, hidden, unknown or silent victims alerting to how society irresponsibly continues to ignore the victimization of extremely vulnerable populations and do not consider the deep consequences of living in a violent environment for the child adjustment and henceforth in school. One of the reasons for this, is a set of beliefs based on a view of family as a safe haven of protection and care. However, the numbers indicate that family is, in fact, the environment where violence situations take place, and aggression exists.

However, society shares a set of social representations of childhood and family that is not compatible with this reality, and as Sani & Cardoso (2013) highlight, the direct or indirect exposure to violence within family environment reveals a dissonance between social representations of childhood and the experienced childhood of many children. And, furthermore, the lack of visibility and social tolerance towards family related behaviours of violence and child
abuse within the false belief that violence between a couple is an adult issue contributes to a failure in protecting the children from violence episodes.

Another limiting belief is that a child doesn’t understand or realizes violence. This contributes to a lack of appropriate answers, namely within schools. When ignoring that children are emotionally aware of violence, that parents in a violent relationship are not available to provide for basic childcare and that exposure to violence means growing up in an insecure context where parents are unavailable and unable to protect the child. All this happens even if the child is not the direct target of violence, but by witnessing violence between the two important bond and attachment figures in a primordial context for his/her development makes him/her also a victim (Sani & Cardoso, 2013).

The consequences, damage and impact of experiencing violence in the family environment are various and severe and have an extreme impact in another socializing context: school which makes teacher education a fundamental field in order to provide knowledge and guidelines for an adequate prevention.

Continuous research has proven that children exposed to violence may exhibit high levels of emotional reactivity, threat and feelings like guilt, aggressiveness or emotional withdrawal and isolation.

In a meta-analysis of exposure to domestic violence, Evans, Davies & DiLillo, 2008 assessed the association between childhood exposure to domestic violence and internalizing, externalizing and trauma symptoms in children, and the association between childhood exposure to domestic violence and psychosocial problems in children. Their results show that mere exposure to violence between caregivers within the home is associated with an increased risk of emotional and behavioural problems during childhood and adolescence. Children exposed to domestic violence report more depressive symptoms, anxiety and worry than those who have never been exposed. Children seem to be more prone to physical aggression and have higher levels of general behaviour problems when rated by parents and teachers (Evans, Davies & DiLillo, 2008). Furthermore, there is evidence of a strong impact of domestic violence on academic results, cognitive performance and sociability. At school, teachers face these symptoms and behaviour and they don’t have the knowledge or tools to understand that these are the result of exposure to violence and not a sign of indiscipline or lack of interest. Also, effects of exposure to violence in cognitive abilities and school results are sometimes interpreted as learning problems and students are included in special needs education programmes.

Regarding their behaviour, exposure to violence may result in children and adolescents exhibiting aggressive or disruptive behaviours but also passivity or isolation. This seemingly paradoxical reaction can cause problems in detecting and correctly interpreting their behaviour. Whether seeing them as undisciplined and problematic or as lacking motivation or interest in learning, these students face revictimization and punishment instead of appropriate care.

These are just examples on how misinterpretation of signs of violence exposure can lead to inadequate ways in which teachers handle and face students and the way they act which has a strong impact and severe consequences in their school results.

Regarding gender violence prevention, we have to also analyze aggression and violence in schools. Evidence shows a high prevalence of aggressive behaviours and a likelihood for children from violent homes to reproduce aggressive behaviours or to be involved in violent relationships, making it even more important for teachers to learn
how to distinguish aggressiveness and its multiple causes and origins and also find out, flagging and acting accordingly in violent situations. This urgently demands for reflection on practices of teacher training in order to set what kind of responses we can and should provide to these professionals and how to integrate gender violence prevention in the Curriculum.

It is pivotal to train teachers in gender violence and violence prevention, in order to provide these professionals with the adequate knowledge, concepts and theoretical knowledge but also to help them construct a common framework around violence and, specifically for training teachers in the nature and implication of gender violence. As Del Toro (2012) points out, given the evidence found in research as well as work of organizations (including the UN), violence against women is "[...] an evil endemic, systemic and global which is a violation of human rights " (Del Toro, 2012: 11). In this regard, it states that this serious problem stems from power imbalances and structural inequality between men and women. In the same line of reasoning we can pay attention to considerations of El Mouelhy (2004), which addresses this form of violence as "[...] a reflection of the socio-cultural structure of a society, the economic situation and the political context of a country." (El Mouelhy, 2004: 290).

Teachers play an important role in primary and secondary prevention of violence and teacher education is a fundamental field of work in order to provide knowledge and guidelines for adequate gender violence prevention. However, there are not many answers for their need for training in forms of detecting and acting towards violence, namely those training actions that stem from a feminist philosophy and practice in order to train professionals in deconstructing structural and cultural violence.

Also, since there is a lack of training dedicated to act in schools, strategies set for implementing these themes and no appropriate spaces for creating and developing curricular projects in violence prevention, our aim in providing teacher training courses is to grant our trainees tools and knowledge to create, plan, implement and evaluate gender prevention projects at schools by developing an integrated intervention with a transversal perspective with specific activities within the themes of violence prevention.

Also a part of the methodology, teachers work together in preparing and planning sessions with the purpose of intentionally and clearly provide a gender violence prevention framework, activities and adequate pedagogical moments that are set exclusively for violence prevention activities. In this way, by allowing participants to explore basic contents and core dimensions they are able to apply the adequate pedagogical conditions and methodologies, by adapting contents and objectives and evaluating the processes. Therefore, teachers can effectively act on gender violence prevention and set forth in their daily practices the foundations and mechanisms of change for their students, which will reproduce in their families, communities and society in general.

**The experience of UMAR**

Since the very beginning UMAR has dedicated itself to training and it is recognized as a certified training institution by the Portuguese national qualifications institute, DGERT (Direction for Employment and Work Relations).

Nowadays we count with a wide experience in training qualified professionals and agents against Gender Violence. Amongst others, we have developed and implemented an accredited teacher training course in Gender Violence Prevention in Schools and Family (developed in partnership with the Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences of the University of Porto).
Gender violence is the main focus of this 50 hours training course, aimed at the production of intervention and prevention projects in schools, mobilizing participants in, and for pedagogical action.

From the pedagogical point of view, we intend to build mechanisms and methodologies to identify, understand and combat the phenomenon of violence in schools and make explicit, power cultural and gender differences, in everyday school education.

We are conscious that gender stereotypes continue to model and shape the school curriculum and the educational and pedagogical practices. They are present in the formation of various educational agents, and in the various types of teaching and learning materials. Intending to change this reality we work with the professionals in an articulated theoretical and practical base to present and introduce the subject of gender violence so that educational agents get in touch with essential information about the problem, analyze and debate the theoretical references of the proposed themes and elaborate strategies focused on professional practice are used as well through a methodology that favours participation, that holds on a critical and active questioning position.

The course methodology includes alternating theoretical and practical sessions, giving priority to the experiential dimension of the training process, performing a daily job discussion and sharing. We intend for teachers to build an intervention program for research and action, addressing and discussing core concepts in the field of gender violence prevention.

From the pedagogical point of view, we intend to build mechanisms and methodologies to identify, understand and combat the phenomenon of violence in schools, to make vivid and explicit power differences, cultural and gender in school education everyday, and to provide the guidelines and theoretical framework for teachers to implement pilot projects in their schools in order to create and implement a systematized and structured program where gender violence prevention is integrated in the core components of subjects.

The course includes the deconstruction of violence, violences and gender violence at school and from the school; conceptualising gender and domestic violence and conceptualising its impact in schools; sets forward protocols on how to intervene in schools and presents UMAR’s pedagogical prevention programme; analyses language, culture and power as constructions and social practices and spaces and times for a construction of women’s citizenship and; finally the curriculum as a place to defy and imagine change.

The objectives, aims and main aspects of these courses are designed to obtain impact for social, economic, political contemporary changes in redefining public and private spheres and its consequences in school environment, taken in consideration:

- School as space of construction of discourse that legitimises inequality and power and creates spaces of violences;
- Language and culture as a construction and social practice that includes power structures;
- How the curriculum can be appropriated in order to put forward change and give visibility to silenced voices;
- Impact of changes in school ethos in order to empower victims and put responsibility in the perpetrators;
- How to create a climate of dialogue, respect and non-violence in schools;
- Devise actions and educational strategies to promote thought on the social construction of gender violence;
Develop projects in research and innovation centred in gender violence prevention and gender equality;
- Unfold hidden differencing mechanisms;
- Develop and implement the construction of a citizenship of women at schools;
- Create dialogue and spaces of reflection for professional, discourse and educative processes and where professionals can train basing on their own experience;
- Practice analysis, research, intervention and evaluation as to become active creators of training processes for non violence, gender equality and gender violence prevention and elaborate pedagogical instruments that allow to intertwine schools and community.

In the end of the courses teacher are able to put together and implement curricular projects and an intervention programme with specific activities, adapted to this specific theme and addressing the flagging of violence and forms of dealing with violence; and including a transversal perspective into individual subjects, articulated with school curriculum, not limited to it, not excluding its guidelines.

Integration in core curriculum: a view on the implementation of gender violence prevention programmes by teachers

We selected three examples of pilot projects developed by teachers that attended the training course with the objective of illustrating how the integration in core curriculum can be developed and implemented. For each essay we highlight the theoretical framework and contents chosen by trainees and describe briefly the process and activities set forward in the sessions. Trainees had to choose and apply one or more contents of the training course and create action-research projects to be implemented with one or more classes along the school year. All projects had to be explicitly dedicated to gender violence prevention and had to be integrated in the core curriculum of the subject taught.

The first essay consisted in sessions about human rights and human dignity in order to prevent violence and more specifically dating violence. In this action-research based project teachers set as objectives assessing student's perceptions of gender equality, raising awareness to dating violence and preventing violent behaviours. The trainees chose to implement it in only one class, but sessions were developed by creating a network between three trainees from three different schools that collaboratively put forward a set of activities for the named class, for the whole school and aimed at reaching the surrounding community.

This group developed and applied a survey and a questionnaire, several group dynamics for the class and the school. After assessing student's knowledge and beliefs, the teachers developed specific sessions that culminated with the presentation of a dating violence session by the students to the school community and the preparation of an opinion court.

The second essay focused on social interaction, social roles and social structures and in the ways in which they intertwine with gender, gender roles and gender inequality, discrimination and ultimately gender violence. In this
action-research based project, they aimed at raising awareness of gender inequality, identifying gender stereotypes and promoting conducts based on gender equality in order to prevent gender violence.

This group implemented a year long project in three schools, three different subjects and three different levels in basic education and secondary education classes. All sessions were integrated in the framework from the respective core subjects, and activities were also planned and adapted to be adequate to the level and ages of students involved. The group prepared common activities and contents but for each one they developed and/or adapted materials, strategies and tasks. They also researched on students’ perceptions and knowledge by applying a survey and a questionnaire and enrolled them in creating activities for the school and surrounding community by creating a campaign of deconstruction of social representations around gender roles and gendered professions inside and outside the school.

The third essay versed on human rights, family, domestic violence and as an action-research based project had as objectives assessing student's perceptions of dating violence, raising awareness of domestic violence, preventing and flagging of violence and implementing an intervention protocol for the school. In a school year, this group of five teachers from the same school organized a structured set of sessions in one class and one subject and afterwards disseminating to the whole school and community a raising awareness program that included an intervention protocol for identifying, flagging of and acting against gender violence. These teachers also put forward a pilot project for assessing and investigating dating violence within the school, by elaborating and applying a survey to the students and creating, with the help of school statistics and other teachers, the basis of a future observatory of violence in the school.

Their classroom activities, again dedicated exclusively to gender violence but integrated in the subject curriculum, included working with core concepts, debate, video projection and resulted in, writing of a news article and translation to a foreign language, collaborative building of a protocol of intervention for students and families and a poster spread around the school and the city.

This particular school also celebrated the International Day for the Elimination of Violence Against Women with the presence of a specialist panel so that students could ask questions and share their concerns.

These three essays demonstrate how in each project teachers were able to implement gender violence prevention programmes according to UMAR’s methodology integrating it in core curriculum but without reducing or discarding it nor adding another subject to it. Teachers were also able to implement protocols of disclosure and flagging of violence, going beyond our initial proposals, by adequately researching within their working environments and establishing goals and priorities that were set from within the school community and not from an outside perspective.

They were also able to create networks inside the school and/or create alliances between different schools, profiting not only from the cross subject network work but even creating activities for a network of schools.

Conclusions

In this study we aimed at providing a view on how teacher training courses in gender violence prevention are being implemented in Portuguese schools and the ways on which UMAR trains teachers in the integration of these
themes in the core curriculum. We presented examples on how teachers develop and implement pilot projects in their schools and how they enrol students to take part and act against violence.

From the analysis of the results of one teacher training course and the assessment of UMAR’s experience in implementing gender violence projects in schools, we explore how participants are provided with tools and knowledge to articulate gender prevention within the school curriculum without limiting it or excluding its guidelines, by establishing ways for teacher to work on transversal contents and examples on how teachers put forward programs articulated as curricular projects and not just another subject or isolated theme.

From UMAR’s experience these teacher training courses are allowing to create innovative and integrated ways of working gender violence prevention with clarity, precision and intentionality and at the end of the courses, teachers are able to design and teach, within their core subject, contents and activities that are specifically dedicated to the purpose of gender violence prevention and eradication.

However this study has limitations, namely the impossibility to assess the impact of this course in the schools where it has been applied because it consists on an analysis of participants’ essays where the only indication of impact amongst students and school is the activities implemented, number of sessions and/or articulation between students, teachers and schools. Also, being a study limited to one course, it lacks the necessary continuity to provide us with data to evaluate the impact that teacher training courses in gender violence prevention have in schools.

Nevertheless, from the analysis of the essays we can affirm that through this innovative and integrated form of work, teachers are able to present results that consist in planned sessions, developed with clarity, precision and intentionality aiming at gender violence prevention, where students are given the opportunity to work these themes and where they are given the importance and salience they deserve. Also, UMAR’s methodology allows fighting cultural and symbolic violence by deconstructing the deep mechanisms of gender violence stemming from our patriarchal society and fights the invisibility of these themes in the Curriculum.

UMAR’s training courses can also provide guidelines to be included in national curriculum by establishing ways of working transversal contents putting forward a program that can be articulated as a curricular project and not another subject or isolated theme and providing teachers with tools to effectively work these themes in their classrooms, fighting their feelings of inadequacy or lack of knowledge that impedes them to teach these contents that should be transversally present in all school subjects according to Portuguese curricular guidelines.

In order to do so, in each teacher training course teachers learn how to apply integrated curriculum and to design and implement curricular projects in one or different schools articulated between them, creating and articulating networks.

In their practice they can plan, structure and put forward specific activities adapted for violence prevention themes and framework and provide students with examples of forms of dealing with, flagging of and preventing violence.

Also, teachers can work within the core curriculum and within their subjects but are able to go beyond their individual subjects and work collaboratively with other teachers in order to articulate between them and include this transversal perspective in different subjects, classes or even the whole school.
We analyzed examples on how this work can be done and how gender violence prevention can be articulated with school curriculum without limiting it or excluding any guidelines and how teachers can get students to take part of the process and get involved in the initiatives by producing materials, activities and/or events.

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**Reflective practice, skills and assessment in initial teacher training**

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Societies of "reflexive modernity" are evolving at a dizzying pace. Technologies change work processes, forms of sociability and connect authors to multiple social fields. For Giddens, knowledge conveyed by expert systems, the contact of individuals with experts from various fields and the dissemination of specialised information by the media have increased exponentially in the "reflexive modernity". This has allowed individuals to gain access to a variety of enriching experiences regarding their cognitive resources. As a result, the reflexive monitoring of social activity is a distinctive feature of the quotidian of individuals in contemporary societies.

In constantly changing social contexts, education research has pointed to the need for new conceptual models for teacher training. In this sense, since the eighties, reflexivity (Schön, 1987) has been seen as an essential component of teaching practice (Schön, 2000), in which the teacher is seen as a professional who plays an active role in the establishment of purposes, objectives and means to achieve in their work, and who researches the teaching practice inside the classroom, identifies problems, searches and develops intervention projects to solve those same problems, based on professional knowledge arising from their own experience (Zeichner, 1993, 2008).

Reflective practice requires not only the mobilisation of knowledge but also skills, as it appeals to the interaction of the individual’s resources and the resources existing in the environment. In fact, there is a tendency in European policies for the adoption of professional skills in teacher training courses (Tuning Project, 2000; European Commission, 2012, 2013). In the last fifteen years, a large number of countries have applied frameworks of references reflecting the European effort.

This study aims to identify the skills inherent to initial teacher training courses for the 1st and 2nd cycle of basic education taught at Portuguese higher education institutions as well as how they are assessed and transferred to the training area.
We have chosen the intentional sampling method to select a sample of higher education institutions to be part of our study, as we have decided to include only the higher education institutions that place the larger number of teachers in the education system for the 1st and 2nd cycle of basic education. The final sample consists of 17 universities and polytechnics. Regarding methodology, we have opted to analyse the content of the curricular units of the courses delivered by these institutions.

Our analysis has shown the presence of some of the skills listed in the European reports for teacher training. However, it has also shown their inadequacy in relation to assessment strategies, which are more of a summative nature than formative, and the tools used for assessment, which are more targeted at synthesis tasks (e.g. tests) than at development tasks (e.g. portfolio, project) that allow a better assessment of the learning of skills.

Keywords: Reflective practice, competences, assessment, initial teacher training

Introduction

Societies of "reflexive modernity" are evolving at a dizzying pace. Technologies change work processes, forms of sociability, and connect individuals to multiple social fields. For Giddens, knowledge conveyed by expert systems, the contact of individuals with experts from various fields and the dissemination of specialised information by the media have increased exponentially in the "reflexive modernity". This has allowed individuals to gain access to a variety of enriching experiences regarding their cognitive resources. As a result, the reflexive monitoring of social activity is a distinctive feature of the quotidians of individuals in contemporary societies. Frameworks of perception, evaluation and guidance for action triggered by social actors are being increasingly influenced by specialised knowledge (institutional reflexivity) that takes the form of hypotheses: knowledge that, in principle, is open to review and can be refuted at anytime (Giddens, 1990, 1991, 2000).

In constantly changing social contexts, education research has pointed to the need for new conceptual models for teacher training. In this sense, since the eighties, reflexivity (Schön, 1987) has been seen as an essential component of teaching practice, in which the teacher is seen as a professional who plays an active role in the establishment of purposes, objectives and means to achieve in their work, and who researches the teaching practice inside the classroom, identifies problems, searches and develops intervention projects to solve those same problems, based on professional knowledge arising from their own experience (Zeichner, 1993, 2008).

In social contexts of constant change, what is taught also changes. Teachers need to help students acquire not only the knowledge that is easiest to teach and easiest to test but also ways of thinking (creativity, critical thinking, problem-solving, decision-making and learning); ways of working (communication and collaboration); tools for working (information and communications technologies); and skills around citizenship, life and career and personal and social responsibility for success in contemporary societies (Schleicher, 2012, p. 34).

So teachers today, as reflective professionals, need competences to innovate and apply differentiated pedagogical practices to ensure that every student has a chance to succeed and to deal with the cultural diversity in their classrooms. In modern societies, standardisation has been replaced by creativity and by personalised educational experiences. Moreover, teachers must have the key competences that are expected to provide students to adapt and position themselves in a society of constant change.
In fact, there has been a trend for the inclusion of competences in the curriculums of basic, secondary and university education in European policies since the 90s, and there has been a gradual change from the conception of a curriculum based on school subjects to a new conceptualisation of the curriculum oriented to the acquisition of competences (OECD, 1994).

Regarding initial teacher training in the last fifteen years, European policies have highlighted as a priority, among others, the establishment of a framework of competences for teacher education, especially after the Lisbon Strategy (2000). The aim of the Lisbon Strategy was to make Europe “the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion” (Lisbon European Council: Presidency Conclusions, Paragraph 5). The recommendations to achieve these goals, in addition to traditional economic measures, underlined the need to invest in people and, therefore, a set of measures related to education and training systems in Europe was mentioned.

Since then, the quality of teaching is considered a key factor to increase Europe's competitiveness in a globalised world. International studies show that teacher quality is significantly and positively correlated with pupil attainment, being it one of the most important aspects to explain the performance of students (Rivkin, Hanushek & Kain 2000; Angrist and Lavy, 2001; Hanushek, Kain & Rivkin 2005).

International studies and reports have recognised that improving teacher education should focus on: procedures to attract and select the best candidates into teaching, increasing qualification, personal providing and professional support (‘induction’) for every new member of the profession, learning throughout life, Improving the status of the professions and developing a clear understanding of the competences that all staff must possess (European Commission, 2012a, 2012b).

Regarding competences, the EU has released several documents relevant to their development in initial teacher training since then. Without claims of completeness, it must be mentioned the 2005 European Commission report entitled Common European Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications to support national policies. In this report the competences to be developed by teachers were placed into three major areas: 1) Work with others: teaching should be based on values of social inclusion and the development of the potential of every learner; Work with knowledge, technology and information: Their education and professional development should prepare them to access, analyse, validate, reflect on and transmit knowledge, from the use of technology; Work with and in society: Teachers should be able to work with the local community and with partners and stakeholders in education, like parents, teacher education institutions, and representative groups (European Commission Directorate-General for Education and Culture, 2005, p 4. ).

The conclusions of the Education Councils of November 2007, 2008 and 2009 on improving Teacher Quality and Teacher Education stressed the need to develop teachers’ competences to work with heterogeneous classes, use ICT, teach transversal competences, create safe attractive schools, develop cultures/attitudes of reflective practice, research, innovation collaboration and autonomous Learning (Council of the European Union, 2007, 2008, 2009).

More recently, the European Commission's communication ‘Rethinking Education’ (2012) recommended Member States the review and development of the profile of all teaching professions “based on clearly defined competences needed at each stage of the teaching career, and teacher Increasing digital competence”. (European Commission, 2012a). The document Supporting the Teaching Professions for Better Learning Outcomes urged the need for
Member States to share a framework of basic competences for the teaching professions (European Commission, 2012b).

International studies have also addressed the need to assess the development of teachers’ competences in order to: 1) be an indicator of the need of the teacher to develop certain competences, as it allows the recognition of acquired skills; 2) be able to support/promote the transformation of a teaching culture based on competences; 3) ensure the quality and control of education (European Commission, 2013). The assessment of competences should be based on a “shared understanding” about the competences to be developed by teachers, such as the national framework of teacher competences (European Commission, 2013, 36).

Among the international studies and projects that addressed the definition and assessment of competences in education and training stand out from OECD's DeSeCo project (Rychen & Salganik, 2003), studies on European Language Teacher Education (Kelly & Grenfell, 2002; Kelly et al, 2004 ), the Tuning project (González & Wagenaar, 2005) and OECD's TALIS survey (OECD, 2009).

The Tuning project (2000), funded by the European Commission was designed to support the implementation of a European area of higher education as a result of the Bologna Process and it even defined a set of competences for initial teacher training. The project was initially developed in Europe, where it brought together a number of specialists in various areas of 135 reputed European higher education institutions from 27 countries. The overall objective was to contribute to the development of convergence points in the curriculums of higher education courses in specific areas (pilot subject areas: Business Administration, Chemistry, Education Sciences, History, Geology/Earth Sciences, Mathematics and Physics) in order to make them easily comparable within the European space. In the first phase (2000-2002), the project developed study programmes for each of the three Bologna cycles based on learning outcomes expressed in terms of competences and ECTS (European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System). The learning outcomes “are statements of what a learner is expected to know, understanding and/or be able to demonstrate after completion of a learning experience” (González & Wagenaar, 2005, p. 13) and the competences were defined as “a dynamic combination of knowledge, understanding, skills, abilities and values (…), formed in various course units and assessed at different stages” (González & Wagenaar, 2005, p. 14). These are divided into subject specific (a course of an area of knowledge) and generic ones (common the various courses of an area of knowledge). The competences were further grouped into three types: 1) Instrumental competences related to cognitive, methodological, technological and linguistic abilities; 2) Interpersonal competences that grouped individual abilities like social skills; 3) systemic competences that required prior acquisition of instrumental and interpersonal competences, as they resulted from combination of understanding, sensibility and knowledge.

The identification of competences for each of the academic fields involved resulted from an investigation into international policies and practices and a large scale consultation among graduates, employers and academics by using questionnaires.

The questionnaires, applied on two occasions (2001 and 2008), contained a list of generic and specific competences derived from research conducted by the project, in which responders were asked to rate for utility and could indicate others not on the list.
From the consensus among researchers, graduates, employers and academics resulted a list with 31 generic competences and 25 specific competences (Tuning, 2009, p. 40-42) for the area of education, specifically to initial teacher training.

In the second phase (2003-2004), the project developed approaches to teaching methods, learning and assessment and quality indicators for the development of teaching programmes in the three study cycles (Gonzalez & Wagenaar, 2005). On the one hand, the guidance for a competence-based curriculum created the need to combine various teaching and learning methods that facilitate the acquisition of the identified competences. On the other hand, this new approach also entailed the modification of the methods and criteria for assessment in the light not only of the contents (summative assessment) but also the capabilities (formative assessment).

With regard to assessment, the project recommended, among others, a varied use of assessment methods as the only way to assess whether the student had acquired all the competences listed in the curriculum, including: tests of knowledge, laboratory reports, performance of skills while being observed, diaries, professional portfolios, fieldwork reports or written essays (Gonzalez & Wagenaar, 2005, p. 207).

To the researchers of the Tuning project, a coordinated work among these various lines (generic competences, specific competences; ECTS, learning, teaching methods and assessment; and the role of quality in the educational process) will result in the transparency of professional and academic profiles of courses and of study programmes.

This study aims to ascertain whether the competences identified in the Tuning project from a broad consensus among graduates, employers and academics has become a reference for the initial teacher training taught at Portuguese higher education institutions and, if so, how they have been assessed.

**Methodology**

To select a sample of university and polytechnic education institutes, we have chosen the method of intentional sampling, whose selection criteria was to bring together the institutions that have placed more teachers in the education system, for the 1st and 2nd Cycle of Basic Education. Thus, we have selected the institutions that at each level of education trained 400 or more teachers, representing over 50% of the training of teachers for the 1st Cycle and over 30% for the 2nd Cycle of Basic Education. We have also chosen to introduce two control variables: 1) education institutes that offered cycles of study of initial teacher training for the 1st and 2nd Cycles of Basic Education (degree in basic education and master's degree in education for the 1st and/or 1st and 2nd Cycles of Basic Education in accordance with Decree-law No. 43/2007 of 22 February); 2) and that were accredited according to data released by the Directorate General for Higher Education.

The source of the sample was a database of the Information System of the Ministry of Education of the Directorate General for Education and Science Statistics for the academic year of 2012/2013, which presented data from Pre-Primary Education and Basic and Secondary Education on Mainland public schools falling under the Ministry of Education and Science. The sample consists of 17 higher education institutions (4 public universities, 9 public polytechnic institutes and 4 private polytechnic institutes), as it can be seen from Table 61:
### Table 61: Sample of higher education institutes selected by intentional sampling


To achieve the aim of this study, we applied a content analysis of the study programmes of initial teacher training, undergraduate degree in basic education and master's degrees in education for the 1st and 2nd Cycles of Basic Education delivered by these institutions. We have a system of closed categories/subcategories (see Annex I) based on theoretical knowledge produced on the issue in question; that is, based on specific and general competences set out in the Tuning Project (2009). As enumeration units of the thematic categories, we have favoured the presence/absence (Bardin, 2006 [1977]) of this in the corpus under analysis. The analysis was validated through an inter-judge consensus (Krippendorff, 2004), in which two independent judges classified a

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### Training by cycles of study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education institutes</th>
<th>Training by cycles of study</th>
<th>Accredited cycles of study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1st Cycle</td>
<td>2nd Cycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%&lt;sup&gt;68&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>University (public)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Aveiro</td>
<td>437</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Trás-os-Montes and Alto Douro</td>
<td>829</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Algarve</td>
<td>716</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Minho</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Polytechnic Institute (public)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polytechnic Institute of Guarda</td>
<td>538</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polytechnic Institute of Bragança</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra</td>
<td>506</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polytechnic Institute of Leiria</td>
<td>811</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polytechnic Institute of Lisboa</td>
<td>858</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polytechnic Institute of Santarém</td>
<td>503</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polytechnic Institute of Setúbal</td>
<td>714</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polytechnic Institute of Viana do Castelo</td>
<td>542</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polytechnic Institute of Porto</td>
<td>860</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Polytechnic Institute (private)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almeida Garrett School of Education</td>
<td>1167</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fafe School of Education</td>
<td>809</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jean Piaget Institute</td>
<td>5198</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Institute for Educational Sciences</td>
<td>2527</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>18873</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>68</sup> Percentage points considering a total number of 33,080 trained teachers (Almeida, 2015).

<sup>69</sup> Percentage points considering a total number of 22,831 trained teachers (Almeida, 2015).
random sample of answers according to the categories stipulated. There was an overall inter-judge consensus of 87%, serving as a guarantee of the produced categorisation. The content analysis was performed with the aid of MAXQDA 11.0.1 software.

Competence-based Curriculum in Teacher Education in Europe

In fact, there is a trend in European policies, in the last fifteen years, towards a competence-based curriculum in Teacher Education (European Commission & Council, 2010; European Commission, 2013).

In national educational policies, there is a wide variety of approaches to defining and implementing the competences of teacher education (Caena, 2011, European Commission 2013, 2012b). The decision-making level on the competences required for teacher education varies between Member States: 1) in most countries (e.g. Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Denmark, France, Hungary, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Spain, Sweden) competences are determined at national level, but are adapted by teacher education institutions; 2) in a smaller number of countries (e.g. Cyprus, Estonia, Slovenia, Germany and UK) the decision is centralised and taken by ministries or government bodies; 3) and in a last also smaller number of countries (e.g. Finland, Czech Republic, Greece, and Malta) the competence requirements are stipulated by teacher education institutions (European Commission, 2012b, p. 10). In these latter two cases, where the competences are determined at national level but adapted by the teacher education institutions or fully stipulated by these, competences tend to vary depending on the institutions and the descriptions are less explicit and detailed. (European Commission, 2013).

International studies suggest that countries also differ in two central aspects: 1) in the description of the competences only for initial teacher training, or over the whole teaching career; 2) and the policy tools used (legislation, regulation, guidelines, university curricula, requirements for entry into the profession) (European Commission, 2013, p. 21).

On the one hand, this vagueness about what society can expect from teachers in the national context hampers the efforts of the European Union to ensure consensus around key competences for teacher education; it also recognises the need for each country to define the appropriate competences to their cultural context (Tuning 2005, 2009). On the other hand, this vagueness in the competences the teachers must have in a society can be an indicator of deprofessionalisation, as most professions are built around consensus about a profile to be developed. This is also likely to generate an ambiguity/uncertainty in the recruitment process for the profession, in the performance appraisal and in training throughout the teacher's life. Which teacher profile is recruited? Which competences are appraised on teacher's performance? What are the competences to be developed in initial teacher training and in development throughout life?

Results: Competencies in initial teacher training

The results of the content analysis of programmes of initial teachers training, undergraduate degree in basic education and master's degrees in education for the 1st and 2nd Cycles of Basic Education, in general showed a greater list of learning outcomes than competences. With regard to competences, we noted that in some cases
there was an influence of the Tuning project in the way those competences were selected following the same terminology and even referring to the same type (Instrumental competences, Interpersonal competences and systemic competences). It must be mentioned, as it can be seen in Tables 62, 63 and 64, that all education institutions often list more generic than specific competences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Universities</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Specific Competences</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Ability to manage educational/developmental projects</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Ability to adjust the curriculum and educational materials to a specific educational context</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Ability to design and implement varied strategies, based on specific criteria, to evaluate learning</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Knowledge of the subjects to be taught</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Ability to design and implement education which integrates people with specific needs</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ability to provide education in values, citizenship and democracy and reflect on one’s own value system</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Adapt to learners</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Understanding of the structures and purposes of educational systems</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>91*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Generic Competences</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ability to be critical and self-critical</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Ability to undertake research at an appropriate level</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Ability to work in a team</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Ability to communicate both orally and through the written word in first language</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Capacity to generate new ideas (creativity)</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Appreciation of and respect for diversity and multiculturalism</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Ability to work autonomously</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Ability to apply knowledge in practical situations</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>384*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 62: Main specific and generic competences listed in universities

* Total of the competences listed by the Tuning Project.

Given the considerable number of competences listed by the Tuning Project, we have chosen to tackle the eight most mentioned by the courses. Thus, according to Table 3, 4 and 5, the education institutions gather more consensus on the specific competences, although they give them different importance, in particular, Ability to manage educational/developmental projects (universities 15.4%; public polytechnic institutes 8.4%; private
polytechnic institutes 9.4%); Ability to adjust the curriculum and educational materials to a specific educational context (universities 13.2%; public polytechnic institutes 8.8%; private polytechnic institutes 6.0%); Ability to design and implement varied strategies, based on specific criteria, to evaluate learning (universities 11.0%; public polytechnic institutes 5.8%; private polytechnic institutes 8.4%); and Knowledge of the subjects to be taught (universities 9.9%), public polytechnic institutes 10.9%; private polytechnic institutes 16.9%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specific Competences</th>
<th>Public polytechnic institutes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Knowledge of the subjects to be taught</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Competences in a number of teaching and learning strategies</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Ability to manage educational/developmental projects</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Ability to adjust the curriculum and educational materials to a specific educational context</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Understanding of the structures and purposes of educational systems</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Ability to design and implement education which integrates people with specific needs</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Ability to design and implement varied strategies, based on specific criteria, to evaluate learning</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Ability to create a climate conducive to learning</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic Competences</th>
<th>Public polytechnic institutes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ability to be critical and self-critical</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Ability to undertake research at an appropriate level</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Ability to apply knowledge in practical situations</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Ability to search for, process and analyse information from a variety of sources</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Ability to work autonomously</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Capacity to learn and stay up-to-date with learning</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Skills in the use of information and communications technologies</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Ability to communicate both orally and through the written word in first language</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 63: Main specific and generic competences listed in public polytechnic institutes

* Total of the competences listed by the Tuning Project.
Regarding generic competences, of those most referred by the institutions, only three are coincident between them, namely, Ability to be critical and self-critical (universities 16.1%; public polytechnic institutes 10.9%; and private polytechnic institutes 21.6%); Ability to undertake research at an appropriate level (universities 7.8%; public polytechnic institutes 8.2%, and private polytechnic institutes 8.2); and Ability to apply knowledge in practical situations (universities 5.7%; public polytechnic institutes 7.1%, and private polytechnic institutes 10.2%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specific Competences</th>
<th>Private polytechnic institutes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Competences in a number of teaching and learning strategies</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Knowledge of the subjects to be taught</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Ability to recognize and respond to the diversity of learners and the complexities of the learning process</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Ability to manage educational/developmental projects</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Ability to design and implement varied strategies, based on specific criteria, to evaluate learning</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Ability to create a climate conducive to learning</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Awareness of the different contexts in which learning can take place</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Ability to adjust the curriculum and educational materials to a specific educational context</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>166*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic Competences</th>
<th>Private polytechnic institutes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ability to be critical and self-critical</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Ability to undertake research at an appropriate level</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Ability to apply knowledge in practical situations</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Ability to work in a team</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Knowledge and understanding of the subject area and understanding of the profession</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Ability to act on the basis of ethical reasoning</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Capacity to learn and stay up-to-date with learning</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Commitment to the conservation of the environment</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>176*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 64: Main specific and generic competences listed in private polytechnic institutes

*Total of the competences listed by the Tuning Project.
It must be mentioned that at a time when the quality of teacher education is an issue on the political agenda, the courses barely mention competences related to quality of education such as Commitment to learners’ progress and achievement (specific competence) and Ability to evaluate and maintain the quality of work produced (generic competence), which are set out in the Tuning project.

**Results: Assessment of learning in initial teacher training**

The assessment of learning in initial teacher training in all institutions shows the use of assessment elements that are both oral and written.

As it can be seen from Table 65, the presentation/discussion of works produced is the most recurrent element of oral participation in public polytechnic institutes (56.5%), universities (53.5%) and private polytechnic institutes (51.7%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forms of assessment</th>
<th>Higher education institutions</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Universities</td>
<td>Public polytechnics</td>
<td>Private polytechnics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Elements of oral participation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom participation</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>39.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation/discussion of works</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>53.5</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>56.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other elements of oral participation</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>144</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Elements of written participation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written test</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worksheet</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay/review</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portfolio</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Report</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diary</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research work</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigative work</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other elements of written participation</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>252</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>813</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 65: Assessment elements of the initial teacher training

The written test is the element of written participation most used in all education institutions (private polytechnics 31.1%, public polytechnics 30.7% and universities 28.8%). Regarding writing elements more likely to show competence development, universities value reports (14.71%) and projects (11.5%); public polytechnic institutes value essays/reviews (9.3%), reports (9.1%) and project work (9.0%); and private polytechnic institutes value essays/reviews (13.8%) and portfolio (13.3%). In all cases, assessment is mainly summative.

Conclusion

Our analysis has shown the presence of some of the competences listed in the Tuning Project for initial teachers training, in all selected education Institutions. However, universities, and public and private polytechnic institutes list different competences in their courses, even if they converge in some of them. Moreover, a general reading of the programmes of the courses showed that teacher education curricula focused mainly on learning outcomes or on what the teacher is expected to know and not on what is able to do.

We believe that it is necessary to define consensus around the key competences for teacher education. This lack of clarity in the competences teachers must have in a society can be an indicator of deprofessionalisation, as most professions are built around consensus about a profile to be developed.

The elements of assessment of learning have proved to be inadequate to evaluate the assimilation of competences, which have shown to be more of a summative nature than of a formative one.

References


Annex 1: Tuning Project (2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic Competences: categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subcategories:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Ability to communicate in a second language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Capacity to learn and stay up-to-date with learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Ability to communicate both orally and through the written word in first language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ability to be critical and self-critical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Ability to plan and manage time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Ability to show awareness of equal opportunities and gender issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Capacity to generate new ideas (creativity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Ability to search for, process and analyse information from a variety of sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Commitment to safety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Ability to identify, pose and resolve problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Ability to apply knowledge in practical situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Ability to make reasoned decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Ability to undertake research at an appropriate level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Ability to work in a team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Knowledge and understanding of the subject area and understanding of the profession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Ability to work in an international context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Ability to act on the basis of ethical reasoning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Ability to communicate with non-experts of one’s field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Ability for abstract thinking, analysis and synthesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Spirit of enterprise, ability to take initiative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Interpersonal and interaction skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Ability to design and manage projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Ability to act with social responsibility and civic awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Determination and perseverance in the tasks given and responsibilities taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Appreciation of and respect for diversity and multiculturality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Ability to work autonomously</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Skills in the use of information and communications technologies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Commitment to the conservation of the environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Ability to adapt to and act in new situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Ability to evaluate and maintain the quality of work produced</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Specific Competences: categories

Subcategories:

1. Ability to critically analyze educational theories and issues of policy in a systematic way
2. Ability to identify potential connections between aspects of educational theory and educational policies and contexts
3. Ability to understand and apply educational theories and methodology as a basis for general and specific teaching activities
4. Ability to provide education in values, citizenship and democracy and reflect on one’s own value system
5. Ability to recognize and respond to the diversity of learners and the complexities of the learning process
6. Awareness of the different contexts in which learning can take place
7. Awareness of the different roles of participants in the learning process
8. Understanding of the structures and purposes of educational systems
9. Ability to do appropriate educational research in different contexts
10. Ability to consult about various educational issues and counseling skills (psychological counseling, counseling learners and parents)
11. Ability to manage educational/developmental projects
12. Ability to manage and evaluate educational programmes, activities and materials
13. Ability to understand trends in education and be able to recognize their potential implications
14. Ability to lead or coordinate a multidisciplinary educational team
15. Ability to understand processes of development and change in the community
16. Commitment to learners’ progress and achievement
17. Competences in a number of teaching and learning strategies
18. Knowledge of the subject/subjects to be taught
19. Ability to communicate effectively with groups and individuals
20. Ability to create a climate conducive to learning
21. Ability to make use of e-learning and to integrate it into the learning environment
22. Ability to improve the teaching and learning environment
23. Ability to adjust the curriculum and educational materials to a specific educational context
24. Ability to design and implement varied strategies, based on specific criteria, to evaluate learning
25. Ability to design and implement education which integrates people with specific needs.
In Mauritius, the Mauritius Institute of Education (MIE) is the sole teacher education institution mandated to develop and maintain professionalism in pre-service and in-service educators. Educators are the greatest attribute of any education system and educating educators in the country has not only been considered as vital for ensuring educator professionalism but also for refining the process and effectiveness of teaching and learning. Curriculum design at institutional level, requires that there is coherence in the model/s used for course development. According to Jackson (2002) several forces; at institutional, departmental and individual levels, influence this process and in the absence of an institutional instructional design understanding and procedures, it is argued here that teacher education curriculum might not be totally effective. This study, therefore analyses existing structures for course development in teacher education through the lenses of theories of curriculum foundations. Questionnaires were initially used as instruments to gather data among Teacher Educators, Heads of Departments, Programme coordinators and Management cadres at the MIE. A sample of 50 respondents answered the survey questionnaires. A focus group discussion, including a sample of 10 participants from the above groups of respondents was also carried out. Purposive sampling procedure was adopted to select the participants in this study. Data was analysed qualitatively using content analysis method. Findings reveals the existence of organizational procedures for course development at the MIE. Further analysis shows that Teacher Education curriculum development is mainly influenced by political and philosophical forces. The study concludes on a need to conceptualise and formalize curriculum development process at the MIE, based on a clear model of instructional course design, for effective professionalization of teacher education in Mauritius.

Keywords: Teacher Education, Teacher Education Curriculum development.

Introduction

Research in the field of teacher education has received increasing attention worldwide, largely fueled by curriculum-reform efforts (Tanner and Tanner, 2007) to align teachers’ professional programmes with student improvement. Mc Mahon et al (2015) explain that traditional models of teacher education are now being more and more challenged and requires that teacher development programmes be reconceptualised to meet the needs of wider educational reform agendas. Whilst a review of publications on teacher education (Avalos 2011) over recent years (2000-2010) demonstrates the growing interest of researchers to explore (mostly) the process and product aspects of teacher education programmes, few writers have investigated how such programmes are designed and what factors influence the process.

Literature shows that curriculum design and development, at any level, are as equally influenced by socio-political factors (Print, 1993) as they are by the personal biases of those individuals who design the curriculum. The point to be made clear here is that, the biases themselves originate from the interpretation of contextual factors and a
personal understanding of the curriculum by individuals. Orstein and Hunkins (2004) explain that ‘the individual approach to curriculum reflects what the person perceives as reality, the values he or she deems important, and the amount of knowledge he or she possesses’ (p. 2). In the field of education therefore, such biases stem from the holistic positioning of the curriculum developer with regards to his or her philosophical, sociological as well as his or her psychological view of education. These sources of information are ‘commonly accepted foundations of curriculum’ (Orstein and Hunkins, 2004, p.14) and set the external boundaries of the knowledge of curriculum from which theories, principles and ideas about curriculum emerge. These authors argue that it is insufficient to merely examine the foundation areas and that more research is needed to explore and evidence the relationship between the foundations of the curriculum and the curriculum itself (p.14). In the present study, therefore, we use the foundations of the curriculum as theoretical lenses to explore the scope to which different sources of knowledge, as they are perceived from contextual realities, consciously or unconsciously bias curriculum developers in their tasks. Tanner and Tanner (2007, p. 347) support the point that an understanding of the sources of bias is important to minimize, as far as possible, their influences on curriculum design and development.

Such an understanding is crucial in the Mauritian context which has a largely centralised teacher education system and more specifically to the Mauritius Institute of Education (MIE), its sole public teacher-education institution (TEI). The MIE has the triple mandate to inform national educational policy through research, to develop curriculum materials for schools, as well as to develop and maintain the professionalism of educators from pre-primary to secondary levels through pre-service and in-service teacher education programmes (TEP). Given the small size of the country and its educational sector and the quasi-monopoly of the MIE when it comes to educational curriculum development, we believe that any decision taken at the MIE has an immediate and direct repercussion on teaching/learning practices in our schools.

In the current state, however, the MIE does not have a dedicated personnel for curriculum development and this task is taken up by academics, mainly subject and education specialists, who have mostly learned the process on-the-job. Very few staff, among those involved in the development of curricular frameworks, text books and teacher education programmes have had any form of formal training in curriculum theory and development. As mentioned above, curriculum development is one of the core agenda of the MIE; yet little investigation has been done on MIE’s curriculum development activities for its teacher education programme as compared to work done around curriculum development for the many levels of the Mauritian school education sector as highlighted by the Quality Audit Report (TEC, 2013). More specifically, there has not been any research carried out institutionally to explore how ‘implicit and explicit considerations’ (Marsh, 2004, p. 207) come into play when a group of individuals at the MIE gets involved in curriculum designing and development of TEP. The dearth of such research, particularly in the context of teacher education, is significantly pointing to a lack of understanding of the sources of knowledge that guides developers of TEP and their potential influence on the effectiveness of curriculum goals, development and implementation.

In the existing structure for curriculum development at MIE, a Programme Committee is responsible for the design, development and review of each programme and it considers ‘input from MIE academics and the views of different stakeholders’ (TEC, 2013). The Programmes are validated at the higher instances such as the Teacher Education Committee and approved by the Academic Board of the MIE, itself chaired by the Director of the institution. Internally therefore, different cadres, including Lecturers and Heads of Department, Programme Coordinators and top management personnel, all intervene at one point to shape the programme by their own sources of knowledge.
and understanding about the curriculum (Jackson, 2002). It is also noted that in the deliberations of the different curriculum design committees at the MIE, different academics will ‘fight’ to defend their own philosophical positions with regards to the content and structure of a programme, often with little knowledge of curriculum theory, and especially in the filed of curriculum design and development. Consequently, much of what should have been an outcome of informed decision is abandoned to personal satisfaction of individuals and departmental pressures.

Given the complex nature of such processes that generally all curriculum development instances face, this study seeks to analyse the processes of curriculum development, from a curriculum foundations perspective, to generate understanding about how rational decisions and personal preferences, at different levels, work to structure teacher education.

**Literature Review**

Teacher development is seen as a continuous process in order to maintain and develop professional competence in teachers through pre-service, in-service training and on-going professional development programmes. Research indicates that professionalisation of teacher education is central to preparing teachers through well designed teacher education courses suited to the needs of the contemporary educational system (Pandey, 2011) and that “teacher education has a symbiotic relationship with school education” (Pandey, 2011, p. 4). Schulman (1987) in his research, tried to conceptualize teacher’s knowledge, thus providing a base for structuring teacher education curricula. Designing and developing programmes for teachers should therefore, take on board the above knowledge to provide a sound and well-designed curriculum adapted to the exigencies of today. These exigencies are influenced by several factors and ideologies that act as foundations to the curriculum design and development of educational programmes.

Before going further in the discussion, it is important to define the term “Curriculum design and development”. Research in this area has followed several avenues. Different researches address curriculum development and planning in diverse ways. Rogers (1999) in Marsh and Willis (2007) contend that curriculum development should embed resolving conflicting approaches between deeply held beliefs. These authors state that undertaking curriculum development should consist of six broad areas: (1) Subject matter (2) pedagogy (3) curriculum design (4) evaluation (5) organization- organizational and entrepreneurial skills and (6) writing. They argue that curriculum development should be seen as a planned activity whereby the above areas should be considered. They point out that several contextual factors drive the whole process of curriculum design and development. They further emphasise on “pressures for change and incentives to try out innovative practices that might emanate from local perceptions”. In their book, Marsh and Willis (2007) have demonstrated that planning and development of a new curriculum depends on the scale of the activity. They claim that once the new curriculum package has been developed, the next step might be that the developers disseminate it directly to individual schools where the latter might have already learned about the innovation through diffusion. In the same line of thought, Oliva (2008) highlights that curriculum development is to be seen as a process and he took Tyler model to exemplify on his views. Tyler model is mainly focused on educational objectives. His research concludes that curriculum planners should identify general objectives by gathering data from three sources: the learners, contemporary life outside school, and the subject matter. He refines his views by filtering the sources into: educational and social philosophy of the school and psychology of learning (Oliva, 2008). In this study we have made use of the framework set by
Tyler as explained by Oliva (ibid) to explore the process of curriculum development in the local context. We shall elaborate on and justify our choice in the Theoretical Framework section below.

Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) contend the traditional approach to curriculum development. They argue that when models are viewed on scientific and technical terms, they tend to overlook the human aspects of teaching and learning (Ornstein and Hunkins. 2004). Their argument is further crystallised by referring to emotions, feelings, personal attitudes, values and beliefs that are very often look down during curriculum making (ibid). Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) discuss that developmental models constrain themselves to philosophy and evaluation of learning tasks unlike in reality where social, political and qualitative judgments are influencing factors. One kind curriculum can be relevant to one situation but not to another. So, these reflections lead to an ideology whereby knowing the “technical stripe” looks nice in graphic models but how far can they be translated into real world? Reid (2001) supports the argument of Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) as he claims that “we need to go beyond rational and logical methods (traditional models)” (Ornstein and Hunkins, 2004 p. 17). Doll (1993) and Reid (2001) also believe that in “technical systems challenge and perturbation are viewed as disruptive and inefficient” (Ornstein and Hunkins, p.18). They termed open systems as dynamic, evolutionary and an experience with zest (ibid). Curriculum design is hence presented as the “way to conceptualize the curriculum and arrange its major components: subject matter or content, instructional methods, or materials, learner experiences or activities” thus providing direction and guidance in developing the curriculum. Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) claim that most curriculum writers tend to be influenced by many designs or approaches where they use bits and pieces from different designs. They ultimately end up using eclectic designs and inter-mix the ideas. It can also be seen in a different light, whereby, at times, curriculum writers advocate one approach so much that they tend to be biased by its components. For example, those who have strong psychological view of curriculum will present a different design to those who have strong behavioural or social or political views. Unlike curriculum development which tends to be technical, curriculum design is based on curricularists’ values and beliefs about education. These are additional factors that influence the whole conceptualisation of curriculum design and development. The curriculum design is largely influenced by how curriculum writer views the world and what are his/her views of education. These ideologies will culminate into the design selection. Dordelly and Short (1985) in Ornstein and Hunkins (2004), also reach the same conclusion that other domains that influence curriculum design include “…values, choices, and options as well as personal reflection and various perspectives in different contexts” (ibid, pp 19). They claim that personal and professional beliefs drive the organization of content and experiences in curriculum design and development while Walker (1990) tends to be more critical by arguing that “curricularists tend to embrace theory as an ideology” (Ornstein and Hunkins, 2004). Theoretical discussions follow the idea that curriculum theories are very often divorced from reality. Hence, choices made in curriculum with regards to the instructional designs further lead to competing versions of good curriculum. Doll (1996) views curriculum design as the parent of instructional design, and explains that curriculum is the total plan, which organizes the four components of the curriculum: objectives, content, experiences and evaluation means. He further argues that instructional design does not refer to objectives or content but they rather map out pedagogically and technologically defensible teaching methods and educational activities which according to Ornstein and Hunkins (2004), will engage student in learning the content of the curriculum. The main questions that are raised in instructional design: (1) “what teaching methods and materials can be employed to facilitate learning?” (2) “What resources will be appropriate for the particular lesson indicated in the curriculum plan?” (3) “How should we arrange our students (MIE trainee teachers, in our context) and which
students should be involved in particular activities?” (ibid). When curriculum writers actually develop curriculum, they should also make constructive decisions with regards to instructional designs within the context of curriculum.

Theoretical Framework

This study is guided by Tyler (1949) model of curriculum development as framework. The Tyler model was used as springboard to new ideas. Ralph Tyler’s model of curriculum development can be seen as one of the best known model for curriculum development as special attention is given to the planning phases. This model focuses on educational objectives and is widely known and practiced in developing curriculum (Oliva, 2005). He provided a rationale for examining problems of curriculum and instruction (Ornstein and Hunkins, 2004). He emphasised the fact that curriculum developers should define the purposes, educational experiences related to the purposes, organization of these experiences and evaluation of the purposes (ibid). He termed general objectives as purposes. He extrapolated his views by explaining that data about the general objectives are gathered from three sources: the subject matter, the learners and the society. These sources of knowledge form the foundations that influence curriculum conception and development process. The general objectives are then filtered into screens: philosophy and psychology. The results of the screen were in fact termed as specific instructional objectives.

The next step in curriculum development according to Tyler (1949) model in Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) is the selection of learning experiences that allow achievement of objectives. Tyler never emphasized on organization and sequencing of these experiences. He argued, “organizing elements (ideas, concepts, values, skills) should be woven as thread in the curriculum fabric” (Ornstein and Hunkins, 2004, p. 197). He further pointed out that these organizing elements could be used as methods of instruction or link between content and particular subjects. His last principle refers to evaluate how far the objectives were attained in terms of learning experiences. This will provide an indication of the effectiveness of the programme. Below is a diagrammatic representation of Tyler’s curriculum development model. Ralph Tyler did not make use of diagram to describe the process he proposed. However, Popham and Baker (1970) presented the ideas in a diagrammatic form as shown in Figure 13.
Figure 13: Tyler's Curriculum Development Model

The psychological screen helps to understand the nature of the learning process based on theory of learning while developing curriculum, "how learning takes place, under what conditions, what sort of mechanisms operate and the like" (Oliva, 2005 p. 130). The main significance of the psychological screens as purported by Tyler help the curriculum developer in distinguishing changes in human beings expected from the learning process, feasibility of the goals with regards to the age level, getting a better idea of the length of time required to attain the objective. Based on the philosophical and psychological factors influencing the curriculum, the objectives in behavioural terms are then stated as shown in Figure 10.

For the purpose of this research paper, the instruments used were designed and data collected and analysed through the lens of the two screens and sources. The philosophical factors or screen embrace mainly educational and social philosophy. The social philosophy can be further broken down into political and economical factors. We justify the use of this framework through our attempt to challenge taken-for-granted assumptions and practices in teacher education itself perceived ‘as a problematic and contested enterprise, troubled by enduring and value-laden questions about the purposes and goals of education in a democratic society’ (Cochran Smith, 2004, p. 295). We set to bring forth a more critical research stance to the process of curriculum design and development in the
context of teacher education, by providing empirical evidence of bridges that exist between curriculum foundations and the curriculum itself.

Methodology

This study is limited in scope, but nevertheless attempts to make an ‘information-rich’ (Gay et al., 2012, p.448) case in which the researchers and the audience can learn a great deal about the research problem. This research is designed to generate understanding on one main aspect of curriculum development, here, in the context of teacher professionalisation at a TEI. The main research question therefore is:

How do sources of knowledge influence curriculum developers in the design and development of teacher education curricula?

We chose a case study to allow the ‘use of a variety of sources, a variety of types of data and research methods’ (Denscombe, 2010, p.31) with the intention to make our research findings ‘more accurate and convincing’ (Yin, 2003 in VanWynsberghe and Khan, 2007, p.64). Questionnaires were initially used as instruments to gather data from a proportional number of respondents consisting of two groups of academics (Subject specialists and Education specialist) who are involved in curriculum development at various levels (course writer, head of department, programme coordinators, management), and in different instances (departmental, programme committees, higher management committees). We identified our respondents among those who are the usual key individuals to work on the conceptualisation and finalisation of TEP at the MIE. A purposive sampling procedure was therefore justified for this study. In the first phase, a sample of 50 respondents answered the survey questionnaires. We made use of both Likert-type closed ended questions, where respondents had to rate their level of agreement with short statements provided, as well as open ended questions. We ensured that the open ended questions carried some amount of redundancy so as to get more elaborated responses written by the respondents themselves. For triangulation of data, a focus group discussion (FGD), including a sample of 10 participants from the above groups of respondents was then carried out in the second phase. Our quest also was to obtain ‘richer data’ (Marshall and Rossman, 2011) by allowing participants the time and space to explore more deeply their experiences of curriculum development. We believe that thick data provides a stronger basis for understanding the processes from participants’ perspectives.
Data Analysis

Data have been analysed using the descriptive analytical framework (Fig 14) proposed by Litchman (2006: p167). This model uses the ‘three C’s of analysis’ - Coding, Categorising, Concepts (ibid) to identify emerging themes on the participants’ understanding.

We proceeded by reading separately and organising data in tables using pre-set codes to identify patterns of similar responses from the different tools. We made use of vignettes to extract data from open ended questions and FGD transcriptions to form major categories. Meaning was finally derived by mapping all data sets and qualitative interpretation using the selected theoretical framework.

Interpretation

The interpretation we make is structured through the theoretical lenses of Curriculum foundations as we seek to understand how personal and external sources of knowledge influence the conceptualisation process of curriculum development in the context of Teacher Education. Since the research is an insider one and that both researchers are themselves part of the institution where the research is being conducted, and lecture in the area of curriculum studies, we therefore wish to declare right at the onset that, despite our effort to be objective, our interpretation of participants’ responses may have been tinted by our own experiences.

Understanding of theories underpinning curriculum development

Data from the questionnaire showed clearly that most academics at the MIE have had little formal exposure to curriculum theory including curriculum development. Respondents who answered ‘NO’ (60 %) come from both groups of curriculum developers- Subject area and Education specialist. Responses from the FGD to the issue, however, indicated that there is amongst more experienced academics a practical understanding of curriculum development, largely in the form of an institutional structural procedure for course development. Such explicit and institutionally prescribed policy is largely based on a scientific model of curriculum development. Different authors (Tanner & Tanner, 2007; Ornstein and Hunkins, 2004) argue that traditional and technical prescription in curriculum development can lead to a fragmented understanding of the curriculum processes and ends. This is due to the absence of an informed and
common philosophical base of curriculum development. As a result, curriculum design is mechanically treated and can be biased by the competing interest of individuals. Similar competition among academics to defend their own ideas about key curriculum elements (goals, content, methods and evaluation procedures) has also been evidenced in the responses of participants at the MIE (80 % strongly agree) fuelled by their beliefs that their subject discipline is important (30 % strongly agree and 60 % agree).

Factors influencing Curriculum development in teacher education

The chart indicates the frequency of responses with regards to the factors influencing the curriculum development at the MIE. It can be remarked that the political factors are the most influential ones in the process of curriculum development. 68% agree that political factors have a large impact on curriculum design and development at the MIE. This result is further confirmed by 50% of respondents who strongly agree same.

22% of participants replied that “Institutional Policy strongly determines what to be included in TEP” followed by 18% of respondents who ascertain that “State policy always guides my idea in the development of the TEP”. This indicates that political forces are very strong determining factors. All the responses from the FGD and the Questionnaires corroborate to explain that the curriculum design and development is driven by a traditional philosophy called Perennialism with philosophical base Realism. Perennialism, according to Oliva (2005), supports the idea that the aim of education is to educate the rational person and cultivate the intellect. The respondents pointed out that curriculum development is something formal and have to be discussed at departmental level and management level in order to get more visibility in the programme. This indicates a traditional conception of education curriculum wherein the knowledge is focused on past and permanent studies; mastery of facts and timeless knowledge. Furthermore, this results support Dordelly and Short (1985) argument, “personal and professional beliefs drive the organization of content and experiences in curriculum design and development”. It shows that the curriculum design and development at the MIE is a mere reflection of professional beliefs of people writing the institutional policy. The shaping of the content and experiences is guided by the ideologies of academics who have been involved in policy decision-making or write-up at the MIE for many years and have an influential stance in curriculum development. Oliva (2005, p.24) explains that sources of curriculum principles based on common sense and intuitive approaches stem from a combination of ‘folklore, reasoned guesses and generalization from observations’. From the data it can be seen that the beliefs, attitudes and values of academics or cadres largely permeates in the TEP development at the MIE. The latter are actually shaped by the sources of knowledge and understanding of the Head of Departments and Management about curriculum and curriculum development.

These data confirms Rogers (1999) views of resolving conflicting approaches between deeply held beliefs. Two very prominent answers were"
“I will discuss my opinions in department”

"Management may not agree and change the content/approach I want to use"

It seems here that programme developers are indoctrinated by the deeply held beliefs of the influential persons at the upper hierarchy of decision-making levels.

Besides, the above data also shows an alarming response with regards to the influence of psychological foundations on curriculum design and development at the MIE. 42% of respondents agree that the way they perceive that learning highly impact on curriculum design and development followed by 30% who strongly agree. The results uncovered how the educational philosophies - perennialism, progressivism and reconstructionism - guide curriculum design and development at the MIE. More in-depth analysis of the data results in the perrennialist educational philosophy being mostly considered during curriculum design and development. The respondents reported that

“The head of department may influence/change what I want to include”.

So, this contrasting frequency in the data collected confirms the views of Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) of curriculum writers advocating one approach so much that they tend to be biased by its components, those who have strong behavioural or social or political views will produce a specific design of curriculum. A stereotyping of curriculum design and development was manifested by the opinions of the Heads and management who advocate a specific “model” of curriculum development. These highlights further confirm the large influence of policy makers in developing TEP at the MIE.

However, there were few participants who strongly agreed that a progressivist approach should be adopted for curriculum development. 19 respondents even added that with curriculum development and instructional design should put the child at the centre during curriculum development. They argued that the learner will be the end product of the chain of the development process and he/she will be the one using them afterwards. They reinforced that the development should bear in mind of the different learning styles, types of learners or even need of learners as the learners will interact with the content ultimately. These data join the Tyler model where he concluded that curriculum planners should identify general objectives by gathering data from three sources: the learners, contemporary life outside school, and the subject matter. So far, the data confirms that the psychological and political screens are predominant in curriculum development at the MIE. However, the data also reveal a very weak response with regards to the re-constructionist ideology. The academics at the MIE do not favour the ideology that the curriculum development should be geared towards shaping the individual to live in the society of tomorrow. These results were consolidated in the Focus Group interviews where 6 participants uncovered their views towards a more traditionalist ideology.

The major philosophical viewpoints that have emerged within curriculum development at the MIE may be seen along a continuum- traditional and conservative but these were not the exclusive guide for decision making in developing TEP at the MIE. There were few contrasting views while doing a cross analysis of data gathered using different methods but their frequency were relatively low in percentage.

The data reveals that out of the 50 participants, 38% agree and 30% strongly agree that philosophical factors largely impact on developing courses at the MIE compared to 17 % who disagree. This data is further analysed through the lens of the criteria set in the questionnaires as well as the pointers in the FGD. The participants
claimed that theoretical underpinning of curriculum design is essential for curriculum development. This outcome supports Walker’s (1990) views about “curricularists who tend to embrace theory as an ideology”. Most of the academics agree and strongly agree that there should be a theoretical base to be able to develop a TEP. This argument was further supported by participants in the FGD where one put forward;

“I use my understanding of the theoretical underpinning of curriculum design for developing TEP”

Further data analysis that explains the high frequency of philosophical considerations in curriculum development indicates that the academics at the MIE including HODs, Programme Coordinators, Lecturers have a strong belief that essential skills/subjects should always be at the centre of decision making with regards to curriculum design and development. In line with Jackson’s (2002) views, the respondents argue that curriculum developers should filter what is important for teachers to learn and how the subjects should be arranged in a TEP. 60% agreed that “subjects should be arranged according to separate discipline” compared to 38% who agreed that “subjects should be arranged according to an integrated approach”. These views were versed towards a more idealistic vision of curriculum development and hence adopting a “perennialist” educational philosophy. The data from the FGD also took note that academics have a strong affinity with regards to their subject/discipline. One respondent replied:

“I will defend the place of my discipline in the programme”

“I will consider department’s visibility or policy in the programme”

These responses are similar to the results incurred for the psychological and political factors influencing curriculum design and development.

This study also sought a diversity of opinions with regards to instructional design process during curriculum development. Only 20% agreed that MIE has a clear instructional process at the MIE. The large percentage of disagreement indicates an absence of a framework to develop TEP. This also means that curriculum is actually designed and developed without a clear process which is in total contradiction of Doll’s (1996) arguments on Instructional Design where he stated that Instructional Design should map out pedagogically and technologically defensible teaching methods and educational activities that engage student in learning the content of the curriculum. Looking back at the data, it can be observed that the reason for an absence of an Instructional Design process is mainly due to the dominant traditional or conservative –perennialist educational philosophy. There is the mindset that no process is needed to build up a programme. Each academic used his/her expertise of knowledge in his field or discipline to embed in TEP. This philosophy was also contained in the considerations of department views for curriculum development.

However, practically half of the respondents put forward that they are fully conversant with the process used to develop TEP at the MIE and that they will use their knowledge of Instructional Design.

The question that arises is: “How can we be conversant with the process if there is no established framework or Instructional Design process to develop TEP?"

So, this outcome reflects on the existence of a process based on knowledge and skills acquired at the MIE with regards to curriculum development but it is not a standardized one resulting in different ways to develop TEP according to various factors. It supports Dordelly and Short (1985) views of factors influencing curriculum design.
“...values, choices, and options as well as personal reflection and various perspectives in different contexts” (ibid, pp 19).

On the other hand, there is a minor group of respondents who agreed to consider cultural experiences of students in curriculum development leading to a more progressivist and reconstructionist ideology. The divergence in ideology, more specifically the weakness of the influence of the progressivist ideology in the development of TEP, might be a point for consideration while setting up a framework for developing courses at the MIE.

The study also measured the perception of the respondents with regards to sociological factors influencing curriculum development. Based on the collective results, a diversity of opinions emerged. 40% agree, 42% strongly agree compared to 26% who disagree that sociological factors influence curriculum development. This high percentage of agreement was mainly geared towards the opinion that development of TEP is a mere reflection of values and deeply held beliefs of the curriculum developer. In the FGD, they pointed out that curriculum development should adopt a more perennialistic educational ideology rather than a reconstructionist one. They extended their views by stating that HODs and the specificity of the discipline largely influence the curriculum development. However, they also argue that it is very important to consider the local/social context of the educational system while developing curriculum. On the other hand, only 18% agree that values and norms of the society are more important than subject matter knowledge. Almost same frequency could be noticed with regards to whether reconstruction of the society should be the driving agenda of our modules/programmes. The results support Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) argument of models being viewed on scientific and technical terms and tend to overlook the human aspects of teaching and learning. However, in practice it is questionable whether these ideologies can be translated into reality.

These divergences of opinions clearly indicate that there is no existing structure with regards to course development at the MIE. Each academic has his/her own belief and knowledge of curriculum development which entail in multiple ways of developing TEP at the MIE

Discussion

Interpretation of data and the interrogation of current literature set the backdrop for us to elaborate on, if not extend, the controversy about what influences curriculum development processes especially in the context of the professionalisation of teachers. The development of professional teacher education programmes has, at their core, the organisation and direction of schooling experiences for the teacher and learner. Since the years of Tyler (1949) to present years, the debate around how the curriculum developer would go about to provide the best learning experiences to students have always provoked controversy, insofar as the different values, philosophical orientations (Oliva, 2005) and the need for objectivity are to be emphasised. In our current context, where education outcomes are still characterised by student achievement and performance, the tensions between diverging philosophical orientations seems, to a large extent, to be lopsided by a conservative understanding of education despite a compelling but shy attraction towards the progressivist curriculum, as seen in our context. The conservative vision of education continues to shape the curriculum development process through both a perennial and essential approach. The place of academic disciplines often based on unsubstantiated personal biases, continue to guide curriculum developers thinking, and hence empower the traditional conception of educational
curriculum to extend its grip over teacher education. The philosophical bias, we believe, should not always be interpreted as negative, nor would the establishment of a common philosophy in curriculum development act as a shield against change or would necessarily become a way towards innovation. The key idea, as expressed by Dewey (p.380, in Tanner and Tanner, p.191), is that there is a need for the curriculum developer in this context, to show open-mindedness about ones’ own beliefs and its implications with regards to the higher goals of education and to show sensitivity to perceptions of often conflicting alternative pathways to achieve these goals. We argue here that the intangible and highly flexible philosophies and the use of ‘hard’ procedures are not incompatible and are often desirable. We agree that curricularists generally live in the ideal worlds of education and in practice the ideals rarely works. Nonetheless, the traditional approach to curriculum development, if chosen or imposed, should be informed by a deep socio-political understanding to provide a holistic dimension to the curriculum. In the absence of a sound curriculum knowledge base, the recipe approach of what curriculum developers at the MIE call the ‘rigid’ model will continue to highly influence curriculum development to effect as a perilous ‘patching cutting, adding…and troubleshooting’ (Oliva, 2005, p.36) exercise, to satisfy both the recipe and the personal experiences of the ‘cooks’. An understanding of the foundations of the curriculum therefore should be no more a matter of tacit knowledge or left to be filtered by disputable personal and professional screens. The exteriorisation and codification of such knowledge and filters should provide a crucible for mixing the right dosage of contextual ingredients from which an effective process of curriculum development would emerge.

Conclusion

This study aimed at exploring how different sources of knowledge influence curriculum development in the context of teacher education at a TEI. We built our case as insider researchers to interview different academics who are involved in various ways in teacher education curriculum development tasks at our institution. We used the theory of curriculum foundations to frame the generation and interpretation of data. Findings revealed that there is a lack of understanding of the bases of curriculum on the part of curriculum developers. The process thus is highly influenced by institutional policy, through the use of an unclear traditional procedure of curriculum development and most prominently through different and often contradictory philosophical positioning of the curriculum developers. This research suggests that, in the given context, conservative forces still guide to a large extent teacher education curriculum. It also points to the need for the development of an institutionalised philosophical base grounded in objective knowledge from empirical data, theoretical knowledge and practical experience, to make explicit and discuss biases and understandings in an informed way for a more effective curriculum.

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School management: theoretical training in confrontation with practice

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In this article we portrayed a research conducted by the Group of Study and Interdisciplinary Training (GEFI-PROPP / UFMS / CNPq), in which we focused in the discussions the issue of primary schools management, given the context of the municipality of Três Lagoas in, in the state of Mato Grosso do Sul. Through extension projects the GEFI develops continuing education in partnership with university administrators, educational coordinators, teachers as well with mentees of graduation and postgraduate programs. The present study aims to analyze training activities conducted by GEFI and its implications in school management and in planning the curriculum proposal in time and space of basic education intitutions of Três Lagoas / MS. We use as methodology the collaborative action research, which allowed to the researchers the development of knowledge, through a process of formation and action that led to the awareness on the problems and conditions of social interests of the research subjects, glimpsing possibilities of contributions through action, policy and professional practice. The research results revealed that despite the democratic management integrate the brazilian scene for over ten years, it is still not fully effective due the theoretical gaps and the difficulty of drawing up collective work strategies. However, from the data collected through a questionnaire and statements recorded in GEFI meetings, we can conclude that there has been progress in the context in which the research group was inserted and, the new knowledge acquired during the training process led managers to a leadership commit to promote the participation of the school community in pedagogical meetings (revealed as planned), organize and plan the curriculum proposal to the reality of the school community. The knowledge provided by the research on school management and function before school organization, especially in the mediation of curriculum pedagogical proposal and its significance for education has shown us that, in the municipal context, there are ways to do (read, produce, speak, organize), ways to use that weave the networks of real actions. They are creative experiences potentialized in new learning, behaviors and values beyond the officially expected and supposed.

Keywords: School management, Pedagogical coordination, Basic education.

We live in the beginning of the second decade of the XXI century, period were it was expected the full development of policies triggered by the reforms in education initiated in the 1990s. But not all the goals have been achieved yet. The guidelines issued by the political discussions and the constitutional principles for education were integrated into the central ideas of the Law of Directives and Bases of National Education (LDBEN nº. 9.394/1996).

The democratic management, that is already part of the Brazilian landscape for over ten years and with wide circulation, still hasn't been fully effected, remaining theoretical gaps and the difficulty of working collectively, to plan according to each reality and level of education. It is in this perspective that the proposal of the Studies Group and Interdisciplinary Training (GEFI) proposes studies through extension and research project linking the university and its Pedagogy course training, the line of research; Education, Psychology and Educational Practice of the PhD
Program and Master in Education/UFMS for reflection of practicing managers and other professionals in the Department of Education in the city of Três Lagoas/MS.

In the Organization of the project were participating university professors, graduating students, master and Phd's mentees, which also develop study plans, preparation of dissertation and thesis. Successive actions are planned every year since 2006, reaching the point of this work ended in 2014. All planning of study group's actions are focused on the issues of school management and stems from the request of the participants after completion the annual project.

The interdisciplinary approach allows us to consolidate a course of action for the partnership, promote and support cooperation and seek innovative experiences to an constantly renewed everyday. The studies approach recurring themes of education policy standardized in laws, the theories in the field of school administration with emphasis on democratic governance, the autonomy, the curriculum political pedagogical project, the organs of collective decision (School Boards, APM), financing of education, social inclusion and the applicants pedagogical practices to these issues.

It is observed that in the field of school management, whether in the public or private system, where policies gain concreteness, there is a gap between the ideal when it comes to decentralization, autonomy, curriculum proposal to the actual practice exercised. On the other hand, the actors who play the roles in school management sometimes have extensive experience and practice as a director, while others are just starting in this role.

In this article we guide the discussion deduced from the studied reality, for school management and its implications in planning the curriculum proposal, the routine work of the director and/or pedagogical coordinator of elementary school, in which the majority of the subjects participants act with Early Childhood Education and Elementary school.

We present from issues raised by the group, the assignments and therefore the role of leaders in the planning and realization of curricular pedagogical proposal. Does the director coordinates? Participates? The pedagogical coordinator has a preponderant role in leading human resources (teachers) in the preparation of the proposal and its implementation. How they conduct this process? Revisiting the theory of school organization, management and the role of the management team, enables participants (managers / teachers / academics) to analyze the process itself in which they conduct the planning, the question of the paradigm, the demands of a new social practice of education, principles, values and priorities of democratic management.

The methodology founded by collaborative action research allows knowledge, mediated by questions about the role of managers in the complex task of managing the human and material resources of educational institutions. In this respect the epistemological resource followed is the interdisciplinary prioritizing each participant to reflect on their performance, historical background, daily actions, to discuss and carry out exchanges of experience in order to be reviewed as a manager, teacher, pedagogical coordinator or even as a student/scholar. They are determining factors for the complexion and constitution of their teaching profession allied to their training and life experience.
Objective

- To analyze training activities of the Study Group and Interdisciplinary Training (GEFI) and its implications for school management and planning of the curriculum proposal.

Methodology and training process: Path revisited

It is the role of the Study Group, to provide for the participants the rescue of experiences reflecting on the challenges and everyday conflicts like those involved in school management on the function of directors, pedagogical coordinators and teachers. New ways of conducting the school, its project, the pedagogical proposals are not made, they are born of dreams, of will, of the courage of those who daily labors in the school ground, and have the humility to admit that not everything they know, or they know nothing. By the will of its actors the management and its meanderings can be reviewed if the scenario where it happens is meticulously careful.

This formative project has the purpose of promoting moments of theoretical and deepening confrontation with the experienced practices, to rescue the stories of experienced directors, coordinators, teachers and students participating. The stories lived show that is not just a product of culture and learning, but they are also products of the practical actions of each subject involved with the management. It is common anywhere in the world, whether in tribal societies as in the most evolved ones, people spend most of their time engaged in an imaginary world, testing possibilities from plots and world reading. However, the institutional work can not be founded only on empiricism and unreasonable analysis but in knowledge that integrates science/theory and humanities.

The evolution of the human being occurs in the process of creating, reading and storytelling - the story of others, their own history, and these acts are similar to the simulators that pilots prepare in the ground to meet the real adverse conditions in the air. The studies wheels in the training process are also similar strategies to those 'flight' simulators where the stories told by participants on their historical background, their experiences, faced adversities provide clues about the best way to act in several situations and how to overcome the conflicts of everyday life linked to the theory that permeates studies.

When interdisciplinarity guides the action rather than a speech, it incorporates a practical activity in which the theory is presented as a dimension of action that does not clarifies itself just for become effective. Being human is intentional and not always transparent. What we argue in the interdisciplinary process of thinking and living is its characteristic motivated by self training - one of its epistemological assumptions - as a strategy to reflect on themselves and the everyday actions engendered in the historical background and in order to review their work. It is a process of building autonomy of self that is centered on the person or group, supported in the collective. It is a personal power by which each builds meanings feeling themself; that is, reflecting the formation trajectory, not only initially, but in life.

To Josso, (1999, p. 11) "the concern of giving the work on and with the subjectivity of a hermeneutical status by producing the same movement" provides "[...] an understanding of the construction process of self and generalizable knowledge for its usage value ".

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The approximation of the university with the professionals working in the school such as: directors, coordinators and teachers represent a privileged methodological alternative both for research and for action on the personal development of participants and working conditions.

The need for conceiving the participants as 'dilemmas managers' subjects of a practice and knowledge that need to be analyzed in light of their personal and professional development is observed. Mediated by working conditions, values and social context the concepts that accumulate are crucial to any attempt to transform the school. The exchange of life and training experiences as a teacher or manager motivates exercise opportunities for innovative practices within the school.

The emergence of reflective critical approach brings new alternatives to initiate and consolidate changes arising from new learnings and ways to intervene in the educational process covering not only teachers but also managers, students and family. Thereby, it seeks to establish the possible confluences to organize the studies, since we are aware of the fragmented way that are structured the school curricula, the functional and rational logic that the government and the private sector use to organize its technical and teaching staff.

Add up also the resistance of educators when asked about the limits, the importance and relevance of the discipline they minister or the specialist work they do. Whether in the work of school leader or teaching, education deals with social actors in their relationship with the environment and themselves as builder of the history and collective human history. This requires working with decisions about the future and within the limits of the possibilities that this offers for youself and the collective that is inserted.

From the perspective of qualitative research, the programmed actions are based on the collaborative approach by "giving potential that assists the theoretical thinking, strengthens the action and opens paths to personal and professional development" (IBIAPINA, 2008, p. 55). According to this guideline it will be necessary to experience the space and the time spent with participants and share their experiences to properly reconstruct the meaning that social actors give them (applied research).

It also advocates the deliberate involvement of the researcher in ideological and political confrontations of society and the manifesto engagement with subordinate class fractions. It is a process of formation and action that should cause awareness raising about the problems and conditions of social interests. The researcher, identified organically with life and the social interests of research subjects can contribute in action, political and professional activities.

In this way since 2006, and in subsequent years, it has developed into fortnightly meetings, previously planned sometimes with workshops, sometimes lectures, films, roundtables and other resources studies about management/early childhood education, primary and secondary, pedagogical coordination, participation in collegiate bodies, funding, distribution of money in school, choice of leaders, evaluation and technology in the school environment. Included in these themes have emerged scientific research, course conclusion work, major in early childhood education, master's theses, doctoral thesis and conference papers.
Discussion: The school culture and management space for curriculum planning

As we pointed out education reforms spread in Brazil have suggested different ways of school organization, curriculum reform with job offers where is contextualized content and endorses the interdisciplinary boundaries to integration experiences between knowledge. One of the changes is how the school administration term has been replaced by school management, a trend which can be identified from the late 1980s and early 1990s, both in educational legislation and the theoretical area productions. The guidelines issued by the political discussions and constitutional principles for education were integrated into the central ideas of the Law of Guidelines and Bases of National Education (LDBEN), Federal Law nº. 9.394/1996.

The Federal Law nº. 9394/1996 incorporates in its article 3 the principle of democratic management of public education, also provided in the Federal Constitution of 1988. In its article 14, establishes that the rules of this principle are defined by education systems in accordance with its peculiarities based on the participation of education professionals in the preparation of school education program and the participation of school and local community in school boards or equivalent.

For Ferreira & Aguiar (2009) management is founded and produced according to the paradigm proposed for the Brazilian education with a clear vision of citizenship construction whether for early childhood education, primary, secondary or higher. The abandonment of school administration term in favor of school management term is an important issue to be discussed, because as Gracindo (1997)

[…] By identifying the change of focus that favors or discards some terms, we educators have the duty to stop, analyze and acquire awareness of the real meaning of these terms of political sense to them underlying, the engine of these proposals and the new-old problems that are creating for our society, and only then set the way forward. (GRACINDO, 1997, p. 17-18).

This discussion is needed because there is a fragile and ambiguous conceptual distinction, from a theoretical and practical point of view, the use of these two terms in different countries and contexts and this conceptual weakness between administration and management makes debatable the grounds of a "model" of management. (BARROSO, 2003).

According to Felix (1984) the term management is associated with democratic forms of school organization while administration is accompanied by the idea of something authoritative. According to the author the valid administrative models are emphasized to ensure the efficiency of the school system in a capitalist society and can be understood as a capitalist control mode on organizations of legal, political and cultural institutions.

On the other hand the government of a bureaucratic nature is concerned with offering education according to the amount of demand, and to this is added the supposed quality with controlling characteristic by which restricts the formal curriculum content by limiting the freedom of choice to educational institutions. The functionalist structural concept focused on 'commodity production' must be analyzed from the perspective of social, political, economic and cultural conditions of the political plan for a comprehensive knowledge of the entire educational process.

Under another investigative line Krausz (1991) states that the changes that have occurred in society indicate the need to rethink the individual and seeking fairer forms of coexistence based on interdependence, sensitivity, cooperation and respect. This means reshape organizations, its structures, its functioning and its philosophy of action in order to put the human being as the central focus of attention.
The new conception considers fundamental a leadership that do not use the hierarchical structure as a walking stick and that values cooperation. If we take the management of education as the "administrative contextualized political process, through which the social practice of education is organized and made viable" (BORDIGNON & GRACINDO, 2009, p. 147), the reorganization of the relationships in schools gains crucial relevance.

The study of educational policy, namely the school management as well as the theory of supervision and educational administration refers to view the school as an organization, in that it is constituted as a social unit of 'human groups intentionally built' (CHIAVENATO, 1983).

This same perspective, remind us Tardif & Lessard (2005) that school organizations in addition to the strictly instrumental and bureaucratic logic, presents the logic of the movement of human resources for the services provided and the work of interaction that result from it. When we can look at individuals and groups in school, organizing interactively with deliberate nature to systematize the actions collectively involving the governing body, we are contemplating a democratic management.

According to Bordignon & Gracindo, (2009, p. 150) "management transforms goals and objectives into actions giving concreteness to political action." It is important to 'review' and 'transview' educational policies, expressed by laws, decrees and instructional texts. Following the line of thought of the authors mentioned above it is observed that little has changed in the management that sometimes develops in the school, since we live in the "educational concept that derives from the positivist rational paradigm, in which the relationship between subject and object is seen fragmented" (IBIDEM, p. 151).

The reorganization of management requires to change the centralized character of relations of the administration making it more democratic, sustained in more egalitarian basis on which the professionals who work in it can effectively occupy the space in collective decisions. For Silva Jr (2002) the pedagogical project supposes the existence of conditions for collective work. Should result of discussion and agreement among all school workers about the desired future for the institution and its actors. This action is an essential element for the construction of school autonomy.

It is anticipated that the proposed curriculum is developed in each context in line with national curriculum guidelines in collective decision making. In this sense, managers must plan the use of time to coordinate the proposed plan to be developed during the school year in view of the personal skills, considering the physical space and other resources available and advantageously contemplate one consistent curriculum with the reality experienced (PREEDY et. al., 2006, p. 97).

Factors such as purpose, teaching resources, internal relations are factors that differ from social organizations from business organizations, once the personal interrelations of the educational process go on the horizontal axis understanding humans (students and teachers) as unique, distinct from each other, equal only to themselves with fairness in the pursuit of social inclusion.

[...] organizations are always people in social interaction, and because the school actors always have a margin of relative autonomy, even when school autonomy is not legally enshrined and formally recognized and substantiated. And so, the school actors are not limited to systematic and full compliance with the rules hierarchically established by others, they don't just play a game with rules given a priori,
they play it with the strategic ability to selectively apply the rules available and even invent and build new rules [...] (LIMA, 2011, p. 103). (Emphasis added).

In view of this they play with their own rule and the autonomy derives from both the personal characteristics as working conditions. Autonomy exists from the role that professionals / managers play together in pairs, in the articulation of the actions developed. It seems clear that autonomy is built at the confluence space between different people, space in which they confront or balance the views and under conditions that allow individual freedom in favor of the school community. As the school is a collective space, the process of winning autonomy requires change, investment and responsibility of all on the implementation of the educational proposal. Implies working with the differences, confront and resolve conflicts.

Disagreements are healthy and it provides advance if granted common space where ideas can be presented and discussed to reach the consensus. The construction of a participatory process takes a lot of work, the group's knowledge and dialogue among those involved in schools. Participation is the road to conquest autonomy, because through it develops the ability to think and propose alternatives. To this whole process is needed leadership and effective performance of competent professionals to support the work and to know how to mediate relationships and personal interactions at all times covering; the pedagogical proposal, the management of disciplines and fields of study and the appropriate administrative process (VEIGA, 1996).

This requires attitude and changes that facilitate participation in daily practices expressed at school. As stressed Paro (2003, p. 25), democracy as a universal value and practice of mutual collaboration between groups and individuals is a “globalizing process, which should tend to involve every individual in the fullness of his personality. There can be no full democracy without democratic people to exercise it.

There are evidences that the truly educational processes lead to creative and participatory development of each individual condition and require time for reflection. The difficulty to cause the intrinsic motivation regarding the collaboration and the possibilities of understanding and comprehension emerge because of the urgency of results that the society of markets, also present at school is demanding. It is according to the school's training needs that will shape the profile of the professionals working in it. A return to these interveners provides to rethink logic and values that govern the school organization and mobilize its components.

In much of the critical literature on educational policies points to school decentralization and neoliberal creation establishing a relationship between the participative educator and changes in social policy; whether in the administrative legal field to govern; whether in the field of education, which tends to use and orchestrate the multitude of management experts and making the curriculum a new taken field decisions as a strategy that calls for the participation and shared decisions, and investing in collaborative and participatory identity of the worker (MATA, 1999).

On the other hand, the culture that creates the existence and the model propagated to the school is settled in contributions of neoliberalism, globalization, new technologies and the called postmodernity causing changes in production and corporate sectors. Education is seen as an artifact to achieve the so publicized postmodernity. From the perspective of quality of education, we face the binomial cost benefit identified as a way to achieve increasing levels of productivity, achieved with the adoption of efficient management techniques (CRUZ, GARCIA & BAHIA, 2009, p. 66).
On the other hand, the underlying current paradigm of management theory, the total quality model, determines decision making and support in collegiate forms and dirigisme. It is noticed that the practices and interaction relationships developed in schools can delineate new ways of the doing in relation to manage material, human and pedagogical resources. So the intermediation of these aspects requires dialogue, partnerships, and therefore participation.

As pointed out by Catani & Gutierrez (2003, p. 71) "participation is based on the exercise of dialogue between the parts". This communication takes place in general "between people with different backgrounds and skills, ie between agents with different skills to build a collective and consensual plan of action"

It is in this perspective that the people who work in school perform education actions, although they don't have the same responsibilities or act equally. In order for the school to achieve the formative dimension in the classroom, where they materialize the definitions on policies and planning that companies set for themselves, will be necessary to rely on the effectiveness of their pedagogical proposal. Is imponderable the importance of classroom activities and teachers in conducting educational proposal, but the effectiveness of their work can be reduced if they don't have the vision of the entire national education system, state and municipal and curriculum guidelines underlying pedagogical proposal system to which they belong.

According to Libâneo, Oliveira & Toschi (2011, p. 297) policies, curriculum guidelines, forms of organization of the education system "are loaded with social and political meanings which strongly influence the ideas, attitudes, ways of acting and behavior of teachers and students as well as the organizational and curricular teaching practices". There are situations where the pedagogical proposal is conditioned to follow a prior planning of school contents for each subject and series, coming from ready programs adopted by municipalities. The school, through its collective human resources can respond to that when the curriculum, teaching culture, teaching processes and learning do not lend themselves to reproduce the dichotomies and inferiorization of the students of the working class in their experience and knowledge valuing their work.

The way the school is organized and the demands made by the system itself make it difficult to build a democratic / participative paradigm. Some mediators that come up in daily lives of professionals / managers, being common the "[...] Dissatisfaction to compare what they would like with what they can do [...]" (CLEMENTI, 2001, p. 61). If the school administration pushes for purely instrumental goals or instrumental rationality to achieve effectiveness in the imposition of a hierarchical structure and learning from fragments of information, will emerge complaints from teachers who speak of unrealizable dreams and realities unsatisfactory.

But this should not be imperative in the management actions because "[...] seek to overcome those particular interests (while taking them into account), with a view to collective goals such as better education and establishment of democratic relations in school life" (PARO, 2003, p. 21) it is the role of leadership in the complex practice of making management more participatory. The political pedagogical project, for example, for being the instrument that represents the values that permeates the school reality, establishes the ways in which the school organizes the pedagogical work and should merge planned and emergent strategies. There are challenges to highlight which will be visible to the subject, the good experiences and frustrations that happen at school - Perhaps due to the uniqueness of how they think and exercise education.
Changes shows up as difficult because it demands teamwork and taking responsibility. It becomes even more difficult when one understands the complexity that involves a school. This institution there are different people from various social origins, cultures, with views that sometimes differ, sometimes converge in one direction. What requires a closer 'look' to the school reality and situations that there are triggered, often contradictory and ambiguous.

Results

We infer the context in which the group's research is inserted that there have been advances, new knowledge that led managers to an embedded leadership in promoting the participation of the school community in pedagogical meetings (revealed as being planned), organize and plan the curriculum proposal to the reality of the school community.

School boards still find it difficult to count on the participation of its components falling back to the director a higher burden of responsibility. It is also known the limitations in technological resources facilities for schools of the educational system and, there is yet a big resistance from teachers in the use of these resources for the learning of their students.

The interdisciplinary nature of workshops led participants to get creative ideas such as: patchwork quilts, panels and vivid representations of reality staged in group at their schools recently viewed in a seminar organized by the Municipal Education and Culture of Três Lagoas/MS (SEMEC) for primary education and early childhood education like: The Educational Practices Forum of Basic Education and the Seminar of Early Childhood Education.

In Três Lagoas/MS due to population growth in the last 10 years with the installation of cellulose and derivatives industries has increased the number of children being attended by the municipal system, which required increased physical network and human resources, but still does not satisfy the demand especially in early childhood education.

On the other hand, the management of children's institutions, seen by many as tutored by politicians, has been discussed by labor unions and has passed since the year 2012 by statutory transformation, thereby locking elections for the post of Director of Early Childhood Education Centers (IEC). In the case of institutions of elementary school of the municipal system, the leaders are elected by the school community in the same way as they do in the state system for primary and secondary levels.

The brief overview of the context in which we conducted studies and research leads us to rethink the logic and values that structure the curriculum organization and conditions as the role of school management from a system that already has its pedagogical proposal for early childhood education, primary and secondary levels.

The dip in the reality reveals the everyday practice in school administration, how to plan and conduct educational proposal and conception they have about society, education policy, education and oneself as their ability to perform the function manager, being director or teaching coordinator. For Frigotto (2008), the challenge is to develop the individual and collective training to reading of reality, opposing the simplifications and distortions of ideological hegemony apparatus of the ruling class.
In this sense the project of continuing education, about which we describe in this article, makes room to review the professional development, individual performance and the interrelations in the group and the successful and unsuccessful practices. It is proposed to regain the experienced and capture its movement to think and talk about the practice in confrontation with the theory, so that participants can understand the school management in the differences and inequalities arising from the organization conditions, the educational process, the school subject, materials and methods as the culture of social actors, their views and knowledge in the school context.

From the perspective of pedagogical practice of each one will be necessary to find out the personal ambiguities (ideas, concepts, values) in what we have in common and different about the whole historical experience and training. It is in the school ground which weaves and builds citizenship and education and that constitutes subjects capable of transformations. The democratic form of education is crucial and should not be confused with democratism. (FRIGOTTO, 2008). In this process it is highlighted the importance of school management that has a decisive role in interrelations with the material and human resources, both ethically and politically, preserving the basic social rights of its students, as opposed to neoliberal ideas.

The knowledge provided by research on school management and function on school organization, especially in mediating the curriculum pedagogical proposal and its significance for education shows us that there are ways to make (read, produce, speak, organize), ways to use that weave, networks of real actions.

The perceived under different looks show sometimes mere repetition of a pre-established social order and explained in the abstract, and sometimes there are multiple possibilities for change innovative curriculum proposals to redesign the teacher-student relations reviewing values, knowledge and intervention possibilities. They are creative experiences potentiated in new learning, behavior and values beyond the expected and officially supposed.

References


The organization of the curriculum through projects approach in Early Childhood Education: Challenges to teacher training

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The present article is part of an ongoing master's research, and aims to discuss the curriculum organization of early childhood education by projects, contributions and challenges of this proposal for reflective practice and teacher training. For this, was taken as reference to curriculum proposal the National Curriculum Framework for Early Childhood Education (RCNEI) which assumes the organization of curriculum content by the approach for projects that include multiple languages. In the qualitative research, we used the bibliographic research and conducted a semi-structured interview with teachers who work with children between four and five years old in early childhood education, in a federal public school in the city of Uberlândia, in Minas Gerais. We appealed to Bardin (2009) to perform content analysis present in the speeches of the interviewed teachers. Preliminary results of the research have elucidated that the organization of early childhood education curriculum by projects, stimulate the development of children through meaningful activities that approaches multiple languages; favors autonomy, interaction, dialogue and initiation to the world of research by the teacher and children. This approach can also contribute to teaching reflection about their practice with children, moving towards a redefinition process of action and mediation in the teaching and learning process. We highlight the current challenge to teacher training, more specifically, the Early Childhood Education teacher, in order to envision the development of interdisciplinary approach and the process of action-reflection-action, such as guiding the teaching practice.

Keywords: Curriculum; Early Childhood Education; Projects; Teacher training.

Introduction

The present article is part of an ongoing master's research, and aims to discuss the curriculum organization of early childhood education by projects, contributions and challenges of this proposal for reflective practice and teacher training. This research was motivated by our professional work, in which we had the opportunity to work with the project approach in the context of early childhood education, from 2009 to 2015 in the city of Uberlândia, in the state of Minas Gerais.
During the project work with the children, there were concerns with respect to various aspects such as: What is the importance of the project approach in the curriculum from kindergarten reframing process? What is the role of the teacher and child in the completion of projects? How they should be structured? From these issues, came up the discussion on interdisciplinary practice, and the contribution of education and training for professional development and reflective activity.

For this, was taken as reference to curriculum proposal the National Curriculum Framework for Early Childhood Education (RCNEI) which assumes the organization of curriculum content by the approach for projects that include multiple languages.

In the qualitative research, we used the bibliographic research and conducted a semi-structured interview with teachers who work with children between four and five years old in early childhood education, in a federal public school in the city of Uberlândia, in Minas Gerais. We appealed to Bardin (2009) to perform content analysis present in the speeches of the interviewed teachers.

In this trial we present preliminary research notes and the results of bibliographic research conducted, in which we demonstrate the relevance of practice with projects in Early Childhood Education, as a generating possibility of reflexive attitude of teachers around the child’s characteristics.

**Objectives**

- To discuss the curriculum organization of early childhood education by projects and the contributions and challenges of this proposal for reflective praxis and teacher training.

**Methodology**

We adopted as methodology the qualitative nature of research. One of the characteristics of this method is the need to "Carry out comparative classifications in which will be identified proportion, degree or intensity of a certain phenomenon" (LEITE, 2008, p.100). According to Chizzotti (2003, p. 229) qualitative research aims to investigate the phenomenon in the context of its occurrence, apprehending the subjects "in the natural environment in which they live, in their interpersonal and social interactions, in which they elaborate the meanings and build reality."

According to Bogdan & Biklen (1994), in qualitative research the researcher is their main instrument. In this type of research it matters more the process than simply the results and products. Thereby, qualitative researchers are concerned with the context, understanding that actions are best understood if "observed in their usual environment of occurrence" so "the sites have to be understood in the context of the history of the institutions to which they belong. (BOGDAN & BIKLEN, 1994, p.48). Minayo (2003, p. 21) points out that this kind of research responds to particular issues, and is concerned with a level of reality that can not merely be quantified as "works with the universe of meanings, motives, aspirations, beliefs, values, attitudes, which responds to a deeper space of relationships, processes and phenomena that can not be reduced."
Qualitative research favors by portraying the process of human relations in its dynamics, interaction and interpretation. Helps in understanding the phenomena related to the school routine, providing a link between theory and practice.

At first this qualitative study used the bibliographic research, seeking to know what has been produced on the subject under study. Oliveira (2012) argues that the bibliographic research is a form of study that examines works, articles or documents which are collected directly from a scientific source. With that the researcher is led to be in direct contact with their subject of study, to create concepts and theoretically substantiate their research, through the productions of other authors.

In a second phase of the research we will perform a semi-structured interview, with teachers who work with children between four and five years old in Early Childhood Education, in a federal public school in the city of Uberlândia, in Minas Gerais, in which we acted as teachers from 2009 to 2015. According to Ludke & André (1986), one of the biggest advantages of semi-structured interview is its flexibility. The interviewer is able to encourage the investigated to provide more complete information, that is, deepen some questioned points, besides to allow corrections and adjustments that become effective in obtaining the desired information.

We resort to Bardin (2009) to perform content analysis present in the speeches of the interviewed teachers. In the intention of unveiling the universe of meanings, beliefs, values, concepts and attitudes, added to the scope of relationships, processes and phenomena experienced by the research subjects, the content analysis is of great value. This kind of methodological theoretical approach will allow us to perform the reading of the messages contained in the statements and materials analyzed of the subjects, making it possible to identify and highlight the in speeches, the most frequent and highlighted speeches, and then realize possible inferences, through a critical and rigorous review of the researcher. Our intention with this is to reveal what is hidden, imbricated in the subjects manifest content, going beyond appearances and what is laid, transcending an understanding that unveil the context and network of relationships in which there is production of messages subjects.

However, as pointed out in the introduction, we present in this article the first stage of the research. Therefore, we portray in the item hereafter the data obtained in the bibliographic research and actions triggered in the investigated field.

**Discussion**

Preschool education is understood in Brazil, according to the Law of Guidelines and Bases of National Education 1996 (LDBEN – Lei nº 9.394/96) as the first stage of basic education. Thereby it aims to ensure the full development of the child, complementing the action of the family and community, involving the care and education.

From this perspective, this level of education becomes a challenge to professionals working in it, to curricular organization and training of teachers, as the context brought by the children must be understood and studied with seriousness and commitment. Working with project methodology in Early Childhood Education can enrich the experiences of both the children, and the teacher, since both have the opportunity to socialize and create your knowledge during the stages of work. Furthermore, this form of curriculum organization enables teachers to discern meaningful activities that address both the aspect of caring for the child, as their cognitive, emotional, cultural and social development.
However this work requires teacher sensitivity, daring and a reflective attitude, so one knows to intervene enabling effective mediation in the teaching and learning process route. In project work the teacher should encourage and challenge the children with enriching situations ensuring them a grounded development process with different knowledge and values.

First we will understand what a project is. Nogueira (2011, p. 30) using the Aurélio dictionary, elucidates that the term project is originated from the latin word *projectu* "[...] 'Released forward', and referred to: Idea that forms to execute or do something in the future; plan, intention, purpose. Development to be carried out within a certain scheme. Sketch or risk of work to be done; Plan."

Bomtempo (2000, p. 7) understands the project as a work methodology which aims to organize students towards pre-established goals collectively by students and teachers, with a core of methodical procedures of medium or long term. Thereby the project "stands as an educational intervention proposal which gives the activity of learning a new direction."

Considering this concept, we can understand that a project is a road under construction where numerous steps are taken so that in the future is achieved the desired result, requiring in its turn the planning of actions to be triggered. In education, the project can be the foundation of knowledge, where learners go through steps forming the skeleton of the desired object and from this research, exchange ideas and experiences therefore winning the final result, in this case: learning.

The emergence of the Project Pedagogy, is linked to the educational movement of the New School, established in the late nineteenth century to the twentieth century, which included the participation of several educators from Europe and North America, expanding to other continents, including Brazil. The School movement, played an important role in severely question the traditional school, the conception of children, teaching and learning, as well as the organization of education systems and their fragmented curricula.

One of the New School precursors was Dewey (1859-1952), who thought the education as a life process, in this sense, to the scholar the school must represent real life for students, offering them active experiences. Dewey (2002, p. 43-45) sees the child as an active being, center under which must mobilize the educational process. And the teacher in this sense is understood as a facilitator and supervisor of the teaching and learning process. The teacher in this aspect should therefore organize activities according to the interests of the children, leading them to certain objectives, and guide and channel these interests through "criticism, questions and suggestions" allowing them to develop various skills. Thereby it was already raised the need for globalization of teaching materials around a topic of students interest, seeking to consider and develop the creativity of them.

Barbosa & Horn (2008) point Dewey and his follower Kilpatrick (1964) as the main representatives of project pedagogy, and also Decroly (1871-1932) who created grounded in this aspect the proposal of interest centers in Belgium. In Brazil there is the proposed "Themes Generators" idealized by Paulo Freire in the late 1960s, for adult literacy, which recommended the choice of significant themes from the students experience that constitute the programmatic content.

The term "Project Pedagogy", according to Barbosa & Horn (2008), emerged in 1908 in the United States in the Chicago experimental school, which ascribed the primary duty of the school, assist and understand the world through research, debate and problem solving, should occur constant interrelationship between school activities
and the needs and interests of children and the community in which they live. However, some difficulties were encountered:

In the early twentieth century, there were several attempts to implement the projects in American schools, but there were two major obstacles. First, the fact that the traditional conception of the school program is a long list of mandatory content, fragmented, previously defined, uniform, and authoritatively charged. Second, the need to predict the duration of the projects even before their execution, that is, control over time. The attempt to overcome these difficulties has generated a new way of organizing the teaching, called teaching units, rather disclosed in Brazilian education, especially in normal courses and textbooks. The most disastrous consequence of this was the fact that important elements of the project pedagogy were forgotten and misinterpreted. According to Lourenço Filho (1929), the pedagogical approach of working through projects turned into a didactic unit, controlling issues and conducting times, giving more power to the adults in the organization and activities proposition. (BARBOSA & HORN, 2008, p. 18-19).

We realized in our teaching practice that the difficulties above, are yet present in the current educational context. The question of the centrality of the educational process from the fixed curriculum, normatized and disciplined, and lack of time to carry out projects are still present arguments used to reject the viability of a guided teaching in this form of work. Like this are formed challenges to overcome.

We understand that the curriculum resizing is something essential in today's society, where there is a large core of information available to all, but as stressed Morin (2000), we need to transform information into knowledge. However, knowledge alone is constituted as such when it is organized, related to the information and immersed in the context of these. Morin (2000) reports that, today, the school teaches to 'isolate objects (their natural environment), separate disciplines (instead of recognizing their correlations) and dissociate the problems, instead of merging and integrating'. I.e. the school reduces the complex to simple, separates what is connected, decompose and don't recompose, it eliminates the contradictions and disorders, which we find ourselves challenged to overcome daily.

This discussion opens up the question of interdisciplinary practice. Thiessen (2008, p. 550), points out that although the issue of interdisciplinarity is present both in forming agencies and schools, especially in discussions of educational proposal and the political-pedagogical project of the institutions, "The challenges to overcome the dicotomizador reference and installments in the reconstruction and socialization of knowledge that guides the practice of educators are still huge." In the globalized world, we ensure also the need to think about the curricular organization in an interdisciplinary and global way. The project work is one of the ways of achieving this, because it requires teachers to take an interdisciplinary approach as theory and attitude, and develop reflective praxis, giving new meaning to their "educational work in terms of curriculum, methods, content, assessment and in the forms of organization of environments for learning" (THIESSEN, 2008, p.553).

We understand like Hernandez & Ventura (1998) that, the proposed project work is linked to the prospect of global and relational knowledge,

This type of articulation of school knowledge is a way of organizing the teaching and learning activity that implies to consider that such knowledge does not ordain for your understanding rigidly, not because of some pre-established disciplinary referrals or a homogenization of students. The project is meant to favor
the creation of organizational strategies of school knowledge regarding: 1) processing of information, 2) the relationship between the different content around the problem or hypotheses that facilitate students to build their knowledge, the transformation of information coming from different disciplinary knowledge for their own knowledge. (HERNANDES & VENTURA, 1998, p. 61).

Therefore we believe that the organization of the curriculum for work projects is a possibility of intervention and pedagogical mediation, which resizes the conventional and rigid forms of curriculum. The adoption of projects is an alternative that aims to contribute to the rupture of crystallized practices in teaching and learning, characterized by isolation of the disciplines, the segregation between school and the materiality of the world and phenomena circulating in it and the vertical transmission of curricular knowledge. According Bomtempo (2000) the Project Pedagogy

Enables a school rooted in the real, open to multiple relations with the outside, where the student works hard and has the means to assert themselves. It allows them to build the sense of ones activity and gives opportunity to the student live with joy, enthusiasm and conflict their experiences, giving them better understand of the history of our time, facilitating ones formation as a person aware of his role as builder of history. (BOMTEMPO, 2000, p. 7).

In the case of early childhood education, project work has been punctuated by many scholars in the field. This proposal is also indicated as an alternative in the guidelines of official documents of the Ministry of Education (MEC), which guides the pedagogical work with young children. In the National Curriculum Reference for Early Childhood Education (BRASIL, 1998), the projects are seen as

Sets of activities that work with specific constructed knowledge from one of the working axes which are organized around a problem to solve or a final product to be obtained. Has a length that can vary according to the purpose, the development of the various stages, the desire and interest of children by subject matter. Contain a great deal of unpredictability that can be changed whenever necessary, including changes in the final product. By always starting with issues that need to be answered, it enables contact with the actual social practices. Depend largely on the interests of children, it needs to be significant, represent a common issue for all and start from a questioning of reality. It is important that the challenges presented are possible to be faced by the group of children. One of the perks of working with projects is to enable children to start relating to one of the areas of the work, be able to establish multiple relationships, expanding their ideas on a specific issue, seeking additions with relevant knowledge to different axes. This learning is a reference to other situations, allowing generalizations of various orders. (BRASIL, 1998, p. 57).

In the federal public school in of Uberlândia, in Minas Gerais, the field of this research, we were able to integrate the teaching staff during the period from 2009 to 2015. In this institution we attended the reflexion process and preparation of the pedagogical proposal adopted by the Early Childhood Education. In this movement, teachers and school community decided collectively the curricular organization of this level of education through work projects. We emphasize that this proposal is characterized by flexibility, as it constitutes a bet, it is not the end but a way that builds from walking (KRAMER, 1997).
The choice of the actors involved in the educational process of the institution by the project approach, was motivated by understanding the child as,

[...] A capable, competent being with immense potential and desire to grow. Someone who cares, thinks, doubts, demands solutions, tries again, wants understand the world around them and participate in it, someone open to the new and different. For children, the project methodology offers the role of protagonists of their learning, learning in the classroom, in addition to content, the various procedures of research, organization and expression of knowledge. (BARBOSA & HORN, 2008, p. 87-88).

The adoption of the work project has contributed for the construction of knowledge in a significant way, favoring autonomy in learning, creating a self level of self-awareness and significance in children in relation to their own learning. Since according to Barbosa & Horn (2008), to have learning it takes

To organize a curriculum that is meaningful to children and also for teachers. A curriculum can not be the continuous repetition of content such as a litany that endlessly repeats the same rhythm, the same tone, no matter who listen, who observe or what you learn. After all, we know that knowledge is not immutable truth, but something temporary, unfinished, imperfect and in continuing research. Projects opens to the possibility of learning the different knowledges built in the humanity of relational and non linear history, providing children to learn through multiple languages, while providing a reconstruction of what they have been already learned. (BARBOSA & HORN, 2008, p. 35).

In addition to the project proposal favoring the initiative, leadership and student interest, sharpening what is latent in children in this age group - the curiosity about the world around them - contributes to a significant learning for initiation in research, for the development of multiple languages, and their cognitive, emotional, cultural and social development. In this sense, in the context of early childhood education of said school, many projects are carried out by children with teachers, also with the involvement of the family, and the entire school community on the results show.

The organization of project work in the classroom, the school teachers investigated have adopted in general the following project development stages: "The definition of the problem; The planning work; The collection, organization, and recorded information; The evaluation and communication "(BARBOSA & HORN, 2008, p. 33). However we emphasize that in projects work "there is always a moment of initial decision and final evaluation, but the way that times are articulated, divided and organized is up to the group of students and educators, as well as the type of educational situation" (BARBOSA & HORN, 2008, p.33).

Hernandes & Ventura (1998) provides a schematic picture in their work, which suggest the curriculum organization for projects detailing the following steps:

- **Choice of subject:** Discusses criteria and arguments; Prepares an individual index.
- **Plan on the theme of development:** Collaborates in the original script of the class.
- **Help finding information:** Contact with different sources; The information.
- **Performs data processing:** Interprets reality; Sorts up and presents itself; Proposes new questions.
- **Analysis chapters of the index:** Individual or Group.
- **Performs a synthesis dossier:** Performs the final index of ordination; Incorporates new chapters; Considers it as a visual object.
- **Performs the evaluation:** Applying in simulated situations, the studied contents.
- **New perspectives:** Proposes new questions for other topics. (HERNANDES & VENTURA, 1998, p. 74).
The choice for working projects with children, has mobilized teachers who work with them to study and broaden their knowledge, in search to reflect and understand both how to work with projects (planning, actions to be developed, the teacher's role in mediating and conducting the process in the classroom, monitoring and evaluation of learning, among other things) and the specifics of child development. It has provided the professional and personal development of teachers, as well as institutional development, which has been permeated by the movement of action-reflection-action.

This way, this work methodology also favors the development and ongoing training of teachers involved in this process. As such, they are faced with the need to develop reflexivity in the course of mediation on the process of teaching and learning, learning in the relationship with the kids, and self realizing as researches of their practice. Corroborated Freire (1998) in relation to this aspect, stating that,

There is no teaching without research and no research without teaching. Those you-doings are one in the body of the other. While teaching I continue searching, re searching. I teach because I seek, because I asked, because I inquire and inquire myself. I search to find, finding, I intervene, intervening I educate and educate myself. I search to know what we do not know and communicate or announce the news. (FREIRE, 1998, p. 29).

Therefore, one of the actions triggered in the institution investigated, chose the pedagogical proposal with the project work, was the creation of a weekly moment for continuing education. In the days reserved for training, teacher and pedagogical coordinator working in early childhood education, meet the very locus of work, conducted research, exchanged of experiences, doubts and shared successful activities, and collectively planed new strategies and actions to be implemented. This process has been enrichig, once,

In the case of Continuing Education, investment in programs, investment in training programs focused on the training demands of daycare and preschools teachers related to the pedagogic project of the institution, to its educational policy, contributes to strengthen and resize new training perspectives rooted in real problems and situations, which foster collective work and not on the weaknesses or deficits of teachers / educators. (GOMES, 2010, p. 48).

The continuing education establishes the link between theory and practice, as an indissoluble unity. In this move the professionals constantly use reflexive action, restructure their methodology, reveal themselves as active citizens and creative participants in their own growth. As emphasized Alarcão (2007),

The reflective teacher notion is based on the awareness of the capacity for thought and reflection that characterizes the human being as a creative player and not as mere outside ideas and practices reproducer. It is central in this conceptualization, the notion of the professional as a person who, in professional situations, so often uncertain and unpredictable, acts intelligently and flexibly, situated and reactive. (ALARCÃO, 2007, p.41).

Candau (1996) reverberates that continuing education is a work of "critical reflexivity" on teaching practice in which there is the (re) construction of the professional and personal identity in the interaction process. The author states that:

Continuing education can not be conceived as a process of accumulation (courses, lectures, seminars etc, of knowledge or techniques), but as a work of critical reflexivity on practical and (re) construction of a
permanent personal and professional identity in mutual interaction. And it is in this perspective that the renewal of continuing education has been seeking new ways of development. (CANDAU, 1996, p. 150).

However, we stress that training in context performed in the researched institution, based on the reflection of teaching practice, has been constituted as a high educational value strategy. As the ability to reflect is innate to human beings, this needs contexts to strengthen its development, with freedom and responsibility. As stated Alarcão (2007)

In these formative contexts based on experience, expression and dialogue take on a huge importance part. A triple dialogue, I can say. A dialogue with oneself, a dialogue with others including those before us, that have built expertise that are reference, and dialogue with their situation, a situation that speaks to us. (ALARCÃO, 2007, p. 45-46).

The project work has been a challenge undertaken to continuing education, and interdisciplinarity and teaching reflection of the search context. This practice offers teachers the opportunity for professional reinvention, "leaving the complaint, overload, isolation, fragmentation", creating a creative workspace, participatory and collective (BARBOSA & HORN, 2008, p. 83).

Projects in early childhood education are also a possibility of interaction between the internal and external community of the institution, in that it enables the sharing of ideas and enrichment of the interrelationships. It is an opening, for parents, teachers, students, directors and other individuals to speak the same language, seeking to achieve common goals.

**Results**

Preliminary results of the research have elucidated that the organization of early childhood education curriculum for projects, stimulate the development of children through meaningful activities that address multiple languages; favors autonomy, interaction, dialogue and initiation to the world of research by the teacher and children. Parents are very important companions on this journey because they can instigate their children in this discover process.

This approach can also contribute to teaching reflection about their practice with children, moving towards a redefinition process of action and mediation in the teaching and learning process. We highlight the current challenge to teacher education, more specifically, the Early Childhood Education teacher, to envision the development of interdisciplinary approach and the process of action-reflection-action, such as guiding the teaching practice.

Corroborated Freire (1998, p. 44) by realizing that it is "thinking critically about the practice of today and yesterday that one can improve the next practice". In this way when we reflect on the personal and professional change, we also inciate the reflection of school reframing and ones curriculum. This process encourages creativity, initiative, questioning, inventiveness. Promotes the experience of cooperation, dialogue, sharing and solidarity.

Working with projects requires a selection of clear political objectives, as this proposal seeks "to teach democratic life, social participation, the ability to let go of a singular desire for a collective one, an immediate boost to the construction of collective long-term projects" (BARBOSA & HORN, 2008, p. 92).
We finish by stating that the curriculum organization of early childhood education through projects allows the construction of a "learning community" where teachers, children and their families are also protagonists. The school "has the strength and political power in the constitution of the subjects, who can think, speak, criticize and help build relationships, developing meaning for both their lives and for the world" (BARBOSA & HORN, 2008, p. 92).

We believe that the curriculum organization of early childhood education through the project approach, is a possible way to educate autonomous, critical, reflective and creative, responsible children and builders of their own history. This process is not an individual task, but rather collective in which we must rely on the involvement and commitment of all authors and actors of the educational process.

References


Teacher training and the interface with the achievement of the curriculum in Early Childhood Education

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This article aims to discuss the contributions of teacher training for the implementation and redefinition of the curriculum in Childhood Education. To this end, we take as context analysis three Early Childhood Education Centers of Agua Clara, Campo Grande and Três Lagoas, in the state of Mato Grosso do Sul. It is of a qualitative nature research, considering the technical and the main features of this approach. In this paper, we seek to weave theoretical reflections on the curriculum for children and the interface with the teacher training of Early Childhood Education as measure and mediating the development and achievement of proposed curriculum relevant to that segment. The results conclude that thought the curriculum and training of teachers who work in Early Childhood Education, requires us to reflect on the proper care facing the need of children, respect for development specificities of different age groups, the pedagogical practices that address its characteristics, and finally the quality of education offered. This thinking is needed in that curricular organization, the training of teachers and the teaching profession are intertwined and interconnected. We believe that the reflection allows teachers to review their everyday actions and resize praxis and curriculum proposals. While subject teachers and conductors of a curriculum, these have in your hands the possibility of achieving a quality curriculum that transcend the expansion of knowledge.

Keywords: Curriculum; Childhood Education; Teacher training.
Introduction

This article is part of a master's research in progress, and aims to discuss possible contributions of continuing education process of teachers for the implementation and redefinition of the curriculum in kindergarten. The research in question was initiated in the context of an Educational Center for Early Childhood Education (CEINF) in the municipality of Água Clara-MS. And it is being expanded and implemented in the municipalities of Campo Grande and Três Lagoas, also located in the State of Mato Grosso do Sul.

The focus of analysis of this article is made reference about the actions triggered by research on the Agua Clara CEINF, where their execution is in a more advanced process, allowing the elucidation of some of the results. In this sense, we present the preliminary results of a process of continuing education within the CEINF where studies in training culminated in the mobilization of the teachers involved for the sake of discussion and construction of the proposed curriculum to be materialized in the institution of its performance.

The formation was held in the proper context of CEINF through monthly meetings, and it included the participation of teachers, coordinators and representatives of the municipal education. In the meetings they wove up theoretical reflections on the curriculum for childhood, taking as reference the studies of official national documents that set guidelines for early childhood education such as the curriculum proposal in the National Curriculum Reference for Early Childhood Education (RCNEI), which requires the organization of curriculum content for the approach for projects that include multiple languages.

Hand in hand to studies undertaken in training, consolidating the construction and redefinition of the curricular proposal adopted by CEINF. In order to grasp the possible contributions of the formation held for reflection and development of the early childhood education curriculum, a qualitative research was conducted, opted for the mode of action research. As a result of this initial process was concluded to think about the curriculum in a teacher training work space in early childhood education, it requires a consideration of the appropriate care facing the need of children, the respect for the specifics of development of different age groups, educational practice reflecting its characteristics, and finally the quality of offered education.

Objectives

- To analyze the possible contributions of the continuing education process in early childhood education teachers for the implementation and redefinition of the curriculum in the context in which it develops, Educational Center for Early Childhood Education.

Methodology

As the research methodology, was prioritized for conducting a qualitative character investigation, considering the techniques and the main features of this approach, because "for the qualitative researcher divorce the act, word or gesture of context is to miss the meaning" (BOGDAN & BIKLEN, 1994, p.48).

Chizzotti (2003) points out that qualitative research adopts multimethod research study in search of a phenomenon situated in the context where it occurs, ie, intends to analyze the phenomenon looking to investigate its meaning
and interpret the meanings that those involved give to the same. The qualitative term in this sense, means "thick sharing with people, events and places, which are research subjects to extract this convivial the latent meanings that are only noticeable to a sensitive attention" (CHIZZOTTI, 2003, p. 221).

By portraying itself on the training process in achieving the proposed curriculum by teachers in the daily life of early childhood education institutions, it didn't lose sight of the complexity and subjectivity wrapped in this field. Sought to identify the subjective meanings of the developed training processes and pedagogical decisions taken by the subjects "including facts, opinions about facts, feelings, action plans, current or past behavior, conscious motives to opinions and feelings" (LAKATOS, 1993). According to Bogdan & Biklen (1994),

> Qualitative researchers [...] care about the context. They understand that actions can be better understood when seen in their usual environment of occurrence. The places must be understood in the context of the history of the institutions to which they belong. (BOGDAN & BIKLEN, 1994, p.48).

Was used the method of action research which "aims to promote changes, more or less radical, in particular social contexts (school, union, etc.)." In this type of research the researcher works with individuals participating in the study context. The investigation is known as an enterprise to be developed in partnership by the researcher and the subjects, "since both would share responsibility for routing the desired transformations" (MOROZ & GIANFALDONI, 2006, p. 58). The action research underlies the collective, cooperative work and the participation of everyone involved with the research. It consists of a dynamic process of action, reflection, reflected action (praxis). In this sense, it is essential "to diagnose and find a problem to be targeted for intervention" (MOROZ & GIANFALDONI, 2006, p.58). It is a spiral process that involves planning, decision making and meeting the facts.

In this article, we present the first stage of the research. Therefore, it is reported triggered actions in the investigated field using scientific contributions in theoretical foundation through reading authors who undertook research on the subject researched.

**Discussion**

The education aimed at the small child is historically rooted in medical and sanitary practices, assistentialist, charitable and philanthropic, establishing along its development, educational and teaching outlines. In this way, the concept of childhood and education directed to this stage, acquires different connotations and objectives, articulated with the historical, social and cultural contexts in which it emerges.

The Early Childhood Education is legally stipulated for the first time in Brazil, 1988 in the Federal Constitution, which in Article 208, item IV states: "[...] The State's duty towards education shall be fulfilled by assuring offers of nurseries and preschools for children from zero to six years of age" (BRASIL, 1988). Thereby early childhood education that has a history rooted in assistentialist and compensation practices, constituted as "child rights" from that Constitution.

One of the main landmarks in the sector of public policies for the Brazilian Early Childhood Education was in the 1990s, is recognized as level of education in the Law of Guidelines and Bases of National Education 1996 (LDBEN – Lei nº 9.394/96). The law establishes this segment as the first stage of basic education, which aims to ensure the
full development of the child, complementing the action of the family and community. It also associates the issue of care and education. Currently, childhood is seen as a stage that has special needs and care. According to Kramer (2006), which expresses the uniqueness of childhood is

[...] Their power of imagination, fantasy, creation, the fun understood as a cultural experience. Children are citizens, people holding rights, which produce culture and are produced in them [...]. Children play, this is what characterizes them [...] things are viewed upside down, and like that reveal the possibility to create. A chair upside down becomes boat, rocket, ship, train, truck [...]. (KRAMER, 2006 p. 15).

Faced with these legal provisions, the ground was opened for the discussion of the curriculum of early childhood education institutions, to meet the needs and specificities of child from 0 to 5 years to ensure as much care as the education of these, aiming they integral development. In this sense, the staff of the Ministry of Education (MEC) developed the National Curriculum Reference for Early Childhood Education - RCNEI - (BRASIL, 1998), in order to subsidize the construction of institutional curricular proposals for Early Childhood Education, as well as other documents official facing early childhood education.

In 1999, the National Education Council (CNE) established the National Curriculum Guidelines for Early Childhood Education (DCNEI), which were reviewed by the CNE in 2009, through an extensive process of discussion. This movement had the participation of several actors, incorporated practices and updated scientific publications on Early Childhood Education, and has subsidized the preparation of the CNE / CEB No. 20/2009, which guided the development of new DCNEI (SALLES & FARIA, 2012). According to Resolution No. 5 of 17 December 2009, in Article 2,

The National Curriculum Guidelines for Early Childhood Education articulated with the National Curriculum Guidelines for Basic Education and gather principles, fundamentals and procedures established by the Basic Board of Education National Board of Education, to guide public policies in the area, and the preparation, planning, execution and evaluation of pedagogical and curriculum proposals. (BRASIL, 2009).

Thereby these mandatory character of guidelines, besides regulate the development of curricular educational proposals for Early Childhood Education, should also be consulted and incorporated in the documents of the pedagogical proposal of early childhood education institutions. As indicated in more detail aspects to be considered and established paradigms about the care and education with quality.

Concomitantly the discussion on the curriculum of Early Childhood Education, became emerging studies on specific training of professionals working at this level. Since the initial training (in higher education) for continuing education (as a practice to be ensured by the educational networks). In article 62, Section 1 of LDBEN No. 9.394 /

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3In 2006, the Law 11.274 changes the article 32 from LDB 9394/96 and makes compulsory the elementary education, beginning with 6 (six) years old, during 9 (nine) years. What bring on the change, in 2013, of the essay from article 29 that specify the attendance of child until 5 years old in institutions of Childhood Education. Consolidating what authenticate the Law, in 2009 the CNE/CEB, by way of Resolution nº 5, fix the Nacional Guideline Curricular for Childhood Education. According with this Resolution, on the fifth article, the Childhood Education will be offer in daycare and child schools, public educational institutions or private ones that teach and take care of child from 0 until 5 years old, during daytime, on parcial or full-time journey. The second and third paragraphs underwrite the obligation of enrollment on Childhood Education, for kids who turn 4 or 5 years old until March 31 of the enrollment year; those who turns 6 years old after this date either have to enroll on the same educational stage.
96, it is pointed out that "the Federal Government, the Federal District, states and municipalities, in collaboration should promote initial training, continuing and professional training of magisterium "(BRASIL, 1996, site). In the case of continuing education, which is the focus of this research, it is conceived in the Framework for Teacher Education, as

[...] Intrinsic needed for professionals in the education, and is part of an ongoing process of professional development that must be ensured to all. The continuing education should provide updates, deepening the educational issues and be based on a reflection on the educational practice, promoting a constant process of self evaluation to guide the ongoing construction of professional skills. (BRASIL, 2002, site).

Highlighting the essential need for continuing education for the formation of the teaching profession, it is believed in the dialectical movement of this profession, which allows teachers throughout they career (re) discover, (re) learn and (re) construct knowledge, according to pedagogical practice demand, which requires the use of their knowledge.

Tardif (2006) states that teachers own, produce and use specific knowledge in their profession, and should be considered subject of this knowledge. But the teacher is not only subject of research, in contrast, takes a leading role in the production of knowledge and transformation of the context in which they are in.

In this way the debate on the continuing education of teachers is extremely important in the search for quality of the offered education, requiring a constant rethinking, since the teacher enables the mediation constitutive processes of citizenship and student learning.

In Brazil in the 1990s, the researches on the teaching knowledge disclosed by researchers as Nóvoa (1995), among others, have raised questions about the traditional models of training, focused on technical rationality and accumulation of knowledge necessary for teaching practice. Put into question the transmissible models, theorists have presented new challenges to research and teacher training policies. However, there was a redirecting look voting it to the issue of professional identity of teachers, their leadership and commitment to professional development as well as training models that contemplated the process of action-reflection-action and the ideal of researcher professor at his praxis.

New trends brought to light the valorization of the reflective teacher. As such, they must be in a continuous process of training and self-training, as they think, reflect and rework their initial knowledge confronting their experiences and daily practices, using this knowledge in their school context. Therefore, in contemporary continuing education sustains in a systematic and organized process anchored in the teaching action-reflection-action process, revealing contributions to the professional, personal and institutional development.

According to Moreira (2003, p. 126-127). the continuous training should represent a break from traditional models and the teacher's ability to understand what happens in the classroom, "identifying simple interests in the teaching-learning process at school, valuing and seeking dialogue with colleagues and experts."

It is understood that the starting point and the arrival of training should be the teaching and pedagogical practice in their contexts. However, the continuous training must allow the teacher the permanent construction of its "knowledge-doings" from the needs and challenges that education as a social practice puts in their daily life. In this respect, Pimenta (2006, p.39), portrays that "teaching work is built and becomes the everyday social life." Thereby
the pedagogical practice has its start and end at the social practice of the subject, identifying them as a source of knowledge, able to produce changes and immersed in a deep critical sense of reality.

Thereby teacher training should focus on the reflection and the educational practice, allowing the teacher to develop new ways of realization the teaching. Candau (1996, p.150) points out that continuing education is a work of "critical reflexivity" on teaching practice in which there is the (re) construction of the professional and personal identity in the interaction process. The author states that:

The continuing education can not be conceived as a process of accumulation (courses, lectures, seminars etc, of knowledge or techniques), but as a work of critical reflexivity on practical and ongoing (re)construction of a personal and professional identity in mutual interaction. And it is in this perspective that the renewal of continuous training has been seeking new ways of development. (CANDAU, 1996, p. 150).

The said author also points out the school as training locus, that is, he understands that "the day-to-day at school is a training locus", insofar as is in everyday life that the teacher learn and unlearn, discovers and rediscovers, improving their training (CANDAU, 1996, p. 144).

The continuing education centered in the school environment is a practice referenced by Nóvoa (1995). The author reports that "situations that the teachers are forced to confront exhibit unique characteristics, therefore requiring only answers." Training practices instituted in educational spaces should equally refer to the individual and collective dimensions of the teaching profession, in a movement which includes the sharing of experiences among peers and the autonomy of each teacher about "the responsibility of their own professional development" (NÓVOA, 1995, p.27).

Nóvoa (1995) dialogues on the articulated continuing education aimed at the development and production of the teacher as a person and as a professional, and the development and production of school as an educational institution generator of many issues linked to education. From this perspective, the cornerstone of the training curriculum should be to develop intellectual tools order to facilitate reflective capabilities of the practice itself in which main goal is to learn to interpret, understand and reflect on education and social reality communally. Imbéron (2002), points out that,

The training plays a role that goes beyond teaching a mere updated scientific, pedagogical and didactic, and turns into the possibility of creating spaces for participation, reflection and training for people to learn and adapt to be able to cope with the change and the uncertainty. (IMBÉRON, 2002, p.18).

Research conducted in the field of continuing education in early childhood education presents it as an important tool for improving teaching practices in schools, and highlight the need for paradigm and concepts changes regarding the work with children. Santos (2005) shows that the studies advances in the field of early childhood education, the changes in the educational legislation, and the recognition of socio-historical influences and the particular characteristics of children, require a new posture in the relationship and how to educate them. Therefore, the author emphasizes the need for changes of professionals working with a young child, they must go through a metamorphosis that may or may not occur, according to the material, social and historical conditions offered to them. The author points out to us that:
The professional of early childhood education inserted in continuing education programs in elaborated services from presented necessity in everyday life can be driven to metamorphose and help re-by the identity, building replicas of themselves. The context and its dynamics can be rich enough to promote the questioning of the underlying conceptions practices in early childhood education. The responsibility for such enrichment is individual and collective. (SANTOS, 2005, p. 100).

However, thinking of the continuing education of teachers who work in early childhood education requires us to reflect on the proper care focused on the needs of children, the respect for development specificities of different age groups, educational practice reflecting its characteristics and the quality of education offered. To think of this training is, first of all, to think of the subject teachers, in their working conditions in a career path that values this subject, which enables and ensures conditions of work and vocational training that qualifies its practice. Corroborate Kramer (2006)

The formation of early childhood professionals - teachers and managers - is a challenge that requires joint action by the local, state and federal authorities. This challenge has many facets, needs and possibilities, and acting both in continuing education (in-service or in office, as has been called the formation of those already working as teachers) and in the initial training at medium or higher education. (KRAMER, 2006, s/p).

It was noticed as well, the fact that while recognizing the importance of continuing education for the improvement and support of teaching practice, many municipalities do not include in their actions continuing education initiatives, and yet, when offered, this trainings are often reduced to lectures, seminars, among others, not taking into consideration the actual context of teachers in early childhood education. In summary, these professionals are sent to training and continuing education that does not include the themes addressed to the demands of the workplace, occurring in mass, without impact on the practice of teachers and their realities.

Tardif (2006) reflects that there needs to be a meaning between the knowledge that the teacher learns and the knowledge that they applie. Taken up Nóvoa’s reflections (1995), to point out the need to put teacher training "inside" of the profession, based on the situations experienced by them in their context, providing opportunities for dialogue among peers in their own institution, the search for solutions to come against the dilemmas and experiences of each teaching staff and their special circumstances. Alarcão (2007) points out that training in the context should be based on its own practice, establishing itself as a strategy of a great educational value

If the reflective capacity is innate in humans, it needs contexts that favors its development, freedom and responsibility contexts. [...] In these formative contexts based on experience, expression and dialogue take on a huge importance of part. A triple dialogue, I can say. A dialogue with yourself, a dialogue with others including those before us have built knowledge that are reference, and the dialogue with their situation, a situation that tells us, as Shön refers in his metaphorical language. (ALARCÃO, 2007, p. 45-46).

Relating this thought to the context of early childhood education, implicating the relevance to create opportunities for professionals working in it, evaluation spaces and discussion among the other activities in the institutions, so that the training happens as a continuous and integrated process to everyday life, set not only as a necessity, but as a right and a condition for the early childhood education quality offer. Kramer (2005) clarifies that:
Training is needed not only to improve the efforts of the professional or teaching practice. Training is a right for all teachers, a conquer and a right of the population, for a public school quality. Can training processes trigger changes? Yes, if the concrete practices made in nurseries, preschools and schools and what they talk about their professional are the starting point for the changes that you want to implement. (KRAMER, 2005, p. 224).

From the foregoing, defending the idea of thinking about continuing education adopting as central axis of reflection the everyday school life, teaching practice and working conditions of teaching subject, which implies contributions to improve the quality of education offered in the construction of curriculum proposals consistent with the specific reality of each institution, as well as the identity construction process of the teaching subject.

Continued training held in the context of CEINF in the municipality of Água Clara-MS, brought up the inseparability between theory and practice, in that led teachers to frisk and theorize their practices, sometimes in search for answers to the difficulties encountered in everyday situations that came up in classrooms of kindergarten, sometimes seeking to expand knowledge not yet acquired. Christov (2009) clarifies that theory and practice walk together and that all human action is marked by an intention, whether conscious or unconscious. Thereby the author says:

> We build our theory when we learn to read our experience itself and experiences in general. We build our theory when we ask questions to experiences, authors; when not satisfied with the first answers and appearances and begin to wonder about the relationships, the reasons, the consequences, the doubts, the problems of each action or each theoretical contribution [...] The greater our ability to read our experience, the greater our ability to understand authors. Therefore, knowledge and experience help our understanding of our own practice. (CHRISTOV, 2009, p. 39).

In Agua Clara County, the proposal of continuing education in the locus of CEINF, was implemented in 2014, being organized by professionals of the Municipal Education (SME) in partnership with the educational coordinator of CEINF. In this regard, meetings were initially conducted in the institutions with the participation of teachers, in order to give voice to those professionals seeking to understand their expectations and concerns, to be covered by the training process.

In that first moment were present issues relating to the following: What to teach in early childhood education? How to organize time and space in the classroom? What skills and activities should be prioritized? Is it possible to work the reading and writing, as well as other knowledge in order to contemplate the learning needs without making early childhood education a compensatory phase only in order to prepare to entry into elementary school?

From that initial diagnosis, it was organized the continuing education schedule, now being held in a monthly meeting with the participation of teachers in charge of classes of children aged 4 and 5 years old, the educational coordinator and head of the SME. Eight meetings were held in the course of a year. Facing the questions and with the monitoring done with teachers, the pedagogical coordinator was concerned about the quality of care offered to children attending the CEINF in Água Clara, it was found that some practices developed by teachers were not compatible with the guidelines resulting from the official educational documents and laws aimed at early childhood education.
In dialogue with the teachers, it became clear that many despite knowing the RCNEI (BRASIL, 1998) did not undertake depth studies on the proposal presented by these documents. Given this statement it is prioritized in the process of continuing education the study of these references, believing they would help as much in the formative process in the search for answers to the questions raised by teachers and, as for the future construction and development of curricular proposal to be adopted in CEINF. Since they followed a proposal arising from the previous government, which was drafted by the SME representatives and sent to the institutions to be implemented, without the participation of teachers and other actors involved in the educational process in the proposed building movement.

In the course of the meetings the three volumes were discussed that compose the RCNEI, organized as: Introduction, document that reflects on daycare centers and preschools in Brazil, locating and substantiating child conceptions, education, institution, and the professional, which were used to define the general objectives of early childhood education and guided the organization of the working axes documents that are grouped into two volumes related to the following areas of expertise: **Personal and Social Training** and **Knowledge of the World**; a volume related to the scope of Personal and Social Training experience containing the working axis that favors primarily construction processes of **Identity and Autonomy** of children; other related to the scope of World Knowledge experience containing six documents concerning the work areas aimed at the construction of the different languages by children and the relationships they establish with the objects of knowledge: **Movement, Music, Visual Arts, Oral and Written Language, Nature and Society** and **Mathematics**.

At the end of this first training cycle, the teachers decided to adopt the organization of Early Childhood Education curriculum of CEINF through projects. The organization of early childhood education curriculum for work projects has been discussed by various theorists in this area, as well found in the guidelines of the official documents of MEC, which guides the pedagogical work with children at this stage, for example, in RCNEI (BRASIL, 1998), which tells us

Projects are sets of activities that work with specific knowledge, built from one of the work areas that are organized around a problem to solve or a final product to be obtained. Has a duration that can vary according to the purpose, the development of the various stages, the desire and interest of children by the subject area. Contain a large dose of unpredictability, and it can be changed whenever necessary, including changes in the final product. By always start with issues that need to be answered, they enable contact with the actual social practices. Depended largely on the interests of children, they need to be significant, represent a common issue for all and come from a questioning of reality. It is important that the challenges presented are possible to be faced by the group of children. One of the gains about working with projects is to enable the children from a matter related to one of the areas of work, to establish multiple relationships, expanding their ideas on a specific issue, seeking additions with relevant knowledge to different axes. This learning is a reference to other situations, allowing generalizations of various orders (BRASIL, 1998, p. 57).

Therefore the teachers realized this form of curricular organization as an opportunity to implement proposals that focus on children's initiative and the work directed in order of the child's integral development. Understanding the proposed projects as a possible reinterpretation of the early childhood education curriculum, and the organization
of the space and time in the context of CEINF, transforming this in an open space to multiple dimensions, learning and languages.

It is understood according to Salles & Faria (2012, p. 32) that the early childhood education curriculum is a "set of cultural experiences of care and education related to knowledge and expertise, intentionally selected and organized by professionals of an IEI to be experienced by children with a view to their human development". Thereby the curriculum is one of the elements of the educational proposal and should therefore be articulated to it and be guided by the assumptions that guide it.

The curriculum's role is fundamental, asserted by Moreira & Candau (2007) which emphasize that anything can happen in institutions since in it is systematized the pedagogical intentions, being the teacher one of the principal architects in the materialization of the curriculum in institutions and in the classroom. In this way these authors point out the indispensable participation of teachers in the curriculum development process, acting in a critical, creative and democratic way.

The development and redefinition of the curriculum from early childhood education on CEINF field of this investigation, is under construction. The process of continuing education is being constituted in this regard, as a mediator and sizer of this development. Given that the Early Childhood Education Institutions should be committed to the care and education, it is imperative that the staff reflect on their daily lives and become aware of the experiences they are providing to the children, in the perspective of taking care of and educate them. However, it is noted that these proposed experiments "must be intentionally selected, planned and organized in a curriculum" (SALLES & FARIA, 2012, p.79).

**Results**

Preliminary results of the research reveal that thinking the curriculum and training of teachers who work in early childhood education, requires us to reflect on the proper care focused on the needs of children, the respect to the specifics of development of different age groups, educational practice reflecting its characteristics, and finally the quality of education offered. This thinking is necessary insofar as the curriculum organization, the training of teachers and the teaching profession are intertwined and interconnected.

It is hoped that this research will contribute to the academic research on teacher training and curriculum practices in early childhood education, deepening knowledge, raising new researches and to the creation of proposals for continuing education that have the locus the school routine. Apprehend in everyday life that the teaching activity implies not losing sight of the social totality, because the school is an integral part of social praxis and represents, in their day-to-day, the contradictions of society in which it is located (PIMENTA, 2006, p. 38).

We believe that reflection allows teachers to review their everyday actions and resize praxis and curriculum proposals. As subjects teachers and conductors of a curriculum, they have in their hands the possibility of achieving a quality curriculum that transcends the expansion of knowledge.

It is also noticeable that the training linked to the research process, in dialogue with professionals who have shared their experience, according to Mello (2012, p. 28) "Can contribute to formulate other comprehensions to the school routine." In the case of the research conducted, it was found that in this first stage, the reading and study of RCNEI
and known authors not yet familiar by teachers and subjects involved, enabling to expand their knowledge in
addition to accrue new pedagogical and personal views, which led them to the boldness of construction of the
pedagogical proposal to be implemented by CEINF.

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**Functional knowledge of University of Murcia (Spain) Pedagogy students**

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The approaches of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) demonstrated the need to change teaching practices and guide them towards the consolidation of a new educational model focused on learning and high level cognitive activities, intending to make students build comprehensive and deep knowledge, with the possibility to transfer this knowledge to new situations and contexts. Considering this approach, the work presented analyse the
knowledge of University of Murcia (Spain) Pedagogy students at the end of their university studies, in order to assess the degree of understanding throughout their university training. To do this, several semi-structured questionnaires were used. Those questionnaires gathered topics related to the conceptual training of an Educator and three practical cases in which students had to bring out their functional knowledge. The analysis of the results was performed through SOLO Taxonomy (Biggs, 2006) and Atlas.ti qualitative data analysis program. The results show the development of a limited and fragmented knowledge about the contents worked upon in the different subjects comprising the degree, and most of the answers provided by students have a multi-structural complexity level. These results prove that students have built an eminently shallow knowledge, which encourages us to reflect on the teaching practices currently used and the causes and main factors behind the development of this type of learning.

**Key words**: learning outcomes, teaching, SOLO taxonomy, shallow knowledge and deep knowledge.

**Introduction**

Under the guidelines of the Bologna process in the academic year 2009/2010 the University of Murcia started the Degree of Education, while the School of Education and guided its work for more than a decade, the process of European convergence. Formally, in the academic year 2007/2008 several Pilot Adaptation Plans of Education Degree start, after the adaptation of various materials to the implementation, mainly methodologies oriented skills development and the use of a variety of assessment procedures consistent with most active and authentic methodologies.

In this context and taking into account the claims of Bologna, improving qualifications have focused on optimizing the quality of student learning. University education must result in students the ability to develop skills to cope with new situations in their professional field (Bowden and Marton, 2012), and for this, it is inevitable that efforts to improve these lessons are directed not only at institutional level but also at the classroom level, which requires the active participation and involvement of teachers and students. As Elmore (1997, p.65) stated "if we change teaching practice and student learning, we must focus just on that teaching practice and student learning, rather than commit to structural changes, highly symbolic, rarely they play the first level".

The development of skills that allow students to face various professional situations is associated with the construction of a deep, meaningful learning. Many authors (Marton, Beaty Dall'Alba and 1993; Hopkins, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 2001; Hativa, 2001; Ramsden, 2003; Domingo, 2003; Biggs, 2005; Pozo, 2006, 2009; Bain, 2007, 2012, 2014; Huber, 2008; Rue, 2009; Biggs and Tang, 2011; Bowden and Marton, 2012) have shown that it is indispensable that students understand the content, significance and equip themselves to be able to apply to different situations, and the key to its success is to provide good learning experiences and propose activities that have real impact on student learning (Bolivar, 2012).

In the case of Title Pedagogy, these experiences and activities would be directed towards training in a comprehensive and consistent disciplines related to education and training knowledge, the ability to lead projects and adapt efficiently to complex contexts and evolving, subject to formal and non-formal personal, social and professional development (White Paper, 2005). Considering these ideas, the objective of this study is to find out if students are building deep Pedagogy and relevant learning and to what extent are able to solve problems of their...
professional field. The analysis of information from each of the thirteen categories listed was conducted through a system of five levels that indicate the evolution and complexity of student responses. Specifically, for the categorization of students' responses to the 13 questions raised SOLO taxonomy Biggs and Collis (1982) it was used, which establishes 5 levels of structural complexity to assess student learning.

Method

Research design

In this research we chose a mixed methodological approach. While the bulk of the analysis is performed from a primarily qualitative perspective, combining some procedures and techniques of quantitative approaches. It is not experimental design, transverse and descriptive research that has allowed us to gather extensive information about knowledge in various learning tasks.

Participants

A non-probability sampling based on the intention (Olabuénaga Ruiz, 2012) was used for the study. Specifically, the study sample was composed of 47 students (43 girls and 4 boys) of Pedagogy of the University of Murcia who were in completing the final year of their university education (fifth year) and have unique features, a Degree of Education started in the academic year 2007/2008. The reason for raising this criterion reflects our interest in investigating the learning of students who have similar training (in terms of subjects, teachers, duration of studies, etc.). It is noteworthy that 42 of the 47 participants had been involved in pilot projects of adaptation to the degree in one or more academic years.

 Instruments

Three ad hoc semi-structured questionnaires that allowed us access to the declarative and functional knowledge of the students were designed. Instrument 1 provides a list of the subjects of the degree in which the students had to indicate the contents reminiscent of each. This instrument was developed in order to cause a quantitative database consisting of all the contents of Pedagogy students remembered (the analysis of this instrument has not been presented in this paper). Thus, the analysis addressed once the instrument was completed, a list sorted by frequency content was developed. From the ten most frequently repeated content for students Instrument 2. With this instrument was designed to analyze the declarative intended student learning. A list of ten questions on which students should deepen from its definition was included. Specifically, the following issues were presented:

1. Identifies and selects an author (teacher, philosopher, psychologist, etc.) that you consider important in your training as a teacher and explains what have been your most significant contributions.
2. What do you mean by curriculum?
3. What do you think education laws have had more impact on the Spanish education system? Why?
4. What computer programs for data analysis know? What are their advantages and disadvantages?
5. Explain what characteristics does a child with Down syndrome and what would their schooling educational implications.

6. Explain what you mean by model guidance, select one of the existing models and their basic characteristics.

7. What is a project of educational intervention?

8. Is what you mean by learning and know what kind of learning.

9. Can you identify an aspect (organization, structure, etc.) of another European education system believe may be of interest to adopt in the Spanish educational system?

10. Define values of education.

The instrument number three allowed to assess functional knowledge of students through three cases studied on various topics studied in various subjects of the degree. These cases studied were designed taking into consideration the various functions to develop the teachers in their professional area and were concerned with the following topics:

1. Detection of a student with high Capacities.

2. The Importance and Implications of evaluation in education.

3. Continuous training of teachers.

Analysis and processing of data

To make analysis of the information collected, categories of which they are found and wanted information. These categories are identified with the ten questions raised in the Instrument 2 and each of the three case studies raised in the Tool 3 (Table 66).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Category</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Provided Information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>Learning Authors reference</td>
<td>Declarative Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>Educational Legislation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4</td>
<td>Data Analysis Software</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C5</td>
<td>Down syndrome features</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C6</td>
<td>Educational guidance models</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C7</td>
<td>Project educational intervention</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C8</td>
<td>Definition and types of learning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C9</td>
<td>European educational systems</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C10</td>
<td>Education in values</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C11</td>
<td>Detection of a student with high capacities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C12</td>
<td>Importance and implications of evaluation in education</td>
<td>Functional Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C13</td>
<td>Teacher training</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 66 Categories of analysis

The analysis of information from each of the thirteen categories listed was conducted through a system of five levels that indicate the evolution and complexity of student responses. Specifically, for the categorization of students' responses to the 13 questions raised SOLO taxonomy Biggs and Collis (1982) it was used, which establishes 5 levels of structural complexity to assess student learning.

For the analysis of qualitative character information, content was analyzed, with Atlas.ti program.

Results obtained

As just noted, the responses obtained with the gathering information instruments, evidence of student learning declarative (categories 1-10) and functional learning (categories 11-13). The results are presented by classification of types of learning: a) declarative learning b) functional learning.

Declarative learning

Regarding the results for the declarative learning, as we have previously indicated, information was collected 10 categories based on the content most frequently remembered by students. The student responses were categorized according to the levels of the SOLO taxonomy (1-5). Descriptive statistics of the classes is shown in Table 67.
Table 67 Descriptive of the categories studied

The overall results indicate that the average values obtained in each of the categories analyzed scores ranging between 2.47 and 3.28. That is, are located between levels 2 (unistructural) and 3 (multistructural). The highest average scores are found in the following categories: Features of Down Syndrome and educational intervention project. The lowest average scores are found in categories European educational systems and data analysis programs.
This is the detailed analysis of the results obtained in both categories with higher average scores and the two categories with lower average scores. The analysis of the categories with higher mean scores (Characteristics of Down Syndrome and educational intervention Project), have allowed us to show the following results:

- Regarding the content features of Down syndrome, indicate that most of the answers of the students are in the multi-structural level (48.9%). The results show that most students know what the physical and psychological characteristics of people with Down syndrome, for all student responses, except those located in the pre-structural level, are able to mention. But besides knowing the characteristics of these students, it is intended that the students of Pedagogy contemplate some educational implications required for the schooling of these students. In this regard, the answers are located in the level multi-structural included very general ideas about the educational implications of schooling of a child with Down syndrome. While more than 36% of students (whose answers were at the highest levels), show a deeper knowledge on the subject (Table 68).
Curricular changes would be made if necessary or any adaptation or support. In order to be normalized and integrated in the classroom [P 2: Sujeto2.txt - 2: 5 (90:94)]. Normally, a child with Down syndrome will be enrolled in regular classrooms whenever their characteristics permit, and in the most serious cases in a specific school. It is considered in any case as a SEN pupil, thus require the necessary support both primary and secondary, and monitoring and evaluation activities necessary educational psychology. Likewise they require personal assistance as PT, Physio, AL ... as I say in varying degrees and intensity accordingly. They have a great visual power and have enormous capacity to repeat aspects that can serve as a guideline to enhance what these students are able to make [P49: Sujeto21.txt - 49:5 (106:120)].

Table 68 Exemplifying answers progression of the same content (category 5)

- On the content of educational intervention project can indicate the results obtained indicate that all students- whose answers are at the uni-structural and levels (10.6%), multi-structural (61.7%) relational (27.7%) they have been able to state what are the elements that make up a project are educational intervention. 61.7% of participants also pointed out what the purpose of these projects. Finally, indicate that only 27.7% referred to other aspects such as: the need for an analysis of reality, have the consensus of all people, to carry out the evaluation of the program, etc (Table 4). The latter answers, show signs of a student with a deeper understanding of what involves conducting educational intervention program understanding. The analysis of the categories with lower (data analysis programs and European educational systems), average scores have allowed us to appreciate the following results:

Table 69 Exemplifying answers progression of the same content (category 7)

- On the content data analysis programs it is remarkable the absence of contributions in the uni-structural abstraction levels and extended. Most of the responses were located in the uni-structural level, which shows that almost 50% of students know the name of some data analysis programs but are not able to indicate what are its advantages and disadvantages. 40.4% of students (multi-structural level) are able to incorporate other information, such as terms like fashion, median, qualitative analysis, but we cannot claim to have understood what the purpose
of the programs explain. Only 10.6% (relational level) students provide a more detailed analysis of the programs and include more elaborate information on the advantages and disadvantages of them (Table 70). In general, we can say that students know data analysis programs but have difficulty conceptualizing information about them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shallow learning</th>
<th>Deep learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Unistructural level</strong></td>
<td><strong>Relational level</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The data analysis programs with whom I have worked in these five years has been: SPSS: it is very useful but we need to know it thoroughly to get to handle it with ease. MYSTAT: This simple use. ITEM: it is simple and presents relevant information in a very clear way, but I think it does not offer as many possibilities as the previous</td>
<td>SPSS, MYSTAT, AGENDA ITEM. ADVANTAGES: - It allows us to store large amounts of information and sort them by category. - It provides us the results of values such as mean, mode, variance, standard deviation, reliability, validity ... allowing to analyze the results achieved, on the quality of the tests applied on the results ... - that allows us to relate the variables as we want. - That information does not lead to error, because it is more quantitative theory. DISADVANTAGES: - that until we learn to use it well is the economy. - That requires theoretical knowledge to interpret statistical results obtained. - That the erroneous data input can cause an error in the interpretation of data</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 70 Exemplifying answers progression of the same content (category 4)

- In relation to the European educational systems content, struck by the high percentage of responses categorized in pre-structural level (29.8%), which shows that many students have not been able to answer the question or they have done incorrectly. Also, the high percentage of responses found in the uni-structural level (14.9%), warning of a very superficial knowledge on this subject. In general, the students who answered correctly, unanimous agreement appears to recognize the educational systems in Finland, Germany and Sweden as those that integrate interesting aspects that could be adopted in the Spanish educational system. However, 14.9% (uni-structural level) students are not able to deepen and argue why. 36.2% (multi-structural level) set out some aspects of other education systems, but synthetically. And a minority, almost 20% of students, discussed in more detail some of the most interesting aspects of other European education systems even doing any assessment on them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shallow learning</th>
<th>Deep learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Multistructural level</strong></td>
<td><strong>Extended abstraction level</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It could be interesting to adopt the model of school that takes place in Germany, through which the students just primary, as has been his career, it is recommended to go to a school or another, because in Germany there are four types</td>
<td>As for the interesting European educational system, I believe that in Germany lead an organization and optimal structuring, will select their students according to their ability and acquire learning in stages in appropriate schools for their abilities. All can attain advanced degrees, although students selected from the start of their training usually normally do. In turn, this educational system is unfair, because the capabilities are valued and no effort that a person has to do to achieve reach beyond their core competencies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for the interesting European educational system, I believe that in Germany lead an organization and optimal structuring, will select their students according to their ability and acquire learning in stages in appropriate schools for their abilities. All can attain advanced degrees, although students selected from the start of their training usually normally do. In turn, this educational system is unfair, because the capabilities are valued and no effort that a person has to do to achieve reach beyond their core competencies [P43 objective: Sujeto42.txt - 43:13 (59:65 )].
**Functional learning**

The results concerning the functional learning are derived from three categories referred to three case studies that collect different authentic situations in the field of teacher professional development. Just as was done in the analysis above, the student responses were categorized according to the levels of the SOLO taxonomy (1-5). Descriptive statistics of these categories is collected in Table 72.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Typical deviation</th>
<th>Analysis N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C11. Detection of a student with high capacities</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>.834</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C12. Importance and implications of evaluation in education</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>.729</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C13. Teacher training</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>.764</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Globally, you can see the average values obtained by students in the different categories considered for assessing the functional knowledge. These values range between the values 3.15 and 3.36, which shows that the student knowledge about these variables is in the multi-structural level, although in this case the values are slightly higher compared with declarative learning. A first impression of this result allows us to reason that students show a slightly deeper understanding and learning when they have to launch their functional knowledge, i.e., solve some problems or case studies related to the detection of high ability students with the importance and implications of evaluation in education and continuous training of teachers.
In Figure 16, the response rates are presented students at each level of the taxonomy only in the C11, C12 and C13 categories. According to the Total column, which encompasses all of the answers to the three categories, 49.6% of the answers of the students are in the multi-structural level. This data shows that students are able to correctly answer the questions practical situations, although the information disclosed about the problems is too generic and not very elaborate. Almost 35% of student responses (comprising 29.8% of the relational level and 5% level of abstraction extended) show a deep learning on these issues, based on the generation of value judgments, arguments appropriate and justified reflections.

Regarding the first practical situation raise (Sensing a high ability students), the results show that all students know various tests that can be used to diagnose high ability students. However, only a third of students (those at levels 4 and 5) are able to reason and argue what would be the appropriate educational response to these students.

In relation to the second practical situation presented (importance and implications of evaluation in education), we see that all students are able to state each of the types of assessment tools they know and they would use in each. However, almost 50% of students are limited to the enumeration of them and indicate when the process of teaching and learning would use, while over 35% of students also provide a description and assessment of these evaluations. But when it comes to reflect and critically analyze the implications and potential impacts of the various types of evaluations in the role of teachers, only the responses categorized in relational and extended abstract levels, with 34% and 2.1% respectively, show a deeper understanding about the subject.

Finally, regarding the third practice situation (service teacher training), the results show that all students are able to articulate the importance of lifelong learning, the methodology they would use and pose as cooperative work, but only those who have a deeper knowledge use more solid and grounded arguments. For example, they know different tools that can be used to promote collaborative work of teachers, but only in the deepest levels are
able to describe how they would use them. Finally, indicate that only 6.4% of students are able to identify action research as a methodology that facilitates the transfer. Most students refer to the use of a participative and active methodology, without specifying its meaning.

Conclusions

From the results, it could be interpreted that the pedagogy students have developed a kind of learning close to multi-structural level, both in relation to declarative knowledge as to the functional knowledge. As pointed descriptive features of the SOLO taxonomy, students who have this level of knowledge are able to provide substantial information on the issues that have responded, but have some difficulty in structuring information in a consistent way, to relate other issues and to make value judgments on it.

This information allows us to infer the construction of a fundamentally descriptive learning (based on low-level cognitive operations), which warned that the university is training professionals to identify, enumerate, explain, etc. future, when their task should be geared towards learning related to reflection, application, generalization, etc.

We can also infer that, according to the results, the teaching methods used during the formative years of these students could be identified largely with those derived from a traditional model centered on the transmission of knowledge rather than the construction of knowledge by students.

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