

8. FURTHER DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATORS' PEDAGOGICAL COMPETENCE

Chairs:

**Dr. Alona Rauckiene (Lithuania),
Dr. Habil. Irēna Žogla (Latvia)**

SATURA RĀDĪTĀJS / CONTENTS

THE TEACHER TRAINING RESOURCE BANK (TTRB): A FREE EVIDENCE INFORMED RESOURCE FOR THE PROFESSION BY THE PROFESSION	651
SKOLOTĀJU IZGLĪTĪBAS RESURSU BĀZE <i>Mike Blamires, Cathy Lawrence</i>	
AUDZĒKŅU EKOLOĢISKĀS ATTIEKSMES ATTĪSTĪBA MĀCĪBU PROCESĀ BŪVNICĪBAS SPECIALITĀTĒ PROFESIONĀLĀS IZGLĪTĪBAS SKOLĀ	663
DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENTS' ECOLOGICAL ATTITUDE IN THE STUDIES OF BUILDING IN A VOCATIONAL SCHOOL <i>Andris Bērziņš</i>	
TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE CONTEXT OF THE BOLOGNA PROCESS	673
SKOLOTĀJU IZGLĪTĪBA BOLOŅAS PROCESA KONTEKSTĀ <i>Dainuvīte Bluma</i>	
MANAGING MENTORSHIP THROUGH A POSITIVE RELATIONSHIP	681
POZITĪVAS SAVSTARPĒJĀS ATTIECĪBAS MENTORU DARBA PĀRVALDĒ <i>Linutė Kraujutaitytė</i>	
<i>Alona Rauckienė</i>	
DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENTS' ESP COMPETENCE AND EDUCATORS' PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITY IN TERTIARY LEVEL TOURISM STUDIES	689
STUDENTU PROFESIONĀLĀS ANĢĻU VALODAS KOMPETENCES UN DOCĒTĀJU PROFESIONĀLĀS DARBĪBAS ATTĪSTĪBA TŪRISMA STUDIJĀS <i>Ineta Lūka</i>	
THE ROLE OF AN EDUCATOR IN FURTHER EDUCATION OF ADULTS	698
DOCĒTĀJA LOMA PIEAUGUŠO TĀLĀKIZGLĪTĪBĀ <i>Oksana Shalajeva, Aivars Lasmanis</i>	
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATORS AIMED AT RESEARCH AND CHANGE OF THEIR OWN EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE	707
DOCĒTĀJU PROFESIONĀLĀ ATTĪSTĪBA AR MĒRĶI APGŪT PĒTNIECISKO PRASMI UN MAINĪT SAVU PEDAGOĢISKO PRAKSI <i>Edita Slunjski</i>	
TEACHER EDUCATOR, GO EDUCATE THYSELF: WHO TEACHES THE TEACHERS OF TEACHERS? ESTABLISHING A MODEL OF PROFESSIONAL FORMATION FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS IN FURTHER EDUCATION COLLEGES	714
DOCĒTĀJ, EJ UN MĀCIES: KAS MĀCA SKOLOTĀJU SKOLOTĀJUS? <i>Christopher Spencer</i>	

**THE TEACHER TRAINING RESOURCE BANK (TTRB):
A FREE EVIDENCE INFORMED RESOURCE
FOR THE PROFESSION BY THE PROFESSION
SKOLOTĀJU IZGLĪTĪBAS RESURSU BĀZE**

Mike Blamires

Strategic Director of the TTRB

Cathy Lawrence

Associate Editor of the TTRB, Faculty of Education
Canterbury Christ Church University
e-mail: M.Blamires@canterbury.ac.uk
Cathy.lawrence@canterbury.ac.uk

Abstract

The Teacher Training Research Bank (www.ttrb.ac.uk) is a project supported by the English Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA).

The project was launched in March 2006 with the following aims:

- to articulate and represent the professional knowledge bases that underpin teacher education,
- to increase the range and quality of resources available with ITE especially video based resources,
- to raise the profile of teacher training research and knowledge creation,
- to promote change by linking theory, debate and practice,
- to provide a personalised support service for teacher educators.

The TTRB website consists of peer moderated reviews and summaries that have been classified using a range of schemas to aid browsing and accessibility. The resource has had over two million document downloads from teacher trainers and trainees with over 3,000 a day. This paper describes the TTRB, its ongoing evaluation and potential.

Keywords: Evidence Informed Practice.

Introduction and aims of the research

The Teacher Training Research Bank aims to support the ITE community in its use of evidence to inform practice. Funded by the Teacher Development Agency for Schools (formerly the Teacher Training Agency) the project was launched in March 2006 with the following aims:

- to articulate and represent the professional knowledge bases that underpin teacher education,
- to increase the range and quality of resources available with ITE especially video based resources,
- to raise the profile of teacher training research and knowledge creation,
- to promote change by linking theory, debate and practice,
- to provide a personalised support service for teacher educators.

The TTRB website consists of peer moderated reviews and summaries of a wide range of materials that have been classified using the British Education Thesaurus of over 8,400 words and other schemas including Qualified Teacher Status standards to aid accessibility. This paper describes the TTRB, its initial evaluation and potential applications.

There are a range of reviews and reports from a variety of government and non government organisations that may or may not have implications for Initial Teacher Education and the next generation of teachers. These will vary in scope from being very subject or phase specific to being concerned with issues that are more generic. For example, the former might include the effective use of technology in music teaching and the use of movement assessment amongst 4-5 year old, whilst the latter could include the enhanced skills and knowledge required to work with other professionals or the ways of engaging parents in their child's education.

Whilst all tutors are responsible for developing their own knowledge and expertise, there are advantages to be accrued by working with other experts to evaluate and share the implications of different evidence bases for trainees and colleagues who may not have this specialist knowledge.

The Teacher Training Resource Bank aims to be a one-stop portal for the profession to gain authoritative credible and relevant briefings on the evidence bases and debates that inform the development of practice.

In some parts of England, there is no readily available expertise within a specific area of education. The strongest example is that of the gaps in knowledge that some tutors may have in relation to ethnicity and English as Another Language (EAL). To this end, the work of [Multiverse](#) and [NALDIC](#) in providing a web presence of materials can promote awareness by enabling trainees to include realistic planning around these issues in their placements even though the school and ITE institution may have limited experience in these areas.

The constituents of the TTRB

Figure 1 provides a schematic illustration of the different elements of the TTRB. On the left there are ranges of resources that have been reviewed and included in the TTRB whilst the right hand side lists ways in which the user can browse through the materials to locate what is of interest. For example, the materials can be browsed and viewed according to subject, Qualified Teacher Standard, and resource type. In addition, the materials can be searched using established and well known search strategies. (e.g. all the words, any words or exact phrases.)

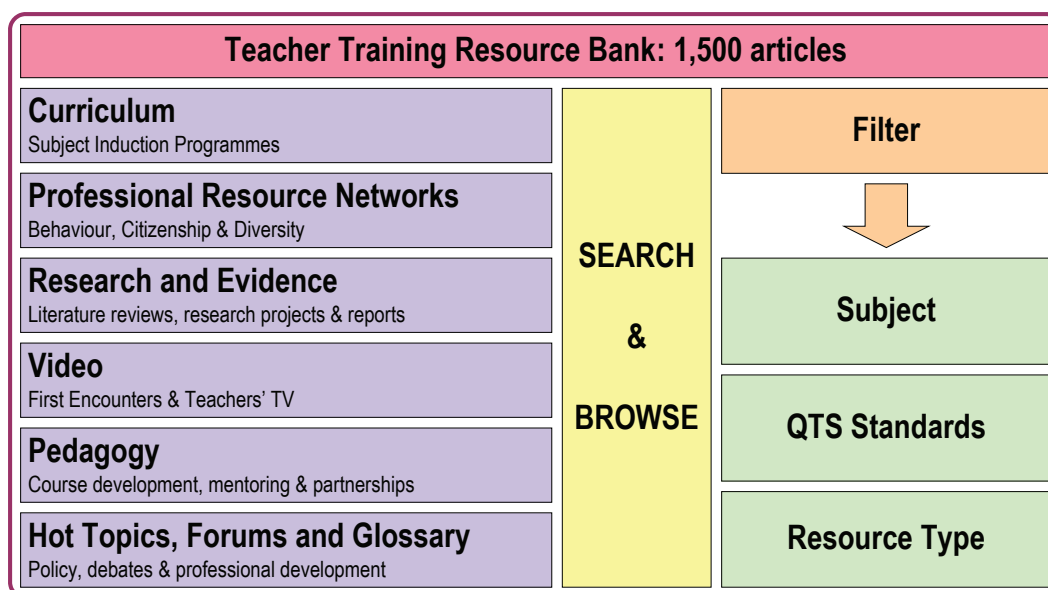


Figure 1: The constituents of the TTRB

Curriculum resources include selected materials from fifteen TDA funded projects to support the induction of subject specialist teacher educators such as mathematics and music ([Subject Resource Networks](#)).

The Professional Resource Networks are large consortia with dedicated websites that aim to develop the knowledge base across ITE in relation to [Diversity](#), [Behaviour](#) and [Citizenship](#). The TTRB includes all the materials from the diversity and behaviour sites in its searches plus selected materials from the citizenship site.

Research and Evidence reports and reviews are from government and non-government funded sources. Those that are relevant to ITE are selected and commented on by consultants and experts from ITE. These commentaries are peer moderated. Research summaries and reviews have different aims, funding, and protocols and this is recognised in the commentaries, which include BERA, NESTA, OfSTED, DfES, SCRE, NFER, ESRC TLRP and EPPI reviews.

Video resources, particularly from the DfES and Teachers TV, are now becoming readily available in downloadable and stream-able formats. Relevant video resources are selected and reviewed for inclusion within the TTRB to highlight concepts as well as the interplay between practice and theory.

The Pedagogy of ITE is featured through the inclusion of reviews of the TDA [Research & Development Awards](#) and a mini portal dedicated to TDA [Partnership Projects](#) on mentorship, the role of school based tutors, placement management and the quality of professional experience.

The TTRB also provide articles on *Hot Topics* (designated as 'Features' on the home page) that relate current issues to the evidence base and guidance, and a *Glossary* that provides definitions and an informed briefing on key concepts in ITE.

E-librarian: A personalised support service

An innovative aspect of the TTRB is the functionality of an [E-librarian](#) service. The E-librarian is physically based at the University of London, Institute of Education library which is the biggest library of its type in Europe. Behind the front pages of the web site, the e-librarian works with reviewers and moderators to classify TTRB reviews and resources. This increases the efficiency and relevance of the search facility of the portal.

Another facility provided by the E-librarian is a 'Question and Answer Service' for teacher education which aims to address any omissions in the TTRB. This facility will suggest sources (web links) of answers and illustrate how that information was located (search methodology) as a professional development resource for the questioner. As such it provides a model for how and where the user can begin to look for answers in the future when they wish to research a topic. The answers to questions help to inform the development of the TTRB and they become a resource in themselves. When visitors search under topics they may retrieve answers to questions as well as articles and reviews.

Some of the questions asked on the website with links to the answers provided by the E-librarian are listed below.

I am doing a reading project, in primary school, to help parents become more involved in the work of the school. Is there any recent research on parent involvement and or reading with parents?...

<http://www.ttrb.ac.uk/ELibrarianQuestionDetails.aspx?questionId=52>

What evidence or knowledge is there about young children's understanding of the future?...

<http://www.ttrb.ac.uk/ELibrarianQuestionDetails.aspx?questionId=54>

What is known about the pedagogy of teaching large groups in HE?...

<http://www.ttrb.ac.uk/ELibrarianQuestionDetails.aspx?questionId=64>

What research material is available for developing student teachers independent learning skills?...

<http://www.ttrb.ac.uk/ELibrarianQuestionDetails.aspx?questionId=70>

(See Appendix 1 for a paper answer to Question 1.)

This facility is a finite resource. It is intended as a last resort when useful resources cannot be located by searching the TTRB. At present, the E-librarian facility can currently handle up to forty questions a week.

Methods and methodologies

Quality assurance procedures:

At the heart of the endeavour of the Teaching Training Resource Bank is a set of inclusion criteria that guide the reviewer, moderators and editors in the selection and evaluation of materials (see Appendix 2). Key criteria are that resources should be authoritative, relevant and accessible. The design of the web site helps the material to meet the last criterion. Reviewers of materials are experts and consultants drawn from across the country with subject and generic expertise in ITE.

Materials can be suggested by anyone using the email address of the ttrb@canterbury.ac.uk. This means that the resource will enter the pipeline and will be prioritised for review by the editors and directed to a consultant who writes a review according to style and content guidelines. Their central task is to describe the resource and to identify its potential or established relevance to trainers and trainees. Reviewers are allocated materials according to their expertise and they may challenge the focus of what they have been asked to review. They for example may know of a better or more relevant or up to date resource. They can then make the case with the editor. This is rare as, usually, the reviewer will suggest additional or complementary resources at the end of their review. Once the review is written, it is then moderated and sent back to the reviewer for comment and alteration. The agreed review is finally put onto the Website's content management system which is the engine behind the dynamic website that tutors and trainees use.

Classification

The review and its source are classified according to a number of classification systems that include resource type, QTS standard, subject and educational phase alongside the British Education Thesaurus that contains over 8,000 descriptors of educational research.

The classification of the material has a number of functions. It helps users of the resource to locate relevant materials quickly. For example, the searcher may be looking for a particular type of resource related to a specific topic and phase of education, for example video clips of assessment for learning in secondary modern language teaching or guidance on the teaching of geometry in Key Stage 2.

The classification also serves a strategic function in that it helps the TTRB team to evaluate the content of the TTRB and to adjust the priorities for material added to the pipeline. However, this data is advisory and only part of the evidence base that informs the development of the TTRB. An editorial commissioning board operates alongside the stakeholder group to identify gaps in the evidence base and advise on further priorities for development.

Results of the research

Feedback, usage figures and evaluation

There are numerous opportunities and facilities within the TTRB for users to feedback on materials within the TTRB. On any page, a user can click and then fill in a form to comment on the content of that page. Materials may have a rating scale at their end for the user to evaluate the utility of the review. Quantitative data is gathered automatically concerning site use. These include the number of logins, searches, article downloads, article popularity ratings and the number of registered users (see Tables 1 and 2).

The TTRB also includes on-line surveys for trainees and teacher educators to gather information on how and when the TTRB is being used. The results of these surveys are automatically compiled within a spreadsheet.

The growing use of the TTRB is evidence of its accessibility and usefulness. In the future it is planned to conduct small scale case studies in order to supplement the quantitative data and gain access to the different ways in which the site is used.

Conclusions and summary

How can the TTRB support University Tutors new to role?

The TTRB can support University Tutors new to role by providing access to:

- the Subject Induction Programmes that have events, support and guidance on becoming a subject tutor,
- evidence bases and debates that inform the pedagogy and management of ITE including outcomes from the Research and Development Awards and the TTA Partnership projects,
- a range of video material that can be used to illustrate or critique practice in a range of settings,
- briefings and commentaries on enduring and emerging issues,
- a model of collegiate working in Higher Education.

A Sustainable Development?

Appendix 3 outlines ways in which the TTRB can become embedded within the different programmes of ITE. By making use of the resource and contributing to it, the TTRB has the

potential to become an enduring and trusted point of reference for ITE tutors and students. The TTRB was launched in England with a series of five regional day workshops for teacher educators. The feedback from these was very positive and teacher educators could see that their contribution to the resource would be important to its long term usefulness. They also noted that the TTRB could be embedded into existing scholarship, research and working practices so that contributions could be made in time recovered from that saved by harnessing the resource.

Maintaining and improving the research & evidence base is a major challenge. If you wish to contribute to the work of the TTRB then please contact the editorial team at ttrb@cant.ac.uk, including the words 'ITEE Spring conference member' as the subject of your email. You can also contact the team using the feedback page on the TTRB.

References

Initial Teacher Education Professional Resource Network (IPRN) for Behaviour: Behaviour 4 Learning. www.behaviour4learning.ac.uk (last accessed Jan 20th 2008).

Initial Teacher Education Professional Resource Network (IPRN) for Diversity: Multiverse. www.multiverse.ac.uk (last accessed Jan 20th 2008).

National Association for Language Development in the Curriculum (NALDIC) ITE Subject Induction Pack and Programme. <http://www.naldic.org.uk/> (last accessed Jan 20th 2008).

The Teacher Training Resource Bank. www.ttrb.ac.uk (last accessed Jan 20th 2008).

Glossary of Terms

BERA	British Educational Research Association
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
EPPI	Evidence for Policy and Practice Information and Coordinating Centre
ESRC	Economic and Social Research Council
ITE	Initial Teacher Education
NALDIC	National Association for Learning Development in the Curriculum
NESTA	National Endowment for Science Technology and the Arts
NFER	National Foundation for Educational Research
OfSTED	Office for Standards in Education
SCRE	Scottish Council for Research in Education
TDA	Training and Development Agency for Schools
TLRP	Teaching and Learning Research Programme
TTRB	Teacher Training Resource Bank

Appendix One

E-librarian answer to question 52

<http://www.ttrb.ac.uk/ELibrarianQuestionDetails.aspx?questionId=52>

I am doing a reading project, in primary school, to help parents become more involved in the work of the school. Is there any recent research on parent involvement and or reading with parents?

There is a great deal of research on reading and parental involvement. For the research aspects, we have looked at the **British Educational Index** and the **Standards Site**. For research and practical ways to involve parents in reading, we looked at the **Institute of Education Library catalogue** and national organisations like the **Reading Agency**, the **National Literacy Trust** and the **Basic Skills Agency**.

The British Education Index contains references from over 300 periodicals and conference papers related to education. If you have the **BEI** at your institution, you may want to search further, or you may be able to find the references below in journals like the *Journal of Research in Reading*, in your own university's library. Some examples from **BEI**:

1. Parent-child picture-book reading, mothers' mental state language and children's theory of mind.
Journal of Child Language, August 2005, vol. 32, no. 3, p. 673–686
Adrian-Juan-E, Clemente-Rosa-A, Villanueva-Lidon, Rieffe-Carolien.
2. Effects of a family literacy program adapting parental intervention to first graders' evolution of reading and writing abilities.
Journal of Early Childhood Literacy, December 2005, vol. 5, no. 3, p. 253–278
Saint-Laurent-Lise, Giasson-Jocelyne
3. Postcards from research-engaged schools.
National Foundation for Educational Research, Slough, 2005, pp. 81
Sharp-Caroline, Eames-Anna, Sanders-Dawn, Tomlinson-Kathryn
4. Paired reading with peers and parents.
Oideas, Spring 2003, no. 50, p. 103–124
Topping-Keith-J
5. “Many hands make light work” but “too many cooks spoil the broth”: representing literacy teaching as a “job for experts” undermines efforts to involve parents. Journal of Curriculum Studies, January 2005, vol. 37, no. 1, p. 3–10
Stooke-Roz.
6. Reading achievement in New Zealand: effects of parental self-efficacy and children's motivation.
Paper presented at the British Educational Research Association Annual Conference, University of Manchester, 16-18 September 2004
Townsend-Michael, Choi-Shuk-Fan.
7. Relationships between parent-teaching activities and emergent literacy in preschool children.
Early Child Development and Care, April 2004, vol. 174, no. 3, p. 215–228,
Haney-Michelle, Hill-Jacqueline.
8. Interactional sequences in shared book-reading between parents and children with histories of language delay.
Journal of Early Childhood Literacy, December 2003, vol. 3, no. 3, p. 249–273
Barton-Ellen, Woude-Judith-Vander.

9. Parent-child pre-school activities can affect the development of literacy skills.
Journal of Research in Reading, October 2002, vol. 25, no. 3, p. 241–258
Wood-Clare
10. The impact of a collaborative family/school reading programme on student reading rate.
Journal of Research in Reading, February 2002, vol. 25, no. 1, p. 43–53 Schreck-Donna,
Kelly-Vance-Lisa.

The **Standards Site** is another good place to find educational research. Some references of interest include:

1. The effects of interactive reading homework and parent involvement on children's inference responses by: Bailey, L. B., Slivern, S. B., Brabham, E., & Ross, M. (2004) in Early Childhood Education Journal, 32 (3) pp. 173–178 <http://www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/research/themes/literacy/interactiveworkandparents/>
2. Digest: Parental involvement in the development of children's reading skill: a five-year longitudinal study by Sénéchal, M., and LeFevre, J. Department of Psychology, Carleton University, Ottawa, Canada in Child Development, March/April 2002, Vol. 73, No. 2, pp. 445–460 http://www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/research/themes/early_years/MonMar81353352004/
3. Raising standards in reading: Achieving children's targets.
http://www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/primary/publications/literacy/1160815/pns_nls131705stnds_read.pdf
4. Reading for purpose and pleasure: an evaluation of the teaching of reading in primary schools.
http://www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/primary/publications/literacy/1123131/pns_hmi2393read_purpose.pdf
5. Parental Involvement in Raising the Achievement of Primary School Pupils: Why Bother? by Edwards, Anne and Warin, Jo in Oxford Review of Education, 1999, Vol. 25, No. 3, pp. 325-341. <http://www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/research/themes/parents/ThuJun191655242003/>
6. Implementation of the NLS: Final report. Parental responsibilities. <http://www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/primary/publications/literacy/63533/651497/920377>

For research and for practical ideas for involving parents with reading, check the Institute of Education Library catalogue at <http://libserv.ioe.ac.uk/uhtbin/webcat/>. Below is just a sampling of research and practical ideas you may be able to find in your own library:

1. On reading books to children: parents and teachers.
Stahl, Steven A. (2003)
2. Language development and learning to read: the scientific study of how language development affects reading skill.
McGuinness, Diane (2005)
3. Handbook of early literacy research. Vol. 2.
Dickinson, David K. (2005)
4. Literacy, home, and school: research and practice in teaching literacy with parents
Hannon, Peter (1995).
5. Working together with reading: a pack to help teachers to work with parents and carers on the teaching of reading – National Centre for Language and Literacy.
Goodwin, Prue

6. Skills for families: working together to extend and embed family literacy, language and numeracy. Resources.
Skills for Life Strategy Unit (2005)
7. Reading Agency and National Literacy Trust
Got kids? Get reading! [multimedia]: improving family literacy and learning through reading for pleasure.
Reading Agency (2005)
8. Read with me.
Basic Skills Agency (2004)
9. Read and count: key words.
Basic Skills Agency (2003)

From the list above, you can see resources from a variety of publishers and agencies. You will probably want to search the following more extensively:

1. **The National Literacy Trust** with reading campaigns and “Advice and tips for parents and carers” <http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/> and <http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/rif/parentsandcarers/index.htm>
2. **The Reading Agency** at <http://www.readingagency.org.uk/>
3. **National Centre for Language and Literacy** at <http://www.ncll.org.uk/>
4. **Basic Skills Agency** and publications for reading and family learning <http://www.basic-skills.co.uk/>

And lastly, for quick advice, **Topmarks** “10 tips on hearing your child read” <http://www.topmarks.co.uk/Parents/ReadingTips.aspx>

There is a wealth of information out there for further reading.

Appendix Two

TTRB INCLUSION CRITERIA

(From TTRB Inclusion Criteria and Tagging Guidelines Ver. 1.1)

All materials included in the TTRB must be authoritative, relevant, credible and easily accessible. Ideally, they will have been subjected to peer review or the quality assurance procedures of governmental and/or non governmental organisations and bodies. Commentaries on materials must also recognise the different audiences and starting points for professional development.

In addition, all materials must meet at least one of the following criteria

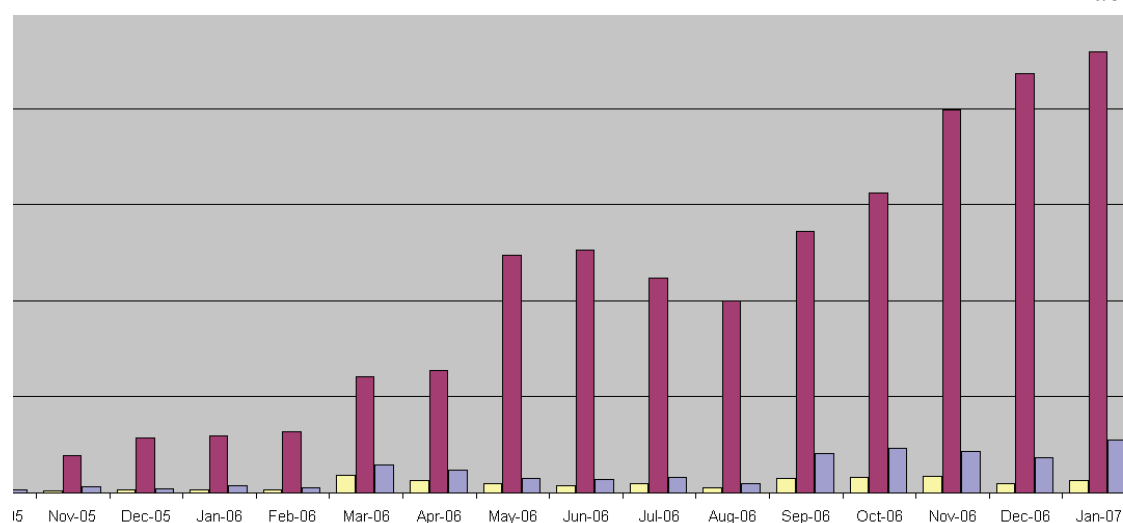
- A. Provide research and evidence underpinning educational pedagogy.
- B. Provide evidence of past policy and underpinning guidance that gave rise to current practice.
- C. Enable users to engage with key professional debates and their respective evidence bases.
- D. Are concerned with ITE and CPD with an audience of tutors, mentors, teachers, HLTAs and trainees that build capacity to meet established and emerging national professional standards.
- E. Reflect a view of learning in schools and beyond that recognises and includes the contributions of other partners and factors in this process e.g. leadership, ethos, support systems, family, culture, outside agencies and that of the learner themselves.
- F. Reflect the broad social nature of learning in schools and early learning settings and the need to fully recognise the social and academic aspects of the curriculum i.e. behaviour and attendance, PSHE and Citizenship.
- G. Support the development of skills, knowledge and understanding through the application of assessment, planning, monitoring and reflection in the context of any existing knowledge bases and guidance.
- H. Map areas of informed debate and that engage professionals in positioning themselves in relation to that debate.
- I. Increase inclusion and achievement.

Appendix Three

Suggestions on how to make the best use of the resources on TTRB:

Increasing Awareness:	Maintaining Use:	Your Action Points:
Add links to the TTRB in your course/ staff virtual learning environments (VLE) eg WebCT, Blackboard and Moodle	Include links to news items and events from the TTRB in your on-line bulletins or newsletter	
Email a useful page to a colleague using the facility within TTRB	Encourage staff to register to receive TTRB newsletters	
Demonstrate the content of the TTRB to colleagues at a staff meeting	Visit the site when you are planning lectures and redesigning your courses.	
Ensure that the TTRB is listed in the bibliographies for students	Include reference to the TTRB within your course and validation documentation	
Use and adapt the PowerPoint presentations from the launch	Link the use of the TTRB to your department's strategic plan	
Developing Skills:	Increasing Ownership:	
Hold a workshop on how the TTRB can be used for staff and invite library colleagues	Give feedback on the pages you use using the menu item at the top of the screen of the TTRB	
Show a colleague how to use the TTRB	Suggest and Contribute material to the TTRB using by emailing trb@cant.ac.uk	
Distribute the TTRB site tutorial or even upload it onto student and staff VLEs	Use the material on the TTRB to build an on-line course booklet or programme in your VLE	

Table 1



Daily average of registered logons, articles retrieved daily and searches (Sept 05-Jan 2007)

Kopsavilkums

Skolotāju izglītības pētījumu banka (www.ttrb.ac.uk) ir projekts, kuru atbalsta Anglijas izglītības un attīstības aģentūra skolām (TDA). Projekts tika uzsākts 2006. gada martā ar šādiem mērķiem:

- izstrādāt un piedāvāt profesionālo zināšanu bāzi, kas veidotu pamatu skolotāju izglītībai;
- paplašināt kvalitatīvu iespēju apjomu ar materiāliem, īpaši video;
- pastiprināt pētniecību skolotāju izglītībā un zināšanu ieguvē;
- veicināt izmaiņas, apvienojot teoriju, diskusijas un praksi;
- piedāvāt individualizētu pakalpojumu docētājiem.

Projekta elektroniskais tīkls aptver kolēģu atsauksmes un materiālu kopsavilkumus, kuri ir klasificēti pēc iespējām izmantot informācijas meklētājus un pastiprinot pieejamību. Platforma patlaban aptver divus miljonus dokumentu, kurus ievietojuši skolotāji un docētāji – pa 3000 vienībām dienā. Šis raksts vērtē resursu bāzi, tās attīstību un potenciālās iespējas.

AUDZĒKŅU EKOLOĢISKĀS ATTIEKSMES ATTĪSTĪBA MĀCĪBU PROCESĀ BŪVNICĪBAS SPECIALITĀTĒ PROFESIONĀLĀS IZGLĪTĪBAS SKOLĀ

DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENTS' ECOLOGICAL ATTITUDE IN THE STUDIES OF BUILDING IN A VOCATIONAL SCHOOL

Andris Bērziņš

Mg. paed., Rīgas Būvamatniecības vidusskola

Anotācija

Rakstā atspoguļota iespēja ieviest izglītībā ilgtspējīgas attīstības principu, veicinot profesionālās izglītības kvalitāti. Ekoloģiski orientēta mācību procesa un ekoloģiski orientēta pedagoģiskā darbības stila ieviešana būvniecības specialitātē profesionālās izglītības skolā veicina audzēkņu ekoloģiskās attieksmes attīstību. Rakstā aplūkota tādas ekoloģiskas personības veidošanās, kas spētu risināt ilgtspējību būvražošanā, tādējādi veicinot ilgtspējīgas sabiedrības attīstību.

Autors ir pārliecināts, ka audzēkņu ekoloģiskās attieksmes attīstību būvniecības specialitātē profesionālās izglītības skolā iespējams veicināt, ieviešot izglītības programmās ekoloģiskās būvniecības mācību priekšmetu, kurā atspoguļoti būvražošanas ekoloģiskie principi. Būtiskākais kritērijs, apgūstot ekoloģisko būvniecību, ir dabas vides un cilvēku sabiedrības, kā arī būvniecības un dabas vides degradēšanās procesu mīkstināšanu izpratne.

Atslēgvārdi: ekoloģija, attieksmes attīstība, mācību process profesionālās izglītības skolā, būvniecība.

Ievads

Pētījuma mērķis ir izvērtēt cilvēka un dabas vides mijiedarbību arhitektūrā, būvētās vides plānošanā un būvniecības procesā, kā arī šīs mijiedarbības saistību ar profesionālo izglītību. Lai cilvēka un dabas vides mijiedarbība pētāmajā jomā atbilstu mūsdienu ekoloģijas atziņām, profesionālajā izglītībā jāveicina audzēkņu ekoloģiskās attieksmes attīstība.

Pētījuma uzdevumi:

- noteikt ekoloģiskās attieksmes veidus un kritērijus, kas raksturo audzēkņu ekoloģiskās attieksmes attīstību mācību procesā būvniecības specialitātē;
- noteikt ekoloģiski orientēta mācību satura komponentus būvniecības specialitātē;
- izstrādāt modeļus, kas raksturo audzēkņu ekoloģiskās izpratnes un attieksmes veidošanos, kā arī ekoloģiskās izglītības transformēšanos dabas videi draudzīgā – ekoloģiskā rīcībā.

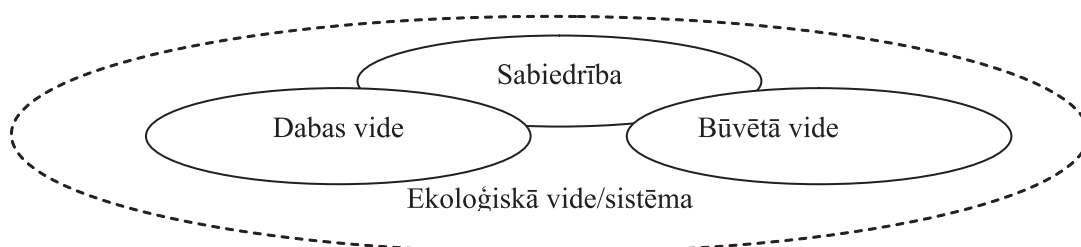
Atziņa, ka cilvēks ir dabas daļa un tādēļ līdzatbildīgs par to, liek mainīt domāšanu un rīcību arī arhitektūrā un būvētās vides plānošanā. Būvniecība, tāpat kā cilvēka cita veida saimnieciskā darbība, ietekmē dabu. Senāk, kad tehnikas attīstības līmenis vēl neļāva sasniegt mūsdienu saimnieciskās darbības vērienu, tieši ekoloģiskās kopsakarības bija cilvēku dzīves un arī tradicionālās būvniecības pamatnosacījums. Tādēļ mūsu priekšteču zināšanās var smelties ierosmes un, saistot tās ar mūsdienu zināšanām par būvniecības tehnoloģijām, izmantot ekoloģiskās būvniecības ideju un principu attīstīšanai.

Būvniecības tehnoloģiju progress nav pretrunā ar ekoloģiskās būvniecības realizēšanas pamatnosacījumiem, gluži otrādi – piemērots to izmantojums samazina vai līdzsvaro dabas vides degradēšanās procesus. Ikvienā konkrētā gadījumā jānovērtē dabas vides piesārņojums,

kas radies būvražošanas procesā. Kapitālā celtniecība ir ilgstošs un bieži vien arī inerts un neelastīgs process, kur kļūdas atklājas tikai pēc ilgāka laika. Daudzas līdz šim uzbūvētās ēkas un inženierbūves, apdzīvotas vietas un pilsētu mikrorajoni ir nozīmīgākie dabas vides piesārņojuma avoti, tajos bieži vien nav labvēlīgi darba un sadzīves apstākļi. Līdz ar apbūves blīvuma palielināšanos, ēku inženiertehnisko sistēmu nepilnībām un iedzīvotāju bezatbildīgas uzvedības dēļ nenovēršami pieaug neatgriezeniskas izmaiņas dabas vidē.

Ekoloģijas principi jāievēro arī būvētās vides plānošanā, māju un apdzīvotu vietu uzskatot par ekosistēmu, kas darbojas līdzīgi dabiskajām ekosistēmām. Tomēr ekoloģisko principu aprūtināšana realizēšana būvniecībā bieži saistīta ar likumdošanas pārkāpumiem vai pasūtītājam labvēlīgu likumu interpretāciju, kas pieļauj, piemēram, nelikumīgi apbūvēt kāpu zonu, būvēt dabas liegumu zonās, būvējot degradēt unikālas ainavas.

Zināšanu līmenis un tehniskās iespējas ļauj likvidēt vides postījumu sekas un attīstīt cilvēku vadītas noslēgtas ekoloģiskas sistēmas, kas harmonētu ar apkārtējām dabiskajām ekosistēmām. Šajā jomā lielu ieguldījumu var dot ekoloģiskās būvniecības principu realizēšana. Autors uzskata, ka sabiedrība, būvētā vide un dabas vide ir ekosistēmas, to mijšakarība atspoguļota 1. attēlā.



1. att. Sabiedrības, tās veidotās (būvētās) vides un dabas vides mijšakarība (aut.)

Ilgspēja izglītībā un būvražošanā. Ilgtspējīgas izglītības attīstības principa ieviešana profesionālās izglītības skolā var veicināt būvniecības speciālistu vērtību sistēmas pilnveidošanos un attieksmes attīstību atbilstoši ekocentriska paradigmai. Ilgtspējība izglītībā sasniedzama, ieviešot dziļekoloģijas jeb cilvēkekoloģijas principu. Izglītība jāsaista ar izpratnes veidošanos par ilgtspējīgas jeb līdzsvarotas attīstības iespējām uz Zemes. Tieši izglītībai ir būtiska loma audzēkņu ekocentriskas apziņas veidošanās nosacījumu aktualizēšanā un realizēšanā. Cilvēka ekocentriskas apziņas galvenās vērtības ir dzīvība un cilvēka veselība.

Ekoloģiskās krīzes globālais raksturs noteic to, ka izmaiņas cilvēka apziņā panākamas ar globālu ekoloģisko pamatprincipu ieviešanu izglītībā, attīstot cilvēku kā ekoloģisku personību, kuru raksturo ekoloģiskā gudrība – videi draudzīga ekoloģiska attieksme, pārliecība un rīcība / uzvedība. Sabiedrības motivācija apgūt zināšanas, un uz zināšanām balstīta darbība (autora pasvītrojums) ikvienā nozarē un darbavietā *Lisabonas stratēģijā (2000)* ir ierindota starp galvenajiem progresu virzošiem spēkiem.

Adaptējot šo atziņu, nepieciešams motivēt ekoloģisko zināšanu apgūšanas nepieciešamību, veicinot sabiedrības ekoloģisku rīcību / uzvedību / darbību.

Autors ir pārliecināts, ka **cilvēka ekoloģijas** izmantošana izglītībā var ietekmēt ekoloģiski virzītas izglītības vides veidošanos profesionālās izglītības skolā, kuras saturs ir ekoloģiski orientēts mācību process. Tas sekmētu ekoloģiskas personības attīstību no *Es – EGO* uz *Es – EKO* un palielinātu ilgtspējīgas sabiedrības izveidošanās varbūtību.

Oslo Universitātes filosofijas profesors A. Ness (Ness, Heukelands, 2001) ir šī virziena pamatlicējs. 20. gs. 70. gados šis virziens guva atzinību un tika adaptēts pedagoģijas zinātnē.

F. Kapra (Capra, 1996) ekoloģiskās filosofijas koncepcijā norāda, ka cilvēka dzīves kvalitātei un vides kvalitātei ir savstarpēji korelējošas pazīmes, kas atkarīgas no ekosistēmas mentālā

komponenta, ko veido cilvēka garīgās un morālās vērtības. Tiek akcentēts komplementaritātes princips starp divām tendencēm – “ekopieeju”, t. i., uz cilvēka darbību, kas orientēta dzīves vides kvalitātes pilnveidošanai mīļsakarības kontekstā ar apkārtējo vidi, un “egopieeju”, t. i., uz sevi orientētu darbību.

E. Vainess (1990) definē divus orientācijas virzienus filosofijā, proti, ekocentrētā un ego centrētā orientācija, kas nosaka arī cilvēka uzvedību, rīcību konkrētajā vidē un situācijā. Šīs divas pieejas filosofijā nosacīti var apzīmēt kā “cilvēks – devējs apkārtējai videi” un “cilvēks – ņēmējs no apkārtējās vides”, kas ietekmē attieksmes sistēmu attiecībā pret sevi un apkārtējo pasauli, cilvēka uzvedību vidē, līdz ar to arī cilvēka un vides savstarpējās mijiedarbības raksturu.

Būvniecības apjomi, temps un ietekme pašlaik pārsniedz specifisko un reģionālo ierobežojumu. Ignorējot ekoloģisko imperatīvu, būvniecība kļuvusi par atvērtu, nestabilu antropogēnu ekosistēmu, un tā skar un ietekmē ekosistēmu stabilitāti visā pasaulē. Daudzviet dabas vides ekoloģiskais līdzsvars ir ievērojami izjaukts, un ir apdraudēta cilvēces eksistence. Apgūstot tikai dabas zinību priekšmetus, kas iekļauti vispārējās izglītības programmās, un tikai tradicionālos būvniecības mācību priekšmetus, kas iekļauti profesionālās izglītības programmās, netiek kvalitatīvi veicināta būvspeciālistu ekoloģiskās apziņas veidošanās un attīstība. Nepārdomāta apbūve, tuvredzīga reģionālā plānošana un būvprojektēšana, novecojušu būvtehnoloģiju un ekoloģiski kaitīgu būvmateriālu izmantošana, energoietilpīgu ēku (kuras rada izmešus un atkritumus) un inženierbūvju ekspluatēšana ir iemesls citādas – ekoloģiskās attieksmes veidošanās un attīstības nepieciešamībai. Ilggadējā pedagoģiskajā praksē autors pārliecinājies, ka pedagoģiskajā sistēmā un darbībā vērojami trūkumi: bieži audzēkņu teorētiskajām zināšanām reālajā būvniecībā nav izmantojuma, audzēkņu zināšanas un prasmes nav pietiekamas ekoloģiskās rīcības nodrošināšanai, skolotājiem ir nepietiekamas teorētiskās zināšanas pedagoģijā un psiholoģijā, nepietiekami nodrošināta materiāli tehniskā bāze, skolotāji ir nepietiekami profesionāli sagatavoti metodiskajā jomā, mācību procesā nepietiekami izvērstas sistēmiskuma princips, nepietiekams valsts finansējums izglītības nodrošinājumam skolās, izglītības sistēmas attīstības veicināšana ir lēns un pakāpenisks process.

Ilgtermiņā ekoloģiski orientētas personības profesionālā darbība reālajā dzīvē var ietekmēt sabiedrisko domu un veicināt ekoloģiskas sabiedrības veidošanos. Ekoloģiskās attieksmes attīstību autors galvenokārt pētījis kā audzēkņu profesionālās darbības komponentu. Teorētiskās atziņas un praktisko pētījumu rezultāti liecina par to, ka mērķtiecīgas izglītības programmas, ekoloģiskās būvniecības mācību priekšmeta un ekoloģiski orientēta mācību procesa, kā arī skolas ekoloģiskās pedagoģiskās darbības realizēšana nodrošina ekoloģiskās attieksmes attīstību.

Ekoloģiskā būvniecība. Autors uzskata, ka būvniecības radītā dabas vides degradēšanās samazināma, ieviešot profesionālās izglītības būvniecības specialitātes programmās ekoloģiskās būvniecības mācību priekšmetu. Šāda mācību priekšmeta saturam jānodrošina integrējoša – visas profesionālās izglītības programmas ekoloģiski vērtējoša – funkcija.

Ekoloģiskās būvniecības būtību autors definējis šādi:

- ekoloģiskā būvniecība ir *celtniecības nozares attīstības un realizēšanas virziens*, kā arī vides inženierzinātnes apakšnozare par vides estētiku, vides aizsardzību, drošu un videi draudzīgu būvju celtniecību, videi draudzīgu būvmateriālu un būvtehnoloģiju izmantošanu, būvatkritumu apsaimniekošanu dabas resursu piesārņojuma un patēriņa samazināšanai;
- ekoloģiskā būvniecība ir *ekoloģiskās izglītības virziens* – tās ir zināšanas un izpratne par cilvēka darbībā realizētu būvniecību un vides savstarpējo mijiedarbību, kas veido cilvēka piederības izjūtu konkrētai dzīves telpai un vērtējošu attieksmi pret pasauli; veido videi draudzīgu attieksmi – domāšanu, pārliecību un videi draudzīgu aktīvu rīcību;

- ekoloģiskā būvniecība ir **mācību priekšmets**, kas integrēts profesionālās izglītības programmās būvniecības specialitātē par videi draudzīgas būvniecības realizēšanu, kā arī var būt ieviešams atsevišķu tematu veidā profesionālo mācību priekšmetu saturā, piemēram, būvprojektēšanā, ēku daļās un arhitektūrā, būvmateriālos, būvkonstrukcijās, būvdarbu tehnoloģijā un būvmašīnās.

Ieviešot ekoloģiskās būvniecības mācību priekšmetu, tas kļūtu par ekoloģiskās izglītības komponentu skolu profesionālās izglītības programmās būvniecības specialitātē. To varētu panākt,

- izvēloties optimālu ekoloģiskās būvniecības mācību priekšmeta ieviešanas stratēģiju,
- veicinot mācību un audzināšanas programmu izstrādāšanu atbilstoši izglītības ilgtspējības aspektam,
- veicot pētniecību par ekoloģiskās būvniecības izglītības saturu, kas aprobējams mācību procesā,
- izstrādājot mācību materiālus ekoloģiskās būvniecības mācību priekšmetā,
- izmantojot mācību procesā ekoloģiski orientētas mācību metodes,
- izstrādājot sadarbības programmas un iesaistot to īstenošanā sadarbības partnerus – ārpuskolas organizācijas (darba devējus).

Kopveseluma pieeja un starpdisciplinārie pētījumi. Pamatojot kopveseluma pieejas un sistēmiskās domāšanas nepieciešamību, A. Broks (1998) uzsver domu, ka mums visai bieži pietrūkst tik nepieciešamās apziņas skaidrības izglītības problēmu pamatnostādņēs, jo strauji pieaugusi ikdienas dzīves daudzveidība un temps ievērojami traucē vispārīgu orientāciju un pārdomātu, saskaņotu darbību īstenošanu. Pārāk bieži izglītības vadītāji nepietiekami izjūt vai izprot vadāmās darbības un nesaskata šajās darbībās citu darbību kopumu.

Starpdisciplināro pētījumu nepieciešamību pamato V. Frankls (Франкл, 1990), kurš izsaka atziņu, ka mēs dzīvojam šauras specializācijas laikmetā, kas īstenību liek izzināt tikai no konkrētā redzespunkta, tādējādi tas var novest pie īstenības izkropļojuma. I. Žogla (Žogla, 2003) publikācijā *Integrācija pedagoģijā: ievads diskusijai* V. Frankla atziņu kontekstā raksta par to, ka mūsdienu specializācijas laikmetā zinātņu nozares iedziļinās savā priekšmeta būtībā un no zinātniekiem ir atkarīgs, cik spēcīgi konkrētās zinātnes nozarē būs atspoguļota īstenības daļa vai aspekts.

Attieksmes veidi un kritēriji. Katrs cilvēks, arī skolotājs un audzēknis, ir neatkārtojama vērtība, un viņu raksturo noteikta attieksme saskarsmē ar lietām un parādībām. Attieksme veidojas, attīstās un pilnveidojas visa mūža garumā.

“Cilvēku saskarsmes raksturs, izturēšanās veids, cilvēka rīcības, uzvedības aktīvā saistība, iekšējā sakarība ar apkārtējām lietām. Cilvēka attieksmes raksturu nosaka viņa (subjektīvā) vērtīborientācija, no kuras viņš atvasina savas uzvedības normas. Indivīda vērtīborientācija un viņa pieredze savstarpēji nosaka viena otru. Skola veido skolēnos attieksmi pret sevi, citiem cilvēkiem, dzīvi, pasauli, balstoties uz kultūras mantojumu, iedzīvinot kultūras vērtības, kas ne vienmēr saskan ar skolēnu ikdienas dzīves vērojumiem un vērtējumiem.” Šādi jēdziens *attieksme* skaidrots pedagoģijas terminu vārdnīcā (2000).

A. Špona iedala un apraksta šādus attieksmes veidus: *attieksme pret sevi; citiem; darbu; kultūru; valsti, sabiedrību; dabu*. Zinātniece attieksmi definē kā integrētu personības īpašību, kas veidojas dzīvesdarbības pieredzes, zināšanu apguves, pārdzīvojuma un gribas piepūles vienībā un izpaužas vērtībās, mērķos, ideālos un normās. Atkarībā no attieksmes veidošanās avota to iedala situatīvā, paradumu un pašregulācijas attieksmē (1. tab.).

Attieksmes veidi (Špona, 2001)

Darbības situācija	Pārdzīvojums	Situatīvā attieksme
Sistemātisks vingrinājums	Paradumi	Paradumu attieksme
Darbības novērtēšana un koriģēšana	Pašanalīze Paškontrolē	Pašregulācijas attieksme

Darbības situācijā pārdzīvojuma izraisītu attieksmi sauc par situatīvu jeb epizodisku. Tai audzēkņa rīcībā ir dažāds iedarbības ilgums – atkarībā no pārdzīvojuma spēka un izraisītajām emocijām. *Paradumi* parasti veido noturīgu attieksmi. Tie uzskatāmi par cilvēka automatizētu darbību, kas nostiprinās sistemātiskos vingrinājumos pieredzes uzkrāšanas procesā, zināšanu apguves un prakses vienotībā. Paradumu veidošanos stimulē pieaugušo dzīves pozīcija, paraugs, pārliecināšana, apkārtējā vide (Špona, 2001). Attieksmi, kas balstīta uz paradumiem, sauc par paradumu attieksmi. Cilvēkam ir atbildības paradums, tas var būt izteikts spilgti un noturīgi, ja cilvēks izjūt atbildību par savu rīcību. Taču tas var būt arī nenoturīgs, ja nepieciešama cilvēka darbības kontrole. Atbildības paradums ir vāji izteikts, ja cilvēks un viņa rīcība viegli ietekmējama. Radot apstākļus audzēkņu radošas darbības un patstāvīgas domāšanas attīstībai, tiek nodrošināta pašaudzināšana un pašnovērtēšana, kas sekmē pašregulācijas prasmes veidošanos, balstītu uz savas darbības / rīcības sistemātisku analīzi. Šāda pieeja veicina audzēkņu pašregulācijas attieksmes veidošanos.

V. Zelmenis uzskata, ka attieksme ir plašs jēdziens – kategorija, ko grūti definēt. Ar attieksmi saprotam cilvēka psihisku saikni ar kādu apkārtnes objektu – cilvēku, lietu, parādību, darbību, vērtību, vērojumu, ideju, uzskatiem par dzīvi kopumā. Tā var izpausties atziņās, uzskatos un principos, emocionālā pārdzīvojumā vai aktīvā rīcībā. Attieksme var izpausties aktīvā darbībā, tā var būt neitrāla / pasīva. Abpusēji aktīvu attieksmi starp cilvēkiem sauc par attiecībām. Attieksme var būt labvēlīga, noraidoša, stabila vai īslaicīga (Zelmenis, 2000).

Ekoloģiskās attieksmes attīstība. Autors uzskata, ka personības ekoloģiskajā attieksmē integrējas nozīmīgākie personības attieksmes veidi – attieksme saskarsmē ar dabas vidi, attieksmes kultūras komponents, attieksme attiecībā pret sevi, citiem, sabiedrību, valsti. Mācību procesā ir jāattīsta pašregulācijas attieksme, saistot to ar situatīvās un paraduma attieksmes nostiprināšanu. Attieksme ir atkarīga no attieksmes objekta nozīmīguma, intereses par to saistībā ar cilvēka darbību un viņa vērtību sistēmu. To novēro personības socializācijas procesā.

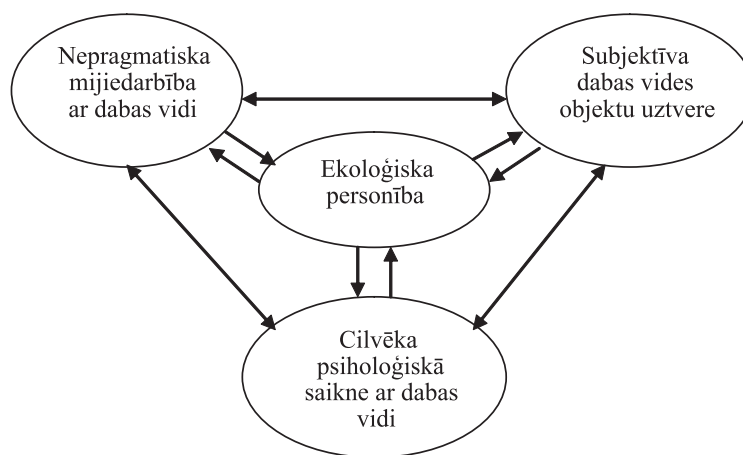
Indivīdam socializācijas procesā veidojas arvien jaunas attieksmes kvalitātes pret sevi, citiem, lietām, parādībām, procesiem, visu, kas viņu aptver. Attieksme atklāj cilvēka rakstura struktūru. Pedagoģiskajā aspektā attieksme izpaužas cilvēka vērtībās, normās, dzīvesdarbības mērķos, principos un ideālos, kas ir cilvēka vajadzību un darbības paņēmieni izvēles pamatkritēriji.

Par ekoloģiskās izglītības mērķi tiek izvirzīta ekoloģiskas personības veidošanās veicināšana. Ekoloģiskai personībai raksturīgs ekoloģiskās apziņas ekocentriskais tips, kas izpaužas ciešā cilvēka *psiholoģiskā saiknē ar dabas vidi, subjektīvā dabas vides objektu uztverē, nepragmatiskā mijdarbībā ar dabas vidi*. Autors ekoloģiskas personības veidošanos atspoguļojis 2. attēlā.

Cilvēka psiholoģiskā saikne ar dabas vidi atspoguļojas priekšstatā par cilvēka un dabas vienotību.

- Cilvēks iekļaujas dabas vidē kā ekoloģisku mijdarbību sarežģītās sistēmas elements. Nepārdomāta darbība var radīt neparedzamas sekas ekosistēmas līdzsvara izjaukšanā, tādēļ ekoloģiska personība cenšas būt ekoloģiski uzmanīga.

- Visi ekosistēmas funkcionēšanas likumi attiecināmi arī uz cilvēku, un tie viņam ir tikpat svarīgi kā jebkuras citas dzīvas radības eksistence, tādēļ ekoloģiska personība cenšas būt ekoloģiski mērena, un valda princips – izmantot dabas vidi saprātīgi, domājot par tās saglabāšanu.
- Dabas vide ir ne tikai materiālo resursu avots, bet arī cilvēka personības un viņa garīgās attīstības faktors, tādēļ ekoloģiska personība tiecas pēc psiholoģiskas vienotības ar dabas vidi, kas ļauj realizēties cilvēka garīgajam potenciālam.
- Sabiedrība ietekmē dabas vidi, savukārt dabas vide ietekmē sabiedrības attīstības raksturu, tādēļ ekoloģiska personība cenšas ietekmēt cilvēkus, sabiedriskās, ekonomiskās un politiskās struktūras, lai to darbība būtu ekoloģiski mērķtiecīga, neradītu neatgriezeniskas pārmaiņas dabas vidē, kas nelabvēlīgi ietekmētu sabiedrības attīstību. Ekoloģiska personība cenšas būt ekoloģiski aktīva.



2. att. Ekoloģiskas personības veidošanās – ekoloģiskās izglītības mērķis (aut.)

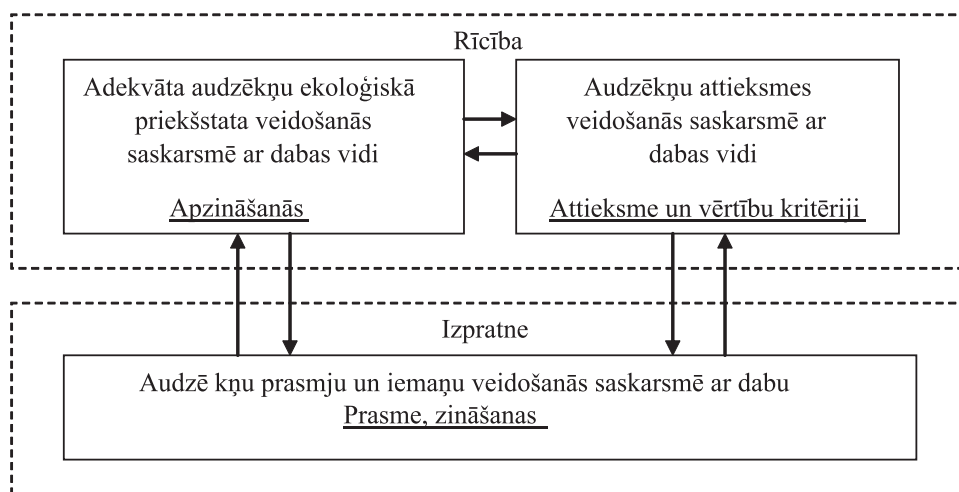
Ekoloģiskai personībai raksturīga subjektīva dabas vides objektu uztvere.

- Dabas vides objekti ietekmē ekoloģisku personību – mijiedarbība ar tiem attiecināma uz ētisko normu un likumu darbības sfēru.
- Dabas vides objekti maina ekoloģiskas personības uzskatus, vērtējumu, attieksmi attiecībā pret sevi, lietām, dabu, cilvēkiem un valsti.
- Dabas vides objekti ir partneri ekoloģiskai personībai tās ekoloģiskajā darbībā.

Ekoloģiskai personībai raksturīga tiekšanās ietekmēt dabas vidi nepragmatiski, kas izpaužas

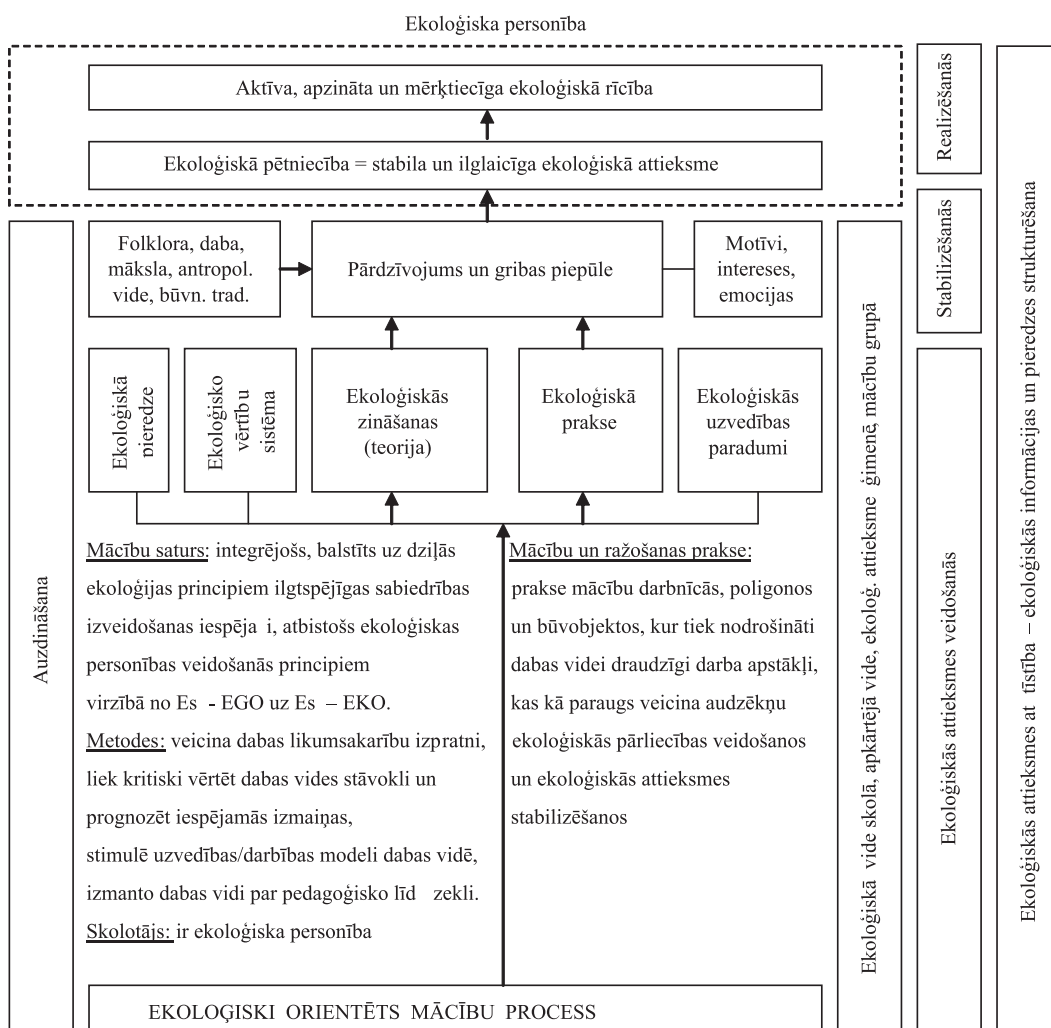
- dabas vides objektu un kompleksu estētiskā apgūšanā;
- izziņas darbībā, kas vērsta dabas vides iepazīšanā, gūstot gandarījumu;
- mijiedarbībā ar dabas vides objektiem, realizējot nepieciešamību būt saskarsmē ar tiem;
- dabas vides aizsargāšanā ne tikai “nākotnes pragmatisma” vārdā, t. i., saglabājot dabas vidi nākamajām paaudzēm tās turpmākajai izmantošanai, bet gan rūpējoties un nodrošinot dabas vides pastāvēšanu.

Tieši priekšstata veidošanās procesā notiek cilvēka un dabas vides *psiholoģiskās saiknes attīstīšanās*, kas raksturīga ekoloģiskai personībai. Tādēļ, risinot šo ekoloģiskās izglītības uzdevumu, nepieciešams veidot personības sapratni par cilvēka un dabas vienotību. Autors piedāvā shēmu (3. att.), kurā atspoguļota audzēkņu personības ekoloģiskās izpratnes un ekoloģiskās rīcības attīstība mācību procesā būvniecības specialitātē profesionālās izglītības skolā.



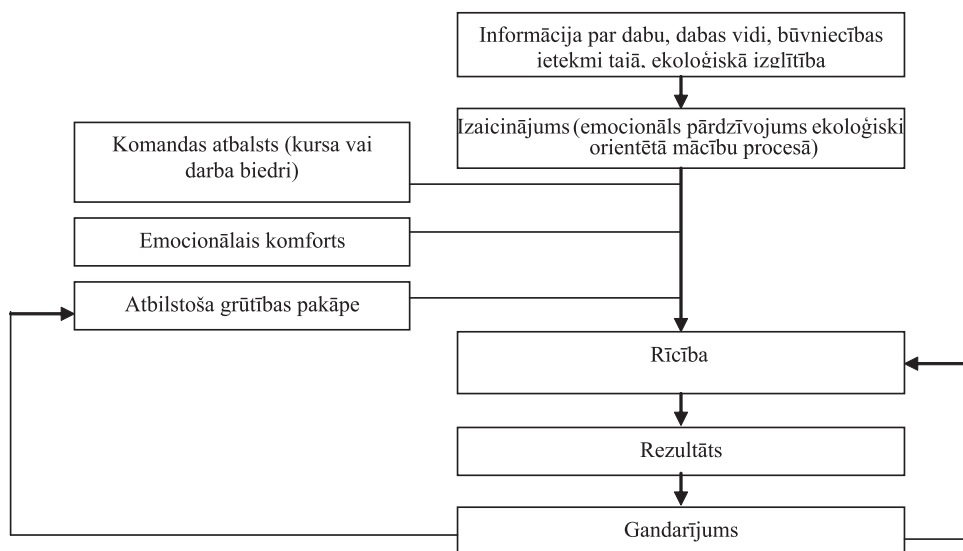
3. att. Audzēkņu ekoloģiskās izpratnes un rīcības veicināšana būvniecības specialitātē (aut.)

Mācību procesu ietekmē ekoloģiskā audzināšana ģimenē, klasē, skolā, sabiedrībā, prakses un darba vietā, kā arī ekoloģiskā vide mājās, skolā, prakses un darba vietā, ko autors atspoguļojis 4. attēlā.



4. att. Audzēkņu ekoloģiskās attieksmes attīstība ekoloģiski orientētā mācību procesā būvniecības specialitātē profesionālās izglītības skolā (aut.)

Ekoloģiskā attieksme veidojas, stabilizējas un realizējas aktīvā, apzinātā un mērķtiecīgā ekoloģiskā rīcībā. Gūstot gandarījumu par savas darbības rezultātu, persona iedvesmojas jaunai rīcībai, iespējams, citā – augstākā grūtības pakāpē vai virzienā, ko autors atspoguļojis 5. attēlā.



5. att. Informācijas par dabas vidi un ekoloģiskās izglītības transformēšanās dabas videi draudzīgā – ekoloģiskā rīcībā (aut.)

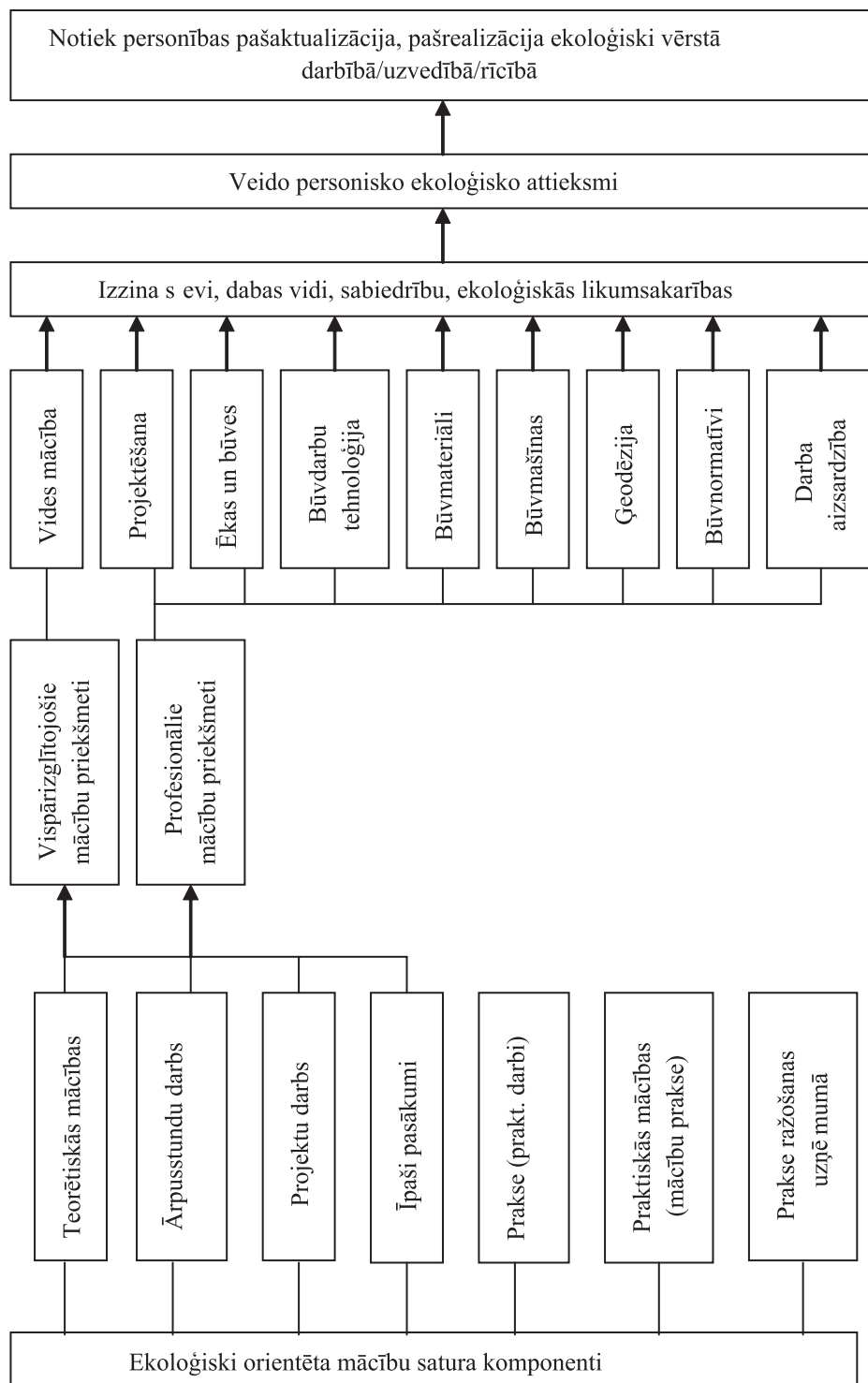
Autors 6. attēlā parādījis audzēkņu ekoloģiskās attieksmes attīstības veicināšanas shēmu, izmantojot starpdisciplināro (starpriekšmetu) saikni, izveidojot dabas un ekoloģijas zināšanu apguves sistēmmodeli, kurā ekoloģisko zināšanu apguves veicināšana norit, integrējot mācību saturā ekoloģiski orientētus tematus vispārējos un arī profesionālajos mācību priekšmetos. Šāds modelis veicinātu ekoloģisko likumsakarību izpratnes padziļināšanos.

Ekoloģiski orientētā mācību procesā audzēkņu ekoloģiskās attieksmes attīstība atspoguļojas viņu pakāpeniskā attieksmes izmaiņā – no situatīvas līdz pašregulētai ekoloģiskai attieksmei. Šādā situācijā audzēkņu ekoloģiskās zināšanas, prasme un rīcība no fragmentāras un epizodiskas izmainās līdz spējai izstrādāt savas ekoloģiskās rīcības stratēģiju, orientēties jaunā situācijā, un ekoloģiskā rīcība kļūst pārliecinoša un neatkarīga (2. tab.).

2. tabula

Audzēkņu ekoloģiskās attieksmes attīstība mācību procesā būvniecības specialitātē

Attieksmes veids Kritēriji	Situatīvā ekoloģiskā attieksme	Paradumu ekoloģiskā attieksme	Pašregulētā ekoloģiskā attieksme
Ekoloģiskās zināšanas	fragmentāras	veidojas izpratne	izstrādā stratēģiju
Ekoloģiskā prasme	epizodiska	zināšanas izmanto pēc parauga	jaunā situācijā orientējas, izmantojot prāta spējas
Ekoloģiskā rīcība	rīkojas, ja stimulē	pieņem / nepieņem kā vērtību; attiecīgi rīkojas pēc parauga	attieksme ir personība īpašība = pārliecinoša un neatkarīga rīcība



6. att. Ekoloģiski orientēts mācību saturs būvniecības specialitātē profesionālās izglītības skolā (aut.)

Nobeigums

Ilgospējīgas attīstības principa ieviešana profesionālajā izglītībā nodrošina tās kvalitātes paaugstināšanos. Tiek veicināta audzēkņu ekoloģiskās attieksmes attīstība. Lai to nodrošinātu, jāpārveido pedagoģiskās darbības stils skolā. Tam jābūt ekoloģiski orientētam / virzītam, veicinot ekoloģiskas personības attīstību, kas spēj risināt ilgtspējību būvražošanā, tādējādi veicinot ekoloģiskas sabiedrības jeb ilgtspējīgas sabiedrības attīstību.

Nepieciešams turpināt un padziļināt pētījumus ekoloģiskās attieksmes attīstības likumsakarību noteikšanai; izveidot tām atbilstošu audzēkņu un skolotāju pedagoģiskās mijiedarbības modeli, izstrādāt ekoloģiski orientētu mācību saturu, izvēlēties optimālas mācību metodes, kas nodrošinātu ekoloģiskas personības attīstību mācību procesā būvniecības specialitātē profesionālās izglītības skolā.

Izmantotie informācijas avoti

1. **Broks, A. (1998)** Izglītības vadība, pētniecība un klasifikācija. Monogrāfija Nr. 2.: Broks, A., Geske, A., Grīnfelds, A., Kangro, A., Valbis, J. Izglītības indikatoru sistēmas. Monogrāfiju sērija: Izglītības pētniecības Latvijā. Rīga: Mācību grāmata, 19.–60. lpp.
2. Dabas aizsardzības plāns Latvijai. **(1992)** – R.: LU Ekoloģijas centrs.
3. **Ness, A., Heukelands, P. I. (2001)** Dzīves filozofija. Personīgas pārdomas par jūtām un prātu. Rīga: Norden AB.
4. Pedagoģijas terminu skaidrojošā vārdnīca. **(2000)** – R.: Zvaigzne ABC.
5. **Pēks, L. (2002)** Personības attīstības un izglītības ekoloģiskais skatījums. // *Skolotājs* (6).
6. **Špona, A. (2001)** Audzināšanas teorija un prakse. R.: RaKa.
7. **Zelmenis, V. (2000)** Pedagoģijas pamati. R.: RaKa.
8. **Žogla, I. (2003)** Integrācija pedagoģijā: ievads diskusijai. // *Skolotājs* (2), 4–9.
9. **Capra, F. (1996)** The Web of Life: A New Scientific Understanding of Living Systems. Anchor Books, Doubleday, New York.
10. **Vaines, E. (1990)** Psilosophical Orientations and Home Economics: An Introduction. Canadian Journal of Home Economics, 40 (1), 6–11.
11. **Франкл, В. (1990)** Человек в поисках смысла жизни. Москва: Прогресс.

Summary

In the publication, the author examines the principle of sustainable development in vocational education. Implementation of ecological education and ecological pedagogy in a vocational school would promote development of students' ecological attitude. An ecological personality is capable of maintaining sustainability in construction.

The author reveals the possibilities to promote ecological attitude in construction students of a vocational school by improving educational syllabus and introducing the subject of ecological construction in construction education. The main criteria of the development of an ecological attitude is understanding of the interaction between natural environment and society, as well the processes of degradation of natural environment under the influence of building.

Keywords: ecology, sustainable development, attitude, vocational education, construction education.

TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE CONTEXT OF THE BOLOGNA PROCESS

SKOLOTĀJU IZGLĪTĪBA BOLOŅAS PROCESA KONTEKSTĀ

Dainuvite Bluma
University of Latvia

Abstract

This article describes changes in teacher education, teacher educators' roles and functions in relation to the challenges education is facing today and those that have taken place in the development of the Bologna process. It has to find reflection in the teaching/learning process of educating teachers. One of the basic issues in higher education in general and teachers' education in particular is the change of the focus from an input based teaching/learning process to an outcome based process which means that it is essential to ensure a learner-centred approach. This asks for changes in the teacher educators' knowledge, competences and roles. The article also reflects on the views of students (prospective teachers) – what they expect from education and educators in this relation – and teacher educators on how they understand their key roles in the above mentioned process.

Keywords: teacher education, teacher educator, Bologna process, output based teaching/learning process, teacher educator's roles, learner-centred approach.

Introduction

The 21st century has begun with extremely quick social, cultural, economic and technological changes not only in Latvia but also in Europe and the whole world. Teacher education is challenged by several factors: firstly, the developments of the Bologna process; secondly, the positive and negative influences of globalization which demands greater attention to education and teacher education, especially because “it is the school teachers who mediate between a rapidly evolving world and the pupils who are about to enter it” (quality of teacher education); thirdly, the need of individuals to develop their talents and fulfil their potential for personal growth (Schools for 21st...2007). In other words education must respond to challenges in our societies. It is obvious that the teachers are the key agents for change but it is also clear that it is necessary to invest in the initial training of a new generation of teachers. Alongside with this, however, also working teachers have to improve their skills and competences to face the new challenges and tasks. This accordingly sets new tasks to teacher education as the whole and to teacher educators in particular.

Teacher education and the needs of the young people

The young people have to satisfy different needs, they need to acquire such skills as those of autonomous learning rather than memorizing information, they must develop the ability to find their place in this more and more complicated world, they will need readiness to solve unexpected problems and challenges, to cope with complicated technological developments, that will further influence their economic, social and cultural life. The young people will have to learn how to solve various conflicts caused by ongoing globalization, the growing influence of technologies over personalities of individuals, alienation of various groups in the society, the accumulating speed of changes and lack of stability in all spheres of life and what is even most important – the crisis of values. Accordingly, teachers have different functions, tasks and roles and they will need different competences. The teachers main task will not be simply ensuring that the pupils acquire a definite amount of knowledge and skills to pass their

examinations and tests but to help pupils develop critical thinking and creativity, attitude to the sustainability of environment, communication skills, humanism, decision making and responsibility for these decisions, problem solving, understanding of values and culture among other challenges they will be facing. These changes require to look into teacher education as it is the universities that give opportunities for the perspective teachers to learn new skills and competences for their roles to work in a knowledge based society. The question is : Is teacher education ready to face this situation?

Teacher education or teacher training?

First of all, it is important to define the very process of becoming a teacher – is it teacher training or teacher education. It is obvious that today's challenges in the teachers' work demand that the teacher is a key person in the change process in education, and even more, the teacher has to be the change agent. The quality of education is a very complex phenomenon and besides acquiring knowledge and skills it includes development of complicated life competences, values, beliefs and attitudes, culture and personality growth. It demands from the teacher the ability to meet the needs of every individual pupil, awareness of diversity in the widest sense of the meaning, the abilities to solve manysided and unexpected situations. Taking into consideration the above mentioned challenges facing education and the needs of individuals it is obvious that it is more appropriate to call this process teacher education.

C. Andersson (2002) describes four typical paradigms possible in teacher education:

- the traditional, which means teacher education for today, the teachers have to be able to function at school immediately;
- the progressive critical – social paradigm, according to which the teachers are able to change the school of today, the teachers are reflective and critically thinking;
- the academic paradigm, which is characteristic for the great attention to academically able generation of teachers who specialize in separate subjects;
- the personalistic paradigm considers that teachers must become mature enough to understand others, be able to interact and should be ready to work in the interests of pupils.

It is obvious that the schools of today and the future need teachers that comprise the best qualities of the progressive, social – critical and the personalistic paradigms, at the same time, though having roots in academic education in the subject, the teachers must be able to organize flexibly the material and their activities according to the needs and interests of the learners. It goes in line with the ideas of the Bologna process that demands changes in the structures of the teacher education curricula, and namely, the curricula should be structured so that the main stress is on student learning and acquiring knowledge, developing skills and competences, it being the outcome of the study process. In this process it is essential “to ensure that academic quality and a long term employability become compatible goals of higher education” (Trends 2003, p. 28).

The above mentioned calls for multidimensional reform in the teacher education that influences several aspects of the curriculum and the teaching/learning process. First of all, it is the curriculum structure that needs changes:

- transparency, i.e. clear evidence of the goals of teacher education in the definition of aims and objectives in the curriculum and in each module/course;
- integrity of the curriculum, there being logical purposeful sequence and interdisciplinary approach in the selection of modules/courses thus ensuring permeability between disciplines;
- the focus on competences described in the teacher's Professional standard as learning outcomes in the whole curriculum and each module/course;

- the curriculum needs restructuring: avoidance of isolated short courses, development of interdisciplinary problembased modules, flexibility of combination of modules;
- selection of the content and its organization with a view towards the perspective teacher's profession;
- awareness of the lecturers of all modules/courses of the need to know the perspective profession for which the students are learning.

Secondly, in order to ensure the effectiveness of the above mentioned, all elements of the teaching/learning process should accordingly change, too. It means there should be the basic transfer from the teaching and teacher-centred paradigm to the paradigm of learning, i.e. the results to be obtained by the students at completion of their learning experience. This in its turn influences the methods of teaching/learning, activities and roles of all the players – lecturers and students. First and foremost it means “inclusion of students in the deliberations concerning a qualitative reform of teaching and learning structures, methods and evaluation” (Trends 2003), implementation of student-centred learning and flexible learning paths.

Thirdly, this brings forward the special role of the lecturers – teacher educators as the managers of the students' learning process rather than information transmitters. The teacher educator's main task, accordingly, becomes creation of active learning environment and at the same time helping students become active learners. The whole teaching /learning process should really become student-centred which means an output based approach as it is the student who with his work should develop relevant skills, competences, values and personal features for his/her prospective profession of a teacher. In order to create the learning environment for it the teacher educators must learn to see the expected outcomes of the students' work in the form of students' knowledge, skills and competences, focus on integration of development of generic and specific competences instead of the teacher educators' own teaching work. Lecturers must get used to seeing it all as one whole process, not two different ones, i.e. teaching and learning, developing generic and specific competences.

The above mentioned asks for new functions and roles of teacher educators in the study process for which they need different competences and qualities, even new professional identities.

The new understanding of the teacher educator

The very word “teacher educator” (instead of “teacher trainer” which seems totally unacceptable in this context) acquires a new meaning – that of a facilitator, a consultant, an advisor. Students become partners, lecturers must be ready to delegate responsibilities and initiatives to students, create opportunities for peer learning and teaching. Accordingly, the lecturer's main mission is not to teach but to organize students learning, to facilitate their personal and professional development. It is obvious that change of the lecturer's role is often linked with a conflict between the lecturer's identity and his/her new roles. The teacher educator becoming a facilitator is also a process of changes of values, beliefs and attitudes and the teaching/learning culture. It is a change from individualism to cooperation and collaboration with students and among students which is based on mutual respect, shared goals, support, shared institutional culture (Hargreaves, A., 1994).

The student-centred as a learner-centred teaching/learning process is subjected to greater unpredictability and spontaneity. It demands from the teacher educator more concentration, intensity of thinking, quicker reaction, attention, creativity and much wider knowledge. This is due to the situation when the student becomes a partner and is given a chance:

- to become the active part in the planning and organizing of his/her learning process;
- to decide, to take the responsibility for the results of his/her learning;
- to be listened to when expressing his/her opinions;

- to express him/herself;
- to show his/her initiative and creativity;
- to develop his/her self-confidence, self-reliance.

In this situation the teacher educators need certain skills and competences for the organization of a learner-centred teaching/learning process, such as:

- skills of democratic classroom management;
- the competence of implementing learner-centred teaching/learning methods;
- skills and abilities to create interpersonal relations and communication on lecturer-student and student-student levels;
- abilities to identify students' needs, interests and abilities;
- skills to create a supporting and active learning environment;
- the competence to create relevant balance between teaching and learning, lecturers' and students' responsibilities and activities.

The teacher educator as an advisor and a facilitator of the students' learning and personality growth, first of all, must be the owner of the same qualities he/she is helping the student as a prospective teacher develop. Besides that, the teacher educator must know how to encourage, promote, support the students' personality growth and learning. The skills of the learner-centred approach cannot simply be learnt and used efficiently unless the teacher educator possesses relevant personal features.

Students' views on teacher education and teacher educators

The 4th and 5th year students (the total number 197) made projects about 10 most important features teacher educators must possess and they pointed out:

- tactfulness,
- communicability,
- liking to work with people,
- willingness to take risks,
- divergent thinking,
- ability to share without being imposing,
- tolerance,
- openness to changes,
- willingness to learn from his/her students, resourcefulness,
- positivism.

When asked what the teacher educator must do to create an active learning environment for the prospective teacher the students pointed out several most important factors they would like to be strengthened in the courses:

- links between theory and practice,
- clear vision of the aims and the tasks for teacher education in each course and each class,
- greater attention to development of students' critical thinking and space for creativity,
- involvement of students in planning and evaluation of outcomes,
- encouragement of lifelong learning,

- more practical tasks and exercises,
- use of interactive methods to offer opportunities for development of skills and competences,
- smaller students' groups,
- more friendly relations with lecturers,
- greater interest in students' success on behalf of lecturers.

During the course with the 5th year students (291 student) it appeared that only 89 of them have experience of learning by using interactive methods, such as workshops, group projects, group work, role plays, discussions etc. These were mainly students of foreign languages specialities who seem to understand that skills and competences can successfully be developed when actively participating in actions of various kinds. At the same time, though the students were familiar with a variety of interactive methods and autonomous learning, they did not have enough competences to use these methods in peer teaching. The other students had a rather vague knowledge and understanding about participation in interactive methods and lacked skills of using them in seminārs. Thus, in a way the students need more opportunities for developing professional skills and competences and the whole teaching /learning process needs restructuring.

The views of teacher educators

To analyze the practice of teacher education in greater detail the teacher educators were also questioned about their opinions on teaching and learning and their roles in this process. During the course of professional development the teacher educators were asked to write down what they understood by teaching and learning. The answers (from 118 participants) were as follows:

teaching is giving	knowledge	– 46
	information	– 18
	their experience	– 8
	skills	– 4
	understanding	– 4

The other participants answered that they had not thought about it before.

This is in great contradiction with the understanding of teaching as “purposeful creation of situations from which motivated learners should not be able to escape without learning or development” (J.Cowan, 1998).

The answers about learning showed that the greater part of teacher educators often use the word “learning” but they did not put in it a clear message. Thus the answers received were:

learning is accumulation of knowledge	– 60
independent work	– 24
studying	– 22
reception of information	– 22
development of skills	– 20
self improvement	– 12
making meaning	– 8
gathering experience	– 8

It is obvious that curriculum content and delivery are largely the responsibility of course providers, who play the dominant roles they have chosen for the teaching/learning process.

They are also largely responsible for creating environment and situations for development of students professional skills.

During the same course in the form of a workshop the teacher educators discussed their roles in the teaching/learning process. Five basic roles were mentioned: researcher, manager, consultant, advisor, facilitator, learner. On the one hand, this can be considered as a positive phenomenon as the consequence might be greater space for the students' activities, learning and creativity. On the other hand, when looking in these answers deeper, the description of these roles was quite narrow. Almost every participant mentioned a different quality for these roles, there were very few common ones. Though all the participants had mentioned the researcher's role as the basic one nobody had mentioned it in relation to learning about the students' needs and interests, the students learning styles or progress in studies. The main focus was on research only in the discipline but not on pedagogical issues linked with better teaching or learning, or professional development of the students. The most commonly mentioned features of a consultant were:

- ability to explain,
- readiness to answer all questions, to offer advice, to give additional
- consultations,
- helpfulness,
- ability to organize students' autonomous work.

Only a few lecturers had mentioned that the lecturer as a researcher should be ready to see the students capabilities, follow the students achievements, look for solution of problems together with students.

The teacher educator as a manager was characterized by his/her readiness to organize the learning process, to make students listen, to be purposeful in his/her work, to offer the students their roles and responsibilities, to be a leader.

The role of a learner was described in a greater detail and the answers were more explicit, i.e. the teacher educator:

- develops him/herself,
- develops knowledge in the subject he/she is teaching,
- is ready to change his/her previous knowledge,
- looks for new information,
- is open to new ideas,
- is ready for lifelong learning,
- evaluates him/herself and is ready to correct own mistakes,
- acquires new competences.

At the same time only 10 of them mentioned that they learn very much from their students, 3 admitted that they learn when cooperating with their colleagues, 4 said that they look for ways how to teach better and that they learn from students' questions.

As seen from the above, it will not be a quick and easy process to help teacher educators understand how crucially they have to change and how much they will have to learn to implement in practice the student-centred outcome based approach instead of the staff oriented input based one, so that the outcome is the students' good knowledge, skills and competences alongside with values, attitudes and personality.

The challenges in professional development of teacher educators

As the profession of teaching is becoming more difficult and complex (Communication ...2007) teacher education has to support (prospective) teachers so that they can develop those abilities and attitudes that seem to be necessary to meet the professional tasks of the teaching profession competently, reflectively and by considering recent scientific knowledge. There being rare cases when teacher educators have specific education to become university lecturers they need special in-service education in the form of a staff development programme. (Green Boook...2003)

Though it seems obvious and clear that the teacher educators should act as role models for students as prospective teachers, the real practice is far from theory, especially in teacher education institutions that have for long years been implementing traditional academic approach to teaching and learning and to separate these two processes, i.e. the lecturer is teaching and the students should learn. In words it seems clear that the lecturer should contribute to enriching the learning experience of students, what skills and competences the lecturers should possess (P. McCaffery, 2004). Unfortunately, both partners have a very vague understanding about their interdependence and mutual responsibilities in the whole process of becoming a professional. The lecturer should change and at the same time help students become partners and active learners,

Since 2003 the Professional development programme for staff of higher education institutions was carried out. It turned out that the participants most of all wanted lectures and it was not easy to involve them in activities when using interactive methods. Sometimes there were lecturers who admitted that they do not acknowledge such methods, saying that they are for children to play, that it was not scientific. Though the course was quite long – 60 contact hours and the theory was closely linked with practical exercises, reflection and interactive methods were widely used, the final task – writing a course design – not always was successful. This task was based on the need to implement all new approaches – the focus on academic quality and employability and coherence with Professional standarts and profiles, student-centredness, outcomes based approach, facilitation and management of students' active learning, development of competences, planning of students activities for this purpose. The exercise showed that there were certain typical difficulties. First of all, the lecturers could not accept that they have to create opportunities for students to understand and make meaning and students need time for it. Secondly, it seemed difficult to refuse from lecturing and their own speaking time and delegate some of responsibilities to students using discussions, student reports, group work, project work where students independently look for material and come with ideas. Thirdly, it took much time to learn to plan and guide purposefully students' skills and competences development. Fourthly, it was difficult to get rid of old wordings, such as “to give knowledge, to give skills, to prepare/train a teacher”, etc. thus having a feeling of responsibility for actions only students themselves can and have to do.

Conclusions

Four years of experience of work with lecturers in the professional development course, observations and reflection on its results was the basis for a number of conclusions for further developments:

- the Bologna process ideas will live only then when every staff member has full awareness of its essence, has accepted it theoretically and has developed coherent competences;

- successful implementation of the Bologna process demands development of a different professional identity of lecturers as the necessary changes are rather of a qualitative nature than quantitative; more attention should be given to staff development issues on behalf of the management of higher education institutions;
- the change process asks for greater flexibility from all players.

In the context of Bologna process and the challenges education is facing with today it is of utmost importance to be aware of the need of professional further education and development of teacher educators with regard to the quality of education in general. This is the objective of this paper alongside with raising awareness of the need of further research how to continue successful development of teacher education and teacher educators professional development.

References

- Andersson, C. (2002) What Should Govern Teacher Education? The Impact of Unclear Governmental Prescriptions: is there something more effective? *European Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. 25, Nos. 2&3, 2002.
- Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament. Improving the Quality of Teacher Education, Brussels, 3.8.2007, COM(2007) 392 final.
- Commission Staff Working Document "Schools for the 21st Century". Council of the European Union, Brussels, 12.07.2007, EDUC 119, SOC 278.
- Cowan, J. (1998) *On Becoming an Innovative University Teacher. Reflection in Action*. SRHE and Open University Press.
- Green Paper on Teacher Education in Europe. (2003). TNTEE. Ed.F.Buchberger, B. P. Campos, D. Kallos, J. Stephenson.
- Hargreaves, A. (1994). *Changing Teachers, Changing Times: teachers' Work and Culture in the Post-modern Age*. London: Cassel.
- McCaffery, P. (2004) *The Higher Education Manager's Handbook*. Routledge-Falmer., London and new york.
- Trends 2003. Progress towards the European Higher Education Area. Trends (No1) July, 2003. EUA report. Ed. S. Reichert, C. Tauch.
- Tuning Educational Structures in Europe. Phase II. 2005. Ed. J. Gozalez, R. Wagenaar. University of Deusto, University of Gronningen. Bilbao.

Kopsavilkums

Rakstā ir pievērsta uzmanība pārmaiņām pedagoģu izglītībā, pedagoģisko augstskolu mācībspēku lomām un funkcijām atbilstoši tiem izaicinājumiem, kādi mūsdienās ir izvirzīti izglītībai vispār un augstākajai izglītībai Boloņas procesa kontekstā. Viens no pamatjautājumiem augstākajā izglītībā vispār un it īpaši pedagoģu izglītībā ir pamatpieejas maiņa no informācijas sniegšanas centrēta studiju procesa uz mācīšanos un uz rezultātu orientētu procesu, kura būtība ir studentcentrēts studiju process. Tas prasa no augstskolu mācībspēkiem citas zināšanas, kompetences un lomas. Rakstā ir apkopoti studentu un mācībspēku viedokļi par šīm pārmaiņām mācībspēku darbā, ka arī tas, ko studenti sagaida no mācībspēkiem, lai īstenotos studentcentrēts studiju process.

**MANAGING MENTORSHIP
THROUGH A POSITIVE RELATIONSHIP
POZITĪVAS SAVSTARPĒJĀS ATTIECĪBAS
MENTORU DARBA PĀRVALDĒ**

Linutė Kraujutaitytė

Mykolas Romeris University

Alona Rauckienė

Klaipėda University

Abstract

In practice, beginning mentors inevitably lack knowledge on how to perform well their mentorship responsibilities. Stated in detail, a problem question sounds like that: “What are the main standards of good mentorship, adhering to which the mentor could evaluate their attitudes and actions?”. Although there is a lot of literature on good mentorship, the article attempts to go further by looking at the problem from the angle of managing mentorship through positive relationship. Based on literature studies and reflection, the article consists of four parts. The first part reviews the concept of positive relationship. The following three parts analyse the mentor’s attitudes and actions that have been exercised by effective mentorship. The article ends with the conclusion: it unfolds the framework of the main mentorship standards for positive relationship that embrace seven items of criteria and indicators.

Keywords: management, mentorship, mentor, mentee, programme, learning needs, positive relationship.

Introduction

Rebecca is a math teacher who has been working for more than 10 years in a public secondary school. She has been awarded the best teacher status in the region. Michael is a new teaching learner and has been assigned to Rebecca for her mentorship. Rebecca finds Michael reluctant to communicate much and pay attention to her advice. As a consequence, Rebecca thinks that Michael lacks enthusiasm and determination to work as a teacher. She tries to encourage Michael to be more open, however her efforts lead her relationship with Michael to no better results. What has Rebecca missed? If we were in Rebecca’s place, what we would do in order to establish and maintain positive relationship between us as the mentor and our mentees?

These are the questions that professional teachers face inevitably in practice when they start their new carrier as the mentor. Of course they can read about that since professional teachers and scientists give a huge amount of literature on good mentorship. The literature that we can find in the internet and various libraries ranges from highly theoretical ideas (see, e.g., Bozeman, Feeney, 2007) to the very practical ones (see, e.g., Spouse, 2004). Teachers who wish to develop their mentorship competences can learn much from them. Still, it might be a good thing for the new mentor to have a summarised version of advice. Therefore this paper is aimed at doing that in order to help the mentor to understand better their responsibilities as well as to fulfil better their roles equipped with practical knowledge.

Specifically, we will try to search further for the answer to the question on how to establish and maintain positive relationship between the mentor and mentee. Stated more precisely, the question sounds like that: what are some important standards of evaluation related to the mentor’s competencies in performing their duties on a highly professional level? How a systematic answer to the question could be found? Of course, there might be many ways of trust worthy research. However, the easiest one is the study and analysis of scientific literature. It

gives us rich experiences on good mentoring practices. As a result, it enables us to summarise what has already been achieved.

Addressing the problem question stated above, we need a structured approach towards the ideas presented in scientific literature. The approach chosen here contains a framework of a story based on three main phases of mentorship process. These can be determined as follows: 1) starting up, 2) proceeding and 3) closing relationship. It is hopeful that by reflecting upon the mentor's attitudes and actions during a mentorship circle of the phases mentioned above, it would not be difficult to understand clearly the insights on the main criteria that the mentor could use for their self-evaluation associated with the construction of positive relationship.

Before starting to develop the story, it is worth to review what we mean by using the concept of "positive relationship" (between the mentor and mentee) and why it is important in the mentorship process. Having all what has been already stated, we can envisage that the structure of the paper contains the following chapters: 1) The concept of positive relationship; 2) The beginning of mentoring; 3) Follow-up with mentoring; 4) The mentoring closing.

1. The Concept of Positive Relationship

In order to develop some knowledge on how to establish and maintain positive relationship, first, we have to make clear what we mean by the concept of 'positive relationship'. The word 'positive' has its opposition 'negative'. So the concept of 'positive' must mean something that is not 'negative'. What could it be? What do we mean by the words 'mentor' and 'mentorship'?

A mentor is "a trusted counsellor or teacher, especially in occupational settings" (AHDEL, 1992. p. 1128). A mentor is also an "experienced practitioner who is willing and able to share their professional knowledge whilst working in partnership with a learner and to guide and support the learner throughout the period of their placement" (Spouse, 2004). "Mentorship refers to a developmental relationship between a more experienced mentor and a less experienced partner referred to as a mentee or protégé—a person guided and protected by a more prominent person" (Wikipedia, 2008). What about mentorship roles?

To serve as the mentor at school, university or the other professional institution may mean a lot of things, since the mentor's roles are varied. M. Zelditch (1990, p. 11) summarises the multiple roles of the mentor as follows: "Mentors are advisors, people with career experience willing to share their knowledge; supporters, people who give emotional and moral encouragement; tutors, people who give specific feedback on one's performance; masters, in the sense of employers to whom one is apprenticed; sponsors, sources of information and assistance in obtaining opportunities; models of identity of the kind of person one should aspire to" (also cited in Spouse, 2004).

Writing on effective mentoring, N. Henry (1996) gives ten-point advice, recommending that the mentor should: 1) "Maintain regular contact"; 2) "Always be honest"; 3) "Avoid being judgmental of a protégé's life situation"; 4. "Avoid excessive gift giving"; 5) "Don't expect to have all the answers"; 6. "Help [their] protégé access resources and expand support networks"; 7) Be clear about [their] expectations and [their] boundaries"; 8) "Avoid being overwhelmed by [their] protégé's problems"; 9. "Respect confidentiality"; 10) "If the relationship seems to stall, hang in there".

Spouse's (2004) ideas expand the list of effective mentorship by adding that the successful mentor demonstrates the following attributes: "1) provides social and professional sponsorship and induction to the placement ... 2) assesses their learner's capability ... and their progress through direct observation of their practice; 3) provides regular oral and written feedback on their progress; 4) engages the learner in developing a learning plan based on each assessment of their capability; 5) documents and dates progress and learning plans; 6) identifies areas

where developmental help or remedial help is required; 7) organizes appropriate practice education support for the learner at all times when they are in the placement; 8) provides day to day support for the learner through collaborative working and coaching activities; 9) acts as a role model ... 10) maintains own professional knowledge, including annual mentorship updates”.

So positive in the mentor-mentee relationship is that “an effective mentoring relationship is characterised by mutual respect, trust, understanding and empathy” (Greenwood, 2005) as well as by active developmental interconnection. These we may consider are some important attitudes and skills that successful mentors bring into their work. There is one more question to be asked: what are the benefits of effective mentorship. Why mentorship has an educational value?

Researchers and practitioners share widely that mentorship boasts benefits not only for both the mentor and mentee, but also for the teaching profession. Following Brown's (2008) ideas, teachers who participate in mentoring programmes “are nearly twice as likely to stay in their profession”. Mentors and mentees benefit from their relationship in that it gives them an opportunity to overcome challenges, develop expertise, knowledge and professional skills, increase motivation and improve self-confidence (Brown, 2008; Greenwood, 2005; Katkus, 2007; Spouse, 2004).

So in generalizing on what has been reviewed, we can understand that all these recommendations set a notion of positive relationship between the mentor and mentee in the sense of constructive and productive developmental relationship. The main challenge in the sphere of this relationship is associated with the task of creation of such educational system that guarantees successful development of the main three actors: the mentor, the mentee and the child that is taught by the mentee. Further we shall review how this relationship is worth to be starting, proceeding and closing.

2. The Beginning of Mentoring

What do good mentors do at the beginning of their mentorship? How they manage their mentorship responsibility? As stated by many researchers (see, e.g., Hakkarainen, 2006, Katkus, 2007; Spouse, 2004), institutional mentorship starts from that moment when the new teacher who graduated their studies at university or college have been officially appointed to their teaching position. Although new teachers gain a lot of competences at university or college, mentorship at working place (as already mentioned above) is aimed at further professional development of their practical skills.

The process of mentorship much depends on school surroundings or environment. Most often the beginning teacher gets a label of incompetent worker in some unfriendly and unsupportive school surroundings (Hakkarainen, 2006, Spouse, 2004). In contrast to that, beginning teachers much learn from the supportive school environment, therefore they enjoy both their teaching profession as well as their teaching carrier. According to several research studies (ibid), the main characteristics of supportive school environment can be recognized as follows: a) educational process is student centred and is delivered in accordance with high standards of professional practice; b) management system is democratic and staff centred; c) permanent learning and sharing of knowledge (including mentorship) are valued; d) learning is supported by adequate academic as well as financial resources; e) feedback from the staff and learners is researched and responded adequately.

Thus, for mentorship much matters whether there is a special mentorship programme at 1) the individual level; 2) the school level and 3) the municipal or national educational system level. For example, in Finland the beginning teacher at school, first of all, receives institutional support addressed for all beginning teachers; then a personal mentoring programme is being developed; later, formal learning courses are planned; after that, the school action plan for

beginning teachers is being scheduled; and finally, strategies for professional development at municipal level are being designed (Hakkarainen, 2006).

All three levels are important, however, we will focus on the first one associated with individual – one-to-one mentorship level, since we are interested in the personal professional relationship. Meanwhile, the main question is this: “How to develop a personal mentoring programme while working in cooperation between the mentor and mentee?”. It is clear enough that beginning teachers need a period of adjustment until they feel comfortable in their working place. Mentorship can make this period much easier or harder. A lot depends on how we develop and refine a mentoring programme during the whole cycle of mentorship.

The first step towards a good mentoring programme can be associated with the mentor’s actions to know better the needs of his or her mentee (Spouse, 2004). This is usually managed by diagnostic evaluation carried out on the basis of questionnaires and (or) open dialogical interviews, during which the mentor makes clear what are the mentee’s expectations, values and wishes concerning the special areas of personal development. As numerous research results show, the beginning teacher may need to become familiar with the organization of pupils’ class work as well as with teaching standards and school routines (Hakkarainen, 2006, Katkus, 2007). Often new teachers “have little knowledge of how to put their scattered ideas into practice” (Brown, 2008).

In particular, among the many ordinary things, there for the beginner may be unclear such areas as how to adapt curriculum to students’ needs, how to make photocopies, lesson plans, grading papers and other preparations for the classes, how to communicate with the class, especially how to maintain positive classroom environment and how to cope with pupil’s misbehaviour and social problems along with academic ones. The beginning teachers may also feel difficulties in carrying on numerous additional responsibilities such as collaborating with various service personnel and teachers, holding conferences with parents, administering achievement testing, preparing report cards, choosing formal seminars, conferences or special courses that are addressed to develop their professional competences. How to integrate themselves into the school community and how to overcome personal stress are also among the main issues that new teachers mention very often (Hakkarainen, 2006, Katkus, 2007).

Some teachers may need more interaction with their peers as well as mentor’s support, while others prefer working alone. Teachers as adult learners may apply different learning styles: for example, active, reflective, theoretical or practical (see, e.g., Kolb, 1984). Teachers who prefer active learning style are interested in the activities that do not take much time to be accomplished. Reflective personalities need quite much time to think over before taking some actions. Teachers with the developed theoretical learning style have an inclination to ground their actions on well constructed theories. Finally, teachers with rather practical attitudes like experimenting with new ideas in order to make sure how they work in practice.

Good mentors know much about other personality traits and problems that challenge the work of the beginning teacher. Many of these traits and problems may be discovered during their first meeting with the mentee. However, it is worth to be stressed that while discussing and negotiating the learning needs, the mentor always has to have in mind and show respect towards such general characteristics of the adult learner as their autonomy, personal experience, expansion of their knowledge and skills as well as motivation for learning (Kraujutaityte, Peckaitis, 2003).

When the mentee’s learning needs have been revealed, they become the basis for the development of a constructive mentorship programme. As a rule, a good programme contains the following items: 1) clearly defined goals, objectives, criteria and indicators that allow measuring whether the goals and objectives have been achieved; 2) content of the learning expressed in the form of areas or topics; 3) assistance and support of the mentor (in the form

of providing the mentee with advice and special literature, attending mentee's organized classes, inviting the mentee to the mentor's organized classes, etc.); 4) methods of feedback; 5) a plan of anticipated activities that specify the date, place and actions, which show what will the mentor and mentee do so as to guarantee the mentee's progress (Hakkarainen, 2006; Spouse, 2004).

The process of building such a programme may begin with a first meeting where both parties can not only discuss and negotiate their expectations, but also can prepare a sketch for the working programme. More detailed objectives and the other items of the programme may be defined and adopted as the relationship evolves. J. Spouse (2004) suggests that a mentoring programme should be developed and signed as a contract during the first week of the mentee's placement.

Once the programme has been prepared, it does not mean that it cannot be approached flexibly. After all, the programme is established for guiding the learning rather than restricting. Therefore both the mentor and mentee have to feel free to review their formal statement on regular basis so that the mentee's progress is recorded and that both the mentor and the mentee "agree plans for either documenting or remedying areas that are not meeting the required standards and so that further development can be achieved" (Spouse, 2004).

So the mentorship programme as a baseline for learning serves as a tool for evaluation of that learning as long as both the mentor and mentee wish to reflect upon their progress towards achieving their goals. The second question that we are interested in is "How to manage the mentorship that is based on the programme prepared in collaboration and reviewed constantly?"

3. Follow-up with Mentoring

One mentorship cycle usually lasts one year. When the first meetings between the mentor and mentee have occurred, multiple roles of the mentor related to his work as a model of identity provider, advisor, sponsor and tutor will begin to take shape. How it is best to perform these multiple mentorship roles?

N. Henry (1996), K.F. Jonson (2002, p. 98) and others write that fulfilling a role of the model of identity the mentor demonstrates his social, pedagogical, subject related as well as moral standards of relationship. The experienced teachers are collaborating with pupils, their parents and other subjects. These teachers have a sense of responsibility for what is happening at school in general and in their class in particular. They demonstrate positive attitude towards their profession and feel the need for permanent development. They are self-realizing persons: self-trusted, self-directed, self-reflecting and self-critical. They know how to solve problems and organize learning associated not just with their own subject but also with mentoring as well.

As regards mentoring, experienced teachers organize various activities and encourage the mentee to initiate events themselves. Activities could include introductions at formal meetings, seminars, courses or visits to the classes of experienced teachers. The mentor's responsibility is also to have chances to observe formally how the mentee organizes their classes. There also may be acceptable for the mentee to share the time with the mentor for some informal meetings outside the school, such as going to theatres, festivals, museums or places of civic facilities.

Whenever activity has been organized, the mentor demonstrates honesty, trust and respect to confidentiality and the mentee's choices as well as avoids being too much initiative, judgmental or helpful. For the mentor's "greatest gift is to help a person discover his/her own solutions to problems" (Henry, 1996). The good mentor also never makes their mentee do the mentor's work (Greenwood, 2005). Moreover, the mentor has to be approachable, available, patient and

having in mind that the interaction which occurs at the stage of three month usually lays the foundation for the future relationship (Greenwood, 2005; Henry, 1996).

Besides, good mentors are willing to share their experience, knowledge and technical expertise (Henry, 1996; Spouse, 2004). This means that they act as advisors. The amount of information and time that the mentor gives may vary. It depends on the mentee's needs. Some mentees may be content with only some 'check-ins' or brief meetings once a week, while others who have continuing difficulties may require several formal meetings a week. However, it is always good to remember that mentees who are doing well or are shy and reluctant to seek help may have also difficulties and may need occasional conversation. One way to increase awareness of the mentee's issues is to keep regular direct or indirect (e.g., via e. mail) contacts. At the same time, effective mentoring may not always be much time consuming for a right question can be asked or a short suggestion offered just in a few minutes.

While giving advices the mentor tries to increase the mentee's self-awareness and motivation as well as to improve self-confidence and professional competences (Brown, 2008; Greenwood, 2005; Katkus, 2007; Spouse, 2004). So they encourage the mentee to reflect upon his or her knowledge and its application in practice, recognize issues and challenges by seeing events from different angles, understanding herself or himself as a good teacher who knows how to be happy about his or her professional achievements. Good mentors are also inclined to work together with their mentees, since they know that the efforts to accomplish common goals are the most rewarding. In order to express these abilities the mentor gives strong support to the mentee's attitudes and actions (Greenwood, 2005; Henry, 1996; Lacey, 1999).

First of all, as mentioned above, the effective mentor helps the mentee to set up the ground rules in the form of mentorship programme which can be signed as a mutually accepted contract. Secondly, while working in accordance with the programme the mentor shows openly his or her emotional support and encouragement as well as tries to communicate informally. This way favourable condition for two-way exchange of listening and questioning might be created successfully. Thirdly, the mentor can introduce the mentee into various projects, networks, organizations or societies by helping the mentee with the smooth integration into the community. The mentor also can open the mentee opportunities to visit various events that take place inside or outside the school where the mentee could meet interesting people and learn formally or informally while just observing or working together. Finally, the mentor can share with the mentee learning materials and equipments, give specific guidance and supervision on the accomplishment of a part or the whole of any activity.

M. Zelditch (1990, p. 11) associates the tutor's role of the mentor with his or her preparation to give constructive feedback to the mentee. Feedback, of course is based on evaluation and assessment. There are at least three kinds of evaluation: diagnostic, formative and summative (Kraujutaitytė, Pečkaitis, 2003, p. 118). Diagnostic evaluation is usually applied at the beginning of a learning situation. It is aimed at revealing the learner's needs. It can help the mentor to forecast how the mentee's learning will progress. This facilitates the planning of the mentee's development. In contrast, formative evaluation is applied at the end of a learning situation. Its aim is to reveal what has already been achieved and what needs to be further developed in regard of both learning outcomes and processes.

Evaluating the mentee's practice is both continuous and intermittent. Diagnostic and formative evaluation provides opportunities for both the mentor and mentee to assess progress and to plan further development. Most important are the benefits of formative evaluation: when the mentor knows the results and shortcomings of the mentee, he or she can provide the mentee with feedback and can offer immediate remedial help as well as support. If the results of assessment have been collected during the whole mentorship cycle, summative evaluation is for summarizing the mentee's achieved results. Further we will review how to carry out summative evaluation and what are the main mentor's responsibilities at the end of the mentorship cycle.

4. The Mentoring Closing

As mentorship relation evolves over an extended period, so do the mentee's learning needs. This changes the nature of relationship. By evaluating the mentee's progress and by giving feedback based on the results of diagnostic and formative evaluation the mentor can help the mentee to control these changes rationally. However, summative evaluation is for assessing the mentee's achievements by measuring them with the application of accumulated points, percentage, grades and (or) ratios (Kraujutaitytė, Pečkaitis, 2003). Its aim is to calculate all achieved results in order to approve or disapprove the mentee's professional development. Summative evaluation may be applied at the end of any activity and the mentorship cycle.

Good summative evaluation is based on the results of formative evaluation. For example, following the mentorship programme one of the objectives of the mentee can be to learn how to individualize pupils' learning. The mentor may observe, evaluate and assess the progress of this learning during a few of his or her visits to the mentee's organized classes. Then the mentor can assess the progress by a grade or accumulated points. If there are five or seven different objectives, summative evaluation allows summarizing all grades and revealing the final grade.

During the mentorship cycle there may be quite many areas of evaluation. These are usually associated with the assessment of the mentee's personal characteristics and professional competences (Greenwood, 2005; Spouse, 2004). It is very important that the formal evaluation and assessment of the mentee's learning outcomes is accomplished in accordance with some transparent and agreed upon learning standards, criteria and indicators. Only in this way it is possible for the mentor to show that he or she treats the mentee as an equal partner, who is aware of the mentor's expectations and takes upon responsibility for the development.

Formal mentorship relationship may end up with the mentor's written report on the mentee's achievements, if the mentee agrees with the documented assessment. In case the mentee does not share the same decision, he or she may appeal against it. This may cause a lot of new issues. In order to avoid them, it is very important for the mentor both to document the results of formative evaluation and to ask the mentee to sign and date formal summative assessment documentation (Spouse, 2004). On the other hand, at the final formal meeting there might be also quite useful for the mentor and mentee to discuss together how they wish to continue their future informal relationship.

Conclusion

If we understand positive relationship between the mentor and mentee in the sense of constructive and productive developmental relationship, then this kind of relationship can be established and maintained through adhering to, at least, seven items of mentorship standards that are revealed in Table 1.

Table 1
Mentorship standards for positive relationship

Criteria	Indicators
Learning needs	Revealed continuously and used as the basis for further actions
Mentorship programme	Agreed upon and signed by both the mentor and the mentee
Formal meetings	Schedule planned in advance
Informal communication	Disposition of initiative to keep in touch at least once a week
Sharing experience	Openness, self-criticism, advocacy, mediation, advice, empathy, tolerance
Encouragement	Appreciation of the mentee's attitudes and actions as well as continuous problem solving which transcends pessimism and negativism
Feedback	Based on diagnostic, formative and summative evaluation as well as on the final report signed by both the mentor and the mentee

The standards stated in terms of criteria and indicators correspond to the main functions of management (planning, organizing, leading, and monitoring) as well as to the main principles of good teaching. The mentor can use this framework for checking whether his mentorship satisfies the minimum requirements of professional practice.

References

1. AHDEL (1992) American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
2. Bozeman B., Feeney M. (2007) Toward a Useful Theory of Mentoring. A Conceptual Analysis and Critique // Administration & Society, Vol. 39, No. 6.
3. Brown S. (2008) Working Models: Why Mentoring Programs May be the Key to Teacher Retention (Retrieved 7 January, 2008 from http://www.acteonline.org/members/techniques/2002-2003/may03_story1.cfm).
4. Glazer C. (2005) Establishing and Maintaining Effective Peer Relationships on Campus // The University of Texas at Austin. The College of Education (Retrieved 7 January, 2008 from <http://www.edb.utexas.edu/fieldexp/SampleSeminars/SampleSeminar10.php>).
5. Greenwood A. (2005) Mentors: advisors, teachers, role models and friends // SAQI (Retrieved 7 January, 2008 from <http://www.saqi.co.za/PDF%5CPublications%20-%20Back%20Issues%5CQualityRoleModels%5CMentors%20Advisors%20Teachers%20Role%20Models%20And%20Friends%20-%202003.pdf>).
6. Hakkarainen P. (2006) Įvertinimas ir rekomendacijos ‘mentorius rengimo testiniame moduliniame kvalifikacijos kėlimo seminare modelis’ // Oulu universitetas, Suomija (Retrieved 7 January, 2008 from http://www.mentoriai.vpu.lt/documents/85_Penttiatslit1.pdf).
7. Henry, N. (1996) Mentoring Myths and Tips // The Resource Center (Retrieved 7 January, 2008 from <http://inpathways.net/IPCNLibrary/UserSearch.aspx?v=Keywords&s=%22Mentoring%22>).
8. Jonson K. F. (2002) Being an Effective Mentor. How to Help Beginning Teachers Succeed. Thousand Oaks: Corwin Press.
9. Katkus D. (2007) Relationships More Important than Money? // Essays in Education, Volume 22 (Retrieved 7 January, 2008 from <http://www.usca.edu/essays/vol222007/kathkus.pdf>).
10. Kolb D.A. (1984) Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
11. Kraujutaityte L., Peckaitis J. S. (2003) Organizing Distance Higher Education: Strategies and Technologies. Vilnius: LTU.
12. Lacey K. (1999) Making Mentoring Happen. A Simple and Effective Guide to Implementing a Successful Mentoring program. Australia: Business and Professional Publishing Pty Limited.
13. Muirhead B. (2002) Training New Online Teachers // Usdla Journal Vol. 16 No 10 (Retrieved 7 January, 2008 from http://www.usdla.org/html/journal/OCT02_Issue/article06.html).
14. Spouse J. (2004) Mentor Guidelines // St Bartholomew School of Nursing & Midwifery (Retrieved 7 January, 2008 from <http://www.city.ac.uk/sonm/dps/practice-education/mentorcourseinfo/Mentor%20guidelines.pdf>).
15. Wikipedia (2008) Mentorship (Retrieved 7 January, 2008 from <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mentoring>).
16. Zelditch M (1990) Mentor roles. Proceedings of the 32nd Annual Meeting of the Western Association of Graduate Schools. Tempe, Arizona.
17. Zey M. G. (1984) The mentor connection. IL: Dow Jones Irwin, Homewood.

DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENTS' ESP COMPETENCE AND EDUCATORS' PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITY IN TERTIARY LEVEL TOURISM STUDIES

STUDENTU PROFESIONĀLĀS ANĢĻU VALODAS KOMPETENCES UN DOCĒTĀJU PROFESIONĀLĀS DARBĪBAS ATTĪSTĪBA TŪRISMA STUDIJĀS

Ineta Lūka

School of Business Administration "Turība"

Abstract

The topicality of the present qualitative evaluation research is determined by the growing demands to employees' professionalism, which set new requirements to education, stressing dialogue, co-operation, mutual understanding and creative activity. This research deals with the study of possibilities how to organize a student-centered pedagogical process that would help students to attain a high level of English for Special Purposes (ESP) competence, the ability to compete in the labour market and to continuously develop themselves, at the same time promoting the development of educator's professional pedagogical activity. The object of the research is the development of students' ESP competence. The report presents the results of the research conducted – the ESP syllabus designed for tourism students, the created definition of ESP competence, the components of ESP competence, its criteria, indicators, the model created for the development of students' ESP competence and makes suggestions for the development of educator's professional activity.

Keywords: ESP (English for Special Purposes) competence, language use, intercultural communication, co-operation, creativity, professional activity, development.

Introduction

The twenty-first century is characterized by mobility and ever-increasing flow of information. In these conditions specialists' professional competence is becoming more and more important. Growing demands to employees' professionalism set new requirements to education, stressing "co-existence, respect to personality, dialogue, mutual creative activity" (Alijevs, 2005, p. 57), which correspond to the nature of humanistic pedagogy. The content of the study, the study process, and the methods used and the requirements for an educator's professionalism are changing.

The main terms that describe the quality of higher education nowadays are "critical thinking, autonomous learning, lifelong learning, creativity, openness to changes, innovations, cooperation and teamwork, integration, partnership and flexibility" (Blūma, 2001, p. 30). The study process is student-centered and oriented towards the holistic acquisition of study courses. In its turn, the educator's professionalism is characterized by wide strategic, creative knowledge, imagination and creativity, organizing of pair work, group work, teamwork, mutual help among the students, and strengthening students' independence, as well as an ability to integrate interdisciplinary knowledge in continuous professional development (Žogla, 2006).

Recently the tourism business has become one of the most flourishing businesses in Latvia and the tourism labour market is growing. Its specific feature is the requirement for creative, decisive, educated, competitive specialists with a good command of English and excellent cooperation skills, who are able to work observing traditions of different cultures. An essential role in tourism specialists' education should be paid to the development of their ESP competence, which in a knowledge society could simultaneously foster the development of

employees' professional competence. Therefore, with the growth in requirements for language competence, the language-learning model changes as well. There is an objective need to study possibilities how students can attain a high level of ESP competence, the ability to compete in labour market and to continuously develop themselves, at the same time promoting the development of educator's professional pedagogical activity and the integration of ESP in studies by purposefully organizing a student-centred pedagogical process.

The goal of this paper is to present the qualitative evaluation research conducted in the field of the development of tourism students' ESP competence, describe the designed ESP competence development model and make suggestions for educators on how to implement the created model in studies and develop their professional activity.

ESP competence for tourism specialists

Historically competence has been associated with skills, qualification and abilities. The latest pedagogical literature describes competence as an ideal of education and an analytical category (Maslo, I., & Tiļļa, 2005; Maslo, I., 2006, Tiļļa, 2003; 2005). This latest approach to competence theory has been chosen for this study.

In order to define ESP competence, determine its content, define its criteria, indicators and create a description of competence levels, competence theories, professional competence theories, language competence theories and corresponding EU documents were analyzed. This paper does not discuss these points in detail as the research findings have already been published (Lūka, 2007a; 2007b; 2007c). It only reveals the main conclusions from the study.

Theoretical analysis enabled defining ESP competence for tourism specialists: *a tourism specialists' ESP competence is an individual combination of gained experience, attitude and abilities developed on the basis of learning, which allows a specialist, observing different cultural traditions and peculiarities, to creatively implement the English language both receptively and productively in communication and professional work, responsibly develop tourism industry and offer the client a product in an understandable and acceptable way.*

ESP competence consists of communicative, intercultural and professional activity competence. Each of them consists of several sub-competences that interact. The development of ESP competence takes place in action (process) and it is based on students' experiences, and consequently students form new experiences (Lūka, 2007a; 2007b).

In this study communicative competence includes: grammatical competence (basic lexis, semantics, morphology, syntax, phonology and orthography), pragmatic competence (contextual lexis, language functionality, unity and constructions for turn turning and continuity of communication), discourse competence (language exposure and the unity of text and situation), sociolinguistic competence (understanding of other cultures, register, accent, dialects and interaction skills) and strategic competence (verbal and non-verbal communication strategies and compensation strategies).

Intercultural competence is referred to as an ability to see and understand differences in one's own and other people's cultures and countries, accept them and accordingly react, in conversation and behaviour treating people in a way, which is not offending, scornful or insulting to the members of other cultures. At the same time it includes the knowledge of one's own nation and culture, awareness of their value, their preservation and development.

Intercultural competence consists of attitude (inquisitiveness and openness, tolerance), declarative knowledge of cultural aspects (facts, concepts) (Dirba, 2004, p. 25) and an ability to operate in different cultural contexts.

Professional activity competence contains all those sub-competences that prevail in each sphere (Tiļļa, 2005). It is characterized by the social nature of the activity and its development,

which is based on experience and acquired knowledge. Professional activity competence for tourism specialists consists of cognitive competence (theoretical and practical knowledge of the industry), personal competence (communication abilities and social skills) and technologically-professional competence (creative and constructive problem solving, communication skills, cooperation) (Wilson, 2001; Print, et al., 2002; Renard, 2001).

ESP competence criteria and indicators were defined:

- *language use for professional duties* (indicators: *mutual oral communication, understanding of a specialized text, business correspondence*);
- *professional thinking* (indicators: *cooperation and creativity*);
- *abilities of intercultural communication* (indicator: *openness and understanding*).

ESP competence can be measured according to three levels: basic user, independent user and proficient user (Lūka, 2007a).

The model for the development of tourism students' ESP competence

Based on the ideas of action theory a model for the development of tourism students' ESP competence has been created (see Figure 1.1). The basis of the model is students' experience and activity. This corresponds to the conception of humanistic pedagogy. The model for the development of students' ESP competence is suitable for learning ESP in tourism as it also observes the requirements of the tourism industry. The designed model improves the students' learning process in order to develop their ESP competence.

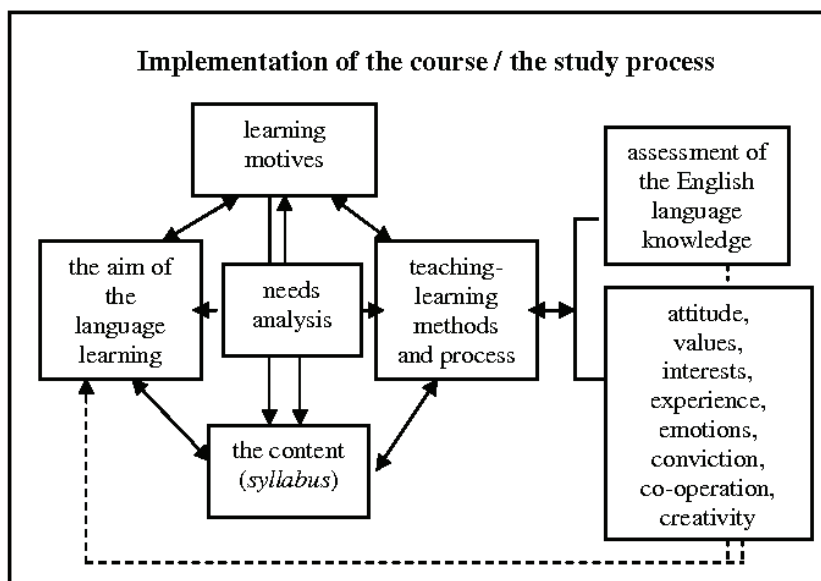


Figure 1.1. The scheme of the model for the development of tourism students' ESP competence

The aim of language learning is the development of students' ESP competence, which would enable the students observing different cultural traditions and peculiarities creatively implement the English language both receptively and productively in communication and professional work. The aim is specified in the following tasks:

- develop students' communicative language competence;
- form students' knowledge of professional lexis;
- further the development of students' intercultural communication abilities;

- develop students' creativity;
- develop students' co-operation and problem-solving skills;
- promote students' experience.

In foreign language methodology motivation is defined as the combination of students' work and desire that have been used in order to attain the goal of language learning (Spolsky, 1998). Students' work is emphasized, as language cannot be taught, one has to learn it. The educator can only help the students by creating a favourable study environment, by choosing corresponding teaching-learning methods and teaching aids. Besides, language learning also includes the students' opinion about the culture, their attitude towards learning situations and their ability of integration.

The aim and the motives are interrelated. The motives further the students' activity. The aim can promote the development of the motives. If in the course of studies a student accepts the aim as personally important for himself/herself, the aim and the motives come nearer to each other. In such a case the aim and the motives mutually comply.

The motives influence the study process and they are connected with the content of the studies. The content of the studies integrates the educator and the students' activity.

In order to define the content (syllabus) of the ESP course, first, a needs analysis on a theoretical and an empirical level was conducted. Second, the terms *curriculum* and *syllabus* were analyzed. Next, the analysis of advantages and disadvantages of different syllabi types was done and the standards of different tourism professions and foreign language syllabi of tourism curricula of other Latvian tertiary institutions were analyzed. It was discovered that the most appropriate type of syllabus for tourism students is the integrated one, which is formed by topical syllabus and the elements of situational, task-based and process syllabi. Topical and situational syllabi ensure its content correspondence to the requirements of the tourism industry. The elements of the task-based syllabus help to develop students' communication skills, creative thinking and problem-solving skills, but the elements of process syllabus enable its innovative approach as the course content, teaching aids and teaching-learning methods are selected in co-operation between students and an educator (Lūka, 2004; 2007a; 2007b; 2007c). Thus the content includes professional tourism lexis, real tourism related themes, as well as possible problem-solving situations that prospective tourism employers may come across in their professional activity.

In the educator's professional activity the content changes into the means of attaining the aim (Žogla, 2001). The aim influences the choice of the methods used, the course of studies and the result. The content also influences the choice of the teaching-learning methods. The development of tourism students' ESP competence takes place in the studies, which are organized based on mutual understanding and co-operation among group mates and between the students and the educator. Students themselves construct their knowledge, the educator only helps if necessary, makes sure that everyone is occupied.

The teaching-learning methods in foreign language studies take a special role. Although the inclusion of all the themes connected with the students' future profession in the syllabus is not important and is constricted by the limited duration of the course, the way in which the content is mastered is important. The methods used must motivate the students' learning, thereby facilitating the language learning process and the acquisition of themes that are not included in the syllabus by self-study (Widdowson, 1983). If the students purposefully select the teaching-learning methods and aids, their studies become more goal-oriented and they maintain interest and a high activity level during the whole course of studies, thus developing their ESP competence more qualitatively.

The acquired knowledge consists of a combination of two components – the objective component, which may be recognized by anyone and the subjective one, which includes

individual understanding, assessment and concept of using the knowledge. During the course of studies the students develop their ESP competence; their intellectual, emotional and social development take place; the attitude, understanding of values, and their interests are formed; motives are strengthened and confidence is developed.

Students and educator's co-operation in ESP studies

The ESP syllabus consists of definite themes that follow each other forming a learning cycle. Usually students study three themes per term. When starting to study a new theme the educator involves students in a discussion in order to find out students' experiences in relation with the topic. Students working in pairs or small groups discuss the topic, share their experiences and interests. After the discussion each pair/group reflects upon the results of their discussion. Next, the educator informs the students about the aim of the theme, the possible tasks, expected results, i.e., what a student will be able to do after having studied this theme. The students express their ideas and wishes, make comments, agree, and/or disagree with the educator and other group mates. When the group have agreed on the aim, tasks and content, the next stage is to agree on the form of the test (written or oral test, report, etc.).

Acquisition of the content consists of three phases: pre-task which is a warm-up task, task phase and post-task. Pre-task is a short task that leads students into the situation/theme. It may be brainstorming, mind-map, dialogue, sharing of experiences, etc. The task phase includes reading/listening tasks, analysis of professional lexis. Students may work in pairs, groups or individually depending on the task. Students do the tasks, but the educator listens, explains, suggests. Post-task takes the longest time in the task phase. The educator offers different creative tasks that are connected with the previously completed tasks and supplement them. First there are simple tasks, such as, questions and answers, substitution exercises, exercises of insertion, error correction, true/false tasks, etc. Later the tasks become more complicated and promote not only students' communicative competence but also students' professional thinking (creativity and co-operation) and intercultural communication abilities. For example, dialogues and pair discussion, analysis of professionally related problems, role plays in professional setting, case studies, project work, etc. Students also have to do some home task– extensive home reading connected with the topic or some creative/formal written work, which is also based on the material studied during the lesson. Each theme consists of several sub-topics. When students have studied all of them, they fill in self-assessment forms where they express their opinion on the content, teaching aids, methods, their own success and failure. The educator fills in similar forms about each student and makes formative assessment. After having done the test (summative assessment) students and the educator reflect on the previous topic in order to make necessary changes and improvements and start a discussion connected with the next theme. Thus students and the educator cooperate; they are partners who work for the same aim; they help each other. The educator helps the students to develop their language competence whereas the students explain the educator specific information, which is connected with their profession. Thus the educator learns together with the students. The students develop their ESP competence; the educator gains knowledge in some sphere thus widening his/her viewpoint. This co-operation between the students and the educator forms the basis of creative study process and mutual understanding.

The students' ESP competence development model, which is based on the students and the educator's mutual co-operation and which includes continuous needs analysis of the students and the industry's needs during the whole study process, enabled understanding the students' wishes and learning styles, forming a micro-climate in the group, creating a favourable study environment, and forming continuous feedback, which, in its turn, helped selecting the most appropriate teaching aids and teaching-learning methods.

The following suggestions for the development of the educator's professional activity are made:

- before designing a syllabus it is essential to carry out a comprehensive needs analysis involving students, educators of the specialty courses and representatives from the industry;
- it is vital to design a syllabus which would correspond both to the students' needs and desires and to the requirements of the industry;
- when starting an ESP course, it is recommended that a needs analysis aimed at ascertaining the students' learning experiences and defining their learning styles be conducted;
- the students have to be informed about the aim of the course, its tasks, syllabus, the teaching-learning methods and teaching aids and the expected results;
- ESP studies have to be based on mutual co-operation among the students and between the students and the educator, clarifying the aim of the theme, the methods and the teaching aids, the possible forms of assessment etc.;
- after each studied theme, in order to form a feedback, students should fill in self-assessment forms which also include questions about the educator's activity, the teaching-learning methods and teaching aids used;
- the ESP educator has to carry out the students' observations and fill in the observation forms after acquisition of each theme (formative assessment);
- the teaching-learning methods that arouse students' activity should be used during the studies and they have to be connected with professional lexis;
- the educator should offer the students problem-solving tasks that are related with their professional activity, and in co-operation find the most appropriate solution discussing advantages, disadvantages and the interesting aspects of the possible solutions;
- in order to develop students' professional thinking, ESP studies should include creative tasks;
- professional lexis, texts, different speaking tasks and listening tasks have to be supplemented with adequate video recorded materials;
- the study process has to be arranged so that the students themselves would construct their knowledge and the educator would be their adviser and facilitator;
- in order to help the students to develop an ability to work in different socio-cultural contexts, the teaching aids which contain a versatile cultural experience should be chosen;
- educators should be flexible, helpful and ready to learn from the students thus developing their professional competence;
- at the end of the course, it is vital to carry out its evaluation process in order to make improvements in the syllabus, the teaching-learning methods and teaching aids used.

Qualitative evaluation research

Having analyzed possible research designs, qualitative evaluation research has been chosen, which best suits to the research question and the goal of the research. P. Mayring's research design (Mayring, 2002:64) has been adapted and used in the study (see Figure 1.2.).

Exploration of the research context includes the analysis of curriculum and syllabus theories, theories of needs analysis and the analysis of competence theories as well as an empirical

needs analysis, which involved interviews with 9 third-year tourism students, a survey of 90 second-year tourism students, semi-structured interviews of 12 tourism educators and a survey of 26 tourism employers. The data was analyzed implementing qualitative data analysis software AQUAD 6 and quantitative data analysis software SPSS 15.0. As a result an ESP syllabus for tourism specialists was designed.

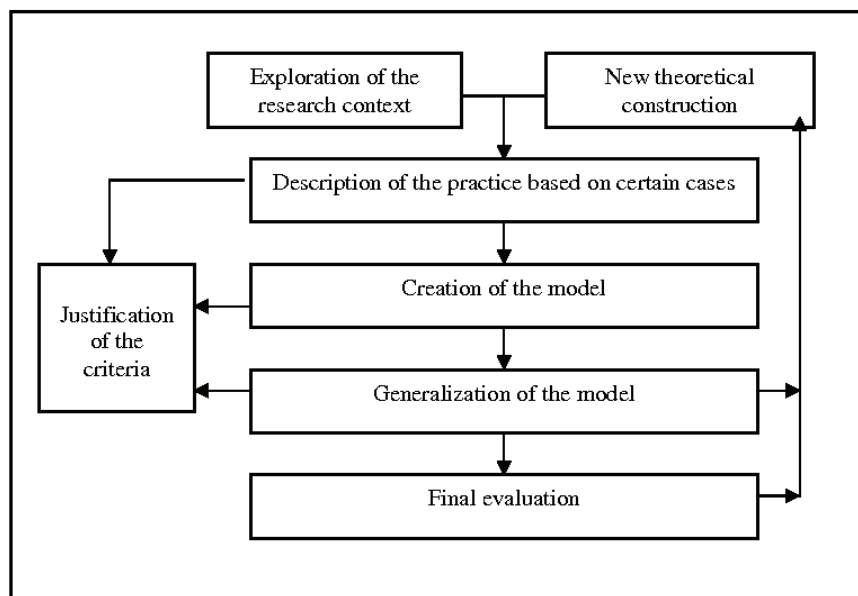


Figure 1.2. The design of the research

During the next stage of the research – the description of the practice based on certain cases – 156 students took an international exam *English for Tourism Industry* using the sample paper 2043/3/04/F. Three ESP lecturers according to common criteria (*content, layout, the choice of lexis, grammar and spelling*) marked students' works. As a result the sample was composed of nine first-year students in order to continue the study – to design a model for the development of students' ESP competence, test it and introduce into studies.

The next stage was the creation of the model and its testing. Qualitative data analysis methods were used at this stage of the research.

Justification of the criteria included interviews with four lecturers of tourism subjects, in whose courses students' intercultural and professional activity competences are developed.

Generalization of the research results included a survey of 187 third-year and fourth-year tourism students who had studied ESP using the designed ESP curriculum. Frequencies were determined and analyzed; Kruskal-Wallis' H test and Wilcoxon's T test were done.

The final evaluation of the research involved the sample of the study, their ESP lecturer, and an independent ESP lecturer and 4 lecturers of tourism courses. First, the students filled in self-assessment forms and evaluated their ESP competence development during the studies. Second, in order to measure their ESP competence in the indicators *understanding of a specialized text, business correspondence* and *creativity* the students took *English for International Tourism* exam using the sample paper 2043/1/01. Next, the students' ESP competence in the indicator *mutual oral communication* was measured at the oral exam-conference in which they had to make a presentation about tourism in some country. The students' ESP lecturer and an independent ESP lecturer measured their ESP competence in the above-mentioned indicators. Finally, 4 tourism lecturers also assessed the students' ESP competence in the criteria *professional thinking* and *abilities of intercultural communication*.

The results of the research show the efficiency of the created ESP competence development model as ESP competence of the sample of the study has improved. The students' self-assessment shows a significant improvement of their ESP competence ($p = 0.000$; $\alpha = 0.978$) and reveals a significant influence of the students' work experience upon the development of their ESP competence ($p = 0.012$). The results in the international exam *English for Tourism Industry* showed a significant competence development in the indicator *business correspondence*. ESP competence of the sample of the study has significantly improved in the indicator *mutual oral communication* ($p = 0.046$). Triangulation of the competence measurement of the sample of the study at the end of the research reveals that 4 students from 9 have ESP competence corresponding to a proficiency level and 5 students – to the level of an independent user, which corresponds to the demands of the tourism industry. Friedman's Test proves the data validity of the study as $p > 0.05$, Cronbach's Alpha Reliability statistics test proves data reliability as $\alpha > 0.2$ ($p = 0.212$, $\alpha = 0.657$; $p = 0.179$, $\alpha = 0.836$; $p = 0.549$, $\alpha = 0.810$).

Conclusions

Construction of the knowledge is based upon an individual's personal experience and social context, and it occurs in mutual co-operation between students and the educator. This co-operation is student-centred and it observes students' interests and needs, promotes students' motivation, develops their abilities, as well as observes students' wish to study and work creatively, thus developing their competence.

In the language learning process the aim of the studies and the corresponding teaching-learning methods and teaching aids that have been chosen in co-operation between the students and the educator enable the students to attain the aim of the studies. The educator helps the students to improve their ESP competence, to develop the skill of using a language in different socio-cultural contexts; at the same time the educator is learning from the students acquiring knowledge in a specific professional field thus developing his/her professional competence.

Students' ESP competence develops more qualitatively if students and the educator are partners who work for the same aim, help each other and learn from each other. Cooperation between the students and the educator forms the basis of creative study process and mutual understanding.

Literature

1. Alijevs, R. *Izglītības filosofija. 21. gadsimts*. Rīga: Retorika A, 2005. 267 lpp.
2. Blūma, D. Shift of Paradigms in the Qualifications of University Lecturers // University of Latvia, *Izglītības zinātnes un pedagoģija mūsdienu pasaulē. Zinātniskie raksti 635*, 2001. p. 29–33.
3. Dirba, M. Intercultural learning and language teacher education. // *Collection of the selected papers presented at the ATEE 7th Spring University. European added value in teacher education*. Tartu: University of Tartu, 2004, p. 23–28.
4. Lūka, I. (a) Development of Students' ESP Competence at the Tertiary Level. // *Innovations in Language Teaching and Learning in the Multicultural Context. Research papers of International Nordic-Baltic conference of FIPLV*. Riga: SIA "Izglītības solī", 2007. p. 329–339.
5. Lūka, I. (b) Development of Students' Intercultural Competence at the Tertiary Level. // *Polish Journal of Applied Psychology*. University of Wrocław, 2007, vol. 5, N 1, p. 97–111.
6. Lūka, I. (c) Some Aspects of the ESP Curriculum Design for Tertiary Institutions. // *The New Educational Review* 11 (1), 2007. Poland, Czech Republic, Slovak Republic. Torun: Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek, p. 63–74.
7. Lūka, I. ESP Syllabus Design for Tourism Students. // *European added value in teacher education*. Tartu: University of Tartu, 2004. p. 151–156.
8. Maslo, I. (ed.) *No zināšanām uz kompetentu darbību*. Rīga: LU Akadēmiskais apgāds, 2006. 186 lpp.

9. Maslo, I., Tiļļa, I. Kompetence kā audzināšanas ideāls un analītiska kategorija. // *Skolotājs* 3 (51), 2005. p. 4.–9.
10. Mayring, P. *Einführung in die qualitative Sozialforschung*. Beltz, Basel: Beltz Verlag, 2002. 169 p.
11. Print, M., Ørnstrøm, S., et al. Education for Democratic Process in Schools and Classrooms. // *European Journal of Education*, 2002, vol.37, N 2, p. 193–210.
12. Renard, P. The speech during the closing ceremony of the Forty-sixth Session of the International Conference on Education. Geneva, 5–8 September 2001. // *Educational Innovation and Information*, 2001, vol. 109, p. 1–7.
13. Spolsky, B. *Conditions for Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1998. 256 p.
14. Tiļļa, I. *Pusaudžu sociokultūras kompetences pilnveide otrās svešvalodas mācību procesā*. Rīga: University of Latvia, 2003. 250 lpp.
15. Tiļļa, I. *Sociokultūras mācīšanās organizācijas sistēma*. Rīga: Izdevniecība RaKa., 2005. 295 lpp.
16. Widdowson, H. G. *Learning Purpose and Language Use*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1983. 122 p.
17. Wilson, D. Reform of TVET for the Changing World of Work. // *Prospects. Quarterly review of comparative education*, 2001, vol.XXXI, N 1, p. 21–37.
18. Žogla, I. *Curriculum jēdziens definīcijās un salīdzinājumā*. // *Pedagoģija un skolotāju izglītība. Latvijas Universitātes Raksti* 700, 2006. 32–42.
19. Žogla, I. *Didaktikas teorētiskie pamati*. Rīga: Izdevniecība RaKa, 2001. 275 lpp.

Kopsavilkums

Šī kvalitatīvi novērtējošā pētījuma aktualitāti pamato augošās prasības darbinieku profesionalitātei, kas izvirza jaunas prasības izglītībai, akcentējot dialogu, sadarbību, savstarpēju izpratni un radošo darbību. Šis pētījums aplūko iespējas, kā organizēt uz studenta mācīšanos orientētu pedagoģisko procesu, kas palīdzētu studentiem sasniegt augstu profesionālās angļu valodas kompetences līmeni, spēju konkurēt darba tirgū un nepārtraukti pilnveidoties, vienlaikus veicinot docētāja pedagoģiskās darbības pilnveidi. Pētījuma priekšmets ir studentu profesionālās angļu valodas kompetences veidošanās. Raksts atspoguļo veiktā pētījuma rezultātus – tūrisma studentiem izveidoto profesionālās angļu valodas programmu, izveidoto profesionālās angļu valodas kompetences definīciju, profesionālās angļu valodas kompetences komponentus, kritērijus, rādītājus, studentu profesionālās angļu valodas kompetences pilnveides modeli un sniedz ierosinājumus docētāju profesionālās darbības pilnveidei.

Atslēgvārdi: profesionālās angļu valodas kompetence, valodas lietojums, starpkultūru komunikācija, sadarbība, kreativitāte, profesionālā darbība, attīstība.

About the author

Ineta Lūka, Mag. Paed., is Head of the Foreign Languages Department, Assistant Professor at the School of Business Administration “Turība”, a PhD student of the University of Latvia. Her academic interests are connected with teaching English for Special Purposes (ESP) to tourism students, hotel management students, and the prospective PR specialists. Her research theme is the development of students' ESP competence in tertiary level tourism studies. The research interests also include the development of educators' professional activity and quality of tertiary education.

Address: Graudu 68, Riga LV-1058, Latvia.

E-mail: ineta@turiba.lv

THE ROLE OF AN EDUCATOR IN FURTHER EDUCATION OF ADULTS DOCĒTĀJA LOMA PIEAUGUŠO TĀLĀKIZGLĪTĪBĀ

Oksana Shalajeva

Latvian University of Agriculture, Institute of Education and Home Economics
Čakstes blvd. 5, Jelgava, LV-3001, Latvia
+ 371 29190105, oxy@era2k.lv

Aivars Lasmanis

University of Latvia, Faculty of Education and Psychology
Jūrmalas gatve 74/76, Rīga, LV-1083, Latvia
+371 67033860, aivars.lasmanis@lu.lv

Abstract

The article deals with understanding of terminology that is used in scientific publications, for example, terms like “adult education” and “education for adults”. The most popular explanation of the concept of “adult education” and its use is related to any educational activity performed by an adult. The article also deals with the basic explanation of the conception “adult education” as well as identifies “the overlapping” meanings of the terms used in the field of adult education.

The conception of the modernization of education emphasizes the competent approach as a priority. At present, the re-orientation of educational results from the concepts “level of education”, “common culture” etc. towards the concepts “competency” and “to be competent” takes place.

The article analyzes the theory of further education of adults and various approaches toward the explanation of the conception “educational competency”. The conception “educational competency” in relation to the educator involved in the implementation of further education is defined more precisely on the basis of different substantiations. The article also deals with some issues regarding the history and theory of further education.

Majority of educators involved in the implementation of further education are experts in particular fields of science, production, sport, tourism, art and other sectors. The further education of adults is viewed as education by taking into account individual educational requirements and interests in relation to particular activities. The educators involved in the implementation of further education of adults employ the process-oriented approach.

Keywords: further education of adults, competency, process-oriented approach.

Introduction

Adult education as an independent scientific trend was formed only recently. However, specialists have been systematically researching the problems of adult education already since the 1970s.

First of all, we will pay attention to the use of three terms in scientific publications – “adult education”, “education of adults” and “education for adults” – and ascertain their meaning. It should be pointed out at the outset that the difference between these terms is very significant in Great Britain.

However, the analysis of foreign pedagogical scientific literature in the field of adult education shows that the difference regarding the use of these terms is not always clearly defined even in Great Britain, and these terms are often used as synonyms.

A term in linguistics is defined as a word, a combination of words or a sentence having a special, particular function. In our view, the most precise definition of this concept is provided

by V. Skujiņa: “A term is a unit of definition – a word or a terminological phrase, which expresses a particular scientific notion within the term system of the respective scientific discipline. It is a notion within the strict boundaries of the notion as well as with a particular place within the common system of notions.” (Shalajeva, Lasmanis, 2006, 1)

The report of the Adult Education Committee of the Republic of Ireland provides a definition of adult education with a very similar meaning, which presents an analogous explanation between basic and further education. According to the analysis performed by A. Mitina (Митина, 2004), adult education comprises all systematic studies performed by an adult, which facilitate the development of the adult as an individual and a human being and as a member of the community and society comparable to studies in ancient times when people acquired primary education and training. As we can see from the given definition, the author also shows the difference between the basic and further education of an individual. Such an insight demonstrates the importance of identifying adult further education as an independent field.

Let us view the conception of “the triad” consisting of “formal education”, “non-formal education” and “informal education”, i.e., education acquired by means of the influence of environment on an individual. The conception of “non-formal education” constitutes one part in this triad. The other two terms of the triad were introduced into pedagogics in the 1960s–1970s during the international discussion on the educational problems. They attracted the attention of pedagogical circles to the importance of education and preparation acquired outside the educational establishments, which are officially recognized and envisaged for this special purpose. The introduction of both terms was related to the consideration of educational situation in the developing countries, and now these terms are more often applied for the analysis of education in the so-called “third countries”. When considering similar phenomena in Western countries, the term “community education” is used more often (Митина, 2004).

At present, the re-orientation of educational results from the concepts “level of education”, “common culture” etc towards the concepts “competency” and “to be competent” takes place. This re-orientation also concerns adult education.

According to V. Gorskis (Горский, 2007), the analysis of the theory of further education and the long-term practice of further education establishments allowed to supplement the definition of the concept “educational competency” with the following statement: “educational competency” is a totality of social experience, knowledge, skills and abilities that ensure undefined preparedness for the solution of research tasks. In this case, an indicator towards the educational aim could be the route model, the project of the way leading towards the understanding of oneself, the understanding of the world surrounding oneself and one’s own place within it, i.e. the model of the way leading towards the meaning of life. In this case, a process-oriented approach will be indispensable for the praxis of an adult further education pedagogue. As the dictionary explains, the process-oriented approach is a methodological approach used in the educational process, in which the main emphasis is not placed on a fixed goal but on the very process of making one’s way toward that goal. (Skujiņa et al., 2000).

Conception of adult education

The concept of “adult education” in Great Britain traditionally means humanitarian education obtained by a middle class representative during spare time or leisure time. This term emphasizes the idea that the education of an adult individual is completed, and the adult is only perfecting the already acquired knowledge, skills or hobbies during his or her spare time.

Within the English educational practice, the adult education is really implemented during the spare time or leisure time; nevertheless, this factor, according to many authors’ views, does not diminish the significance of the obtained results. As G. Hostler maintains, it is mistaken

to believe that “if the humanitarian education is not taken for the results, it has no results at all” (Митина, 2004).

Taking into consideration the narrow use of the term “adult education” in Great Britain, the term “education for adults” is used for wider identification of study. According to the researchers’ views, the widely used term has tendency to be applied in relation to any learning activity performed by an adult.

The definition provided by the dictionary comprises six meanings of “adult education”, showing not only the ambiguity of this term when explained by foreign researchers but also partial correspondence, “the overlapping” of the conditions of different conceptions used in the field of adult education, which are analyzed by A.Mitina. Let us consider six meanings of “adult education”:

1. “Social institution providing educational opportunities for adults.”
2. Humanitarian education for adults.
3. Any organized or supported communication, envisaged for the education of adults, except the education following “initial primary and secondary education” and vocational education.
4. The total complex of organized educational processes irrespective of their content, levels, methods and types – formal or other – regardless of the fact whether the education is continued or replaces the initial education at schools, colleges and universities. An “apprenticeship” when the participants, viewed as adults by the community to which they belong, improve their technical or professional qualification or re-orientate it towards the new trend and introduce changes in their relationships or behavior from the balanced developmental perspective and participation in the independent, social, economical and cultural development (UNESCO).
5. The term shows the atmosphere of democratic and socialistic movement, directed towards ensuring more educational opportunities for adults in comparison to the “education of adults” that has no such history.
6. Educational process implemented in accordance with “the adult manner”.

Let us analyze all the meanings of the given term. The first and the fourth of the meanings, irrespective of the difference in their statements (extremely short definition in the first case that does not allow for any limitations, and the full length statement comprising all the components in the fourth case), do not overlap regarding their content.

The wide definition includes formal and non-formal adult education ensured by modern providers irrespective of the duration of studies, the academic level of programs and their content, as well as the period of life, when the participants in the study process receive this service.

As we can see, the fourth meaning of the given concept comprises both the initial and post-initial education of an individual. The only criterion of education conformity, according to UNESCO experts’ views, is the age of a participant in the study process – he/she must be considered an adult by society.

It should be emphasized that such a wide explanation of the term “adult education” corresponds to the understanding of an analogous term adopted in Russia, the content of which comprises any all-round adult development during his/her independent lifetime – such as studies of an adult at an evening school, being an extramural or evening department student at a college or university, specialized educational institutions and further education centres or being involved in the non-formal educational system and independent studies (Митина, 2004).

Definitions provided by the second meaning explain the term “adult education” rather narrowly, emphasizing only one trend – the humanitarian education. Such explanation of the

term, as it was observed, is rather traditional and more characteristic to Great Britain than other countries.

The third meaning of explanation comprises several activity forms of adult non-vocational further education, which draw the meaning of this term nearer to further non-vocational education.

The fifth meaning of the term deals with adult education as a democratic and socialistic movement, i.e. the socio-political aspects of the issue are emphasized. In addition, this educational trend acquires particular significance nowadays due to the necessity for its support, expansion and better provision.

The sixth meaning of the term provides an explanation of adult education as an educational process implemented in conformity with rather determined methods of working with the adult audience – i.e. the process is implemented according to “the adult manner”. The most popular explanation of adult education associates it with any educational activities accepted by an adult.

P. Jarvis views the adult education very broadly – it is “related to those educational processes, which are accepted by individuals, who had officially obtained the status of an adult”. Being aware of the difficulties regarding the defining of the concept of an adult, P. Jarvis suggests also substituting the term “adult education” with the term “post-compulsory education” as a theoretical alternative, thus demonstrating the insight into this field as education acquired after the obtaining of compulsory education. At the same time, P. Jarvis particularly identifies another delimited educational field out of the wide range of adult education, which has lately been defined using the following term: “institutionalized services for providing adult education which in fact means the organization of further education for adults”. (Митина, 2004).

It is suggested to introduce the individual's initially obtained basic education in any of its forms as “a borderline” dividing the educational practice type from the reflected scientific field. This education includes adult evening and extramural education at schools, colleges, higher educational establishments and other educational institutions, as well as varied educational improvements in the production when an individual starts working for the first time. Education acquired by an adult after the obtaining of basic education should be viewed as adult education.

The approximation of the concepts “adult education” and “continuing education” is observed also in the change of the names of different organizations.

Analogous phenomena with showing approximation of the terms “adult education” and “continuing education” are observed in the names of educational organizations of various countries. For instance, the title American Association of Adult and Continuing Education functions very well in the USA.

The abovementioned shows that the foreign researchers pay more and more attention to the problem of adult education in relation to the later period of lifetime – after the acquisition of basic education. At the same time it is pointed out that the division of adult education into initial, basic and post-initial, further education does not prevent all the difficulties regarding the better definition of the term adult education.

Some part of population does not obtain initial education in many countries even today; therefore, it is impossible to understand the category of adult education as “post-initial” education.

Is the preparatory course leading to the obtaining of secondary education certificate (for instance, at a college of further education) – attended by both secondary school pupils and adults, who have returned in order to continue their education – an initial or post-initial education? Such questions show that there is an incomplete scientific “instrumentality”,

difficulty to apply the categories of adult education in practice in terms of post-initial adult education.

Triad of educational conception

Let us analyze the definitions of all three terms adopted in foreign pedagogy, since these terms form a single system that covers all the influence of education on the community, and these terms differ according to the criterion of the study organization level.

The term “formal education” was adopted to identify the most organized types of studies, implemented at formal and non-formal community establishments envisaged for the educational purposes.

The term “non-formal education” is applied to identify the educational process in the field of adult education abroad, which is organized beyond the borders of formal education system – often in order to meet certain cognitive needs of people.

According to foreign experts’ views, this term was accidentally used to describe the education in the developing countries. In these countries, the official educational program is available only to a part of the population.

It is easy to notice that the last type of education, like the first one, is envisaged for all the age groups of population. Although it is organized and purposeful, unlike formal education, it is implemented outside the official educational institutions accredited by the community for the implementation of educational activities. The examples could be the educational programs for the training of farmers, the programs for the elimination of adult illiteracy, programs of vocational education, courses on the issues of health and food etc.

Several foreign authors emphasize the advantages of such courses, particularly in relation to the inhabitants of rural areas, which are far away from the large educational centres. The authors point out the relatively high involvement of audience in the setting of educational aims and designing of the content of educational programs in comparison to the official educational process. Such an involvement, in A. Mitina’s opinion (Митина, 2004), leads to the more perfect approximation of students’ demand for education and, as a result, to the focusing of attention to the demands and priorities of the community which these students belong to.

Thus, non-formal adult education has the organizational, systematization and fulfillment characteristics in relation to the existing education for individuals. Hence, it is rather close to the concept of adult further education in the state andragogy. In conformity with the essence of the subject, it might have or have no professional orientation.

The last element of the abovementioned triad is “informal education” – education obtained outside the educational institutions or education obtained as a result of the influence of environment upon an individual. When defining the term more precisely, it is possible to provide the description of different types of influence on the educational society – work, home, family, friends, the mass media and books.

The most characteristic peculiarity of such studies is the lack of systematization and organization, and often also – lack of intention. In Russian pedagogy, the similar idea is denoted by the term “upbringing” in its wider meaning.

In conclusion of the analysis of the triad of formal – non-formal – informal education, we can say that today many providers of formal education supply education that does not lead to the receiving of a certificate. Such education is oriented towards recreation, and it is a short-term process. On the other hand, non-formal education and the influence of environment can be transformed into the types of formal activities oriented towards the acquisition of a certificate.

Competence of an educator involved in further education

According to V. Shibayev (Šibajevs, 2002), the educators working at the institutions providing further (especially non-formal) education face more difficulties when planning the acquisition of educational content than the teachers working at comprehensive schools, because they must take into account the fact that such classes are often attended by students of different age, abilities, temperament and nationalities; therefore, particular attention should be paid to the choice of methods and forms. In order to carry out the study process successfully, the aims and objectives for the co-operation of an educator and a student must be set, as well as the necessary means should be chosen and the result analyzed. The precondition of this interaction is the objective interdependence of participants – the common goal.

The educator should be tolerant, unbiased and tactful. Psychological readiness of the educator is based on the thesis of the ancient Greeks: “Only a personality can rear individuality.” It is characterized by the motivation and attitude towards the humanistic values. The educator should achieve this attitude by means of particular structure of activities, their ongoing and systematic fulfillment, the calculation of the expected student's behavior and difficulties, and the necessity to achieve the final result (Shalajeva, Lasmanis, 2006, 2).

If the educator sees his/her study subject only in terms of both formal and non-formal education without seeing the student, if he/she sets as the objective to provide information only, but not the development of student's abilities, then such performance does not correspond even to the lowest level of professional competence, and the activities of such a “specialist” must be stopped at the modern educational establishments. Cold attitude towards the student hinders the development of creative interaction and does not facilitate the stability of interests.

According to V. Gorskis (Горский, 2007), the interaction between the educator involved in the implementation of further educational process and the student can be schematized as follows:

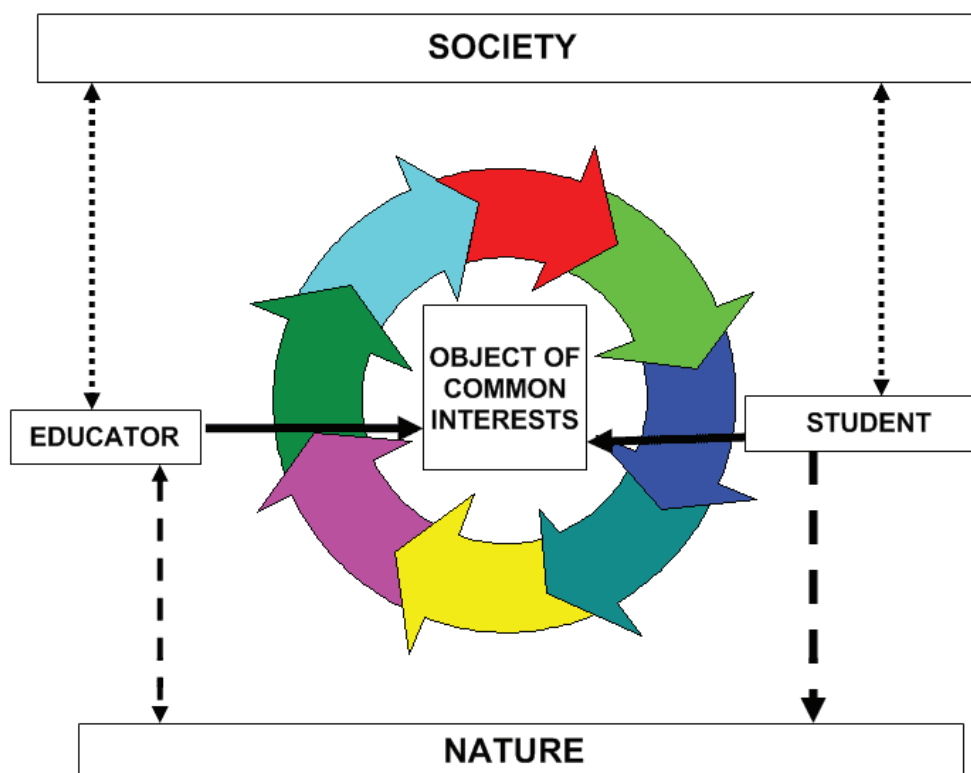


Fig. 1. Cooperation of an educator and a student with nature and society

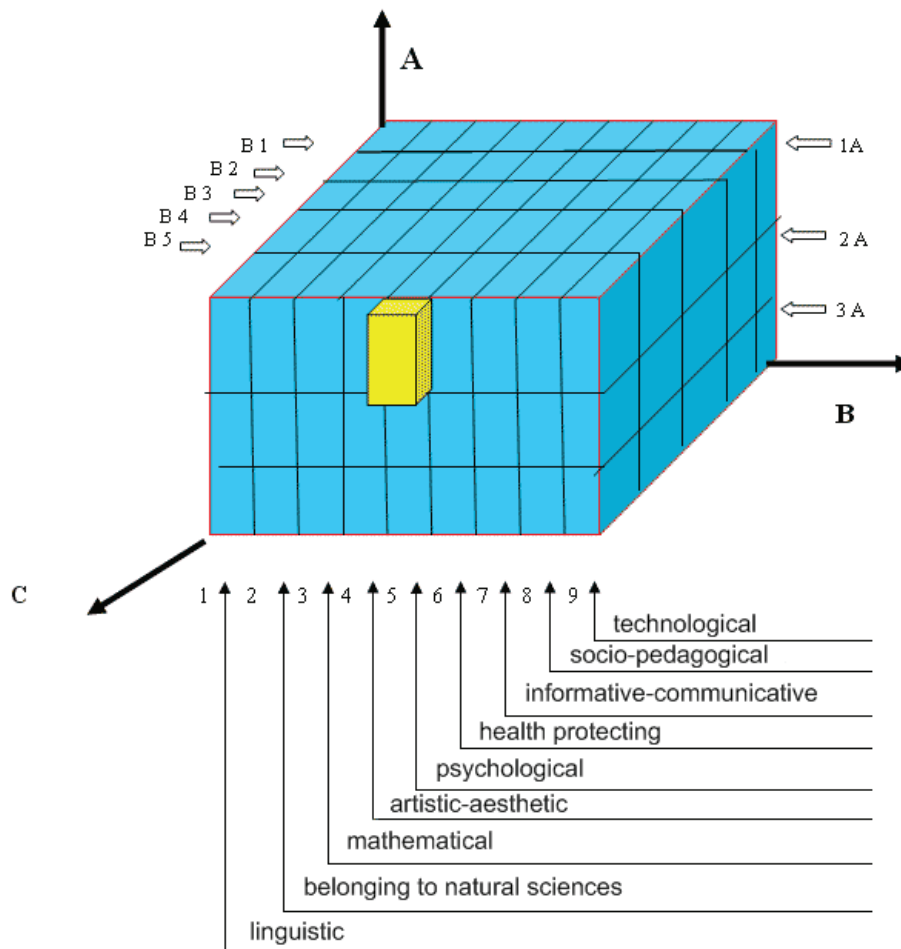


Fig. 2. The integrative model of the structure of the concept “educational competency” in relation to the educator involved in the implementation of further educational process

Vector A – levels of educational competency development that comprise the following components: A1 – theoretical-methodological; A2 – common-methodical; A3 – private-methodical.

Vector B indicates the modern means of “educational competency” developments: B1– television, video-computer systems; B2 – multimedia, “case” technologies; B3 – means of virtual reality; B4 – electronic office, browser systems; B5 – the internet, electronic mail, electronic conferences, chat.

Vector C shows the basic components of the content of concept “educational competency”: C1 – linguistic; C2 – belonging to natural sciences; C3 – mathematical; C4 – artistic-aesthetic; C5 – psychological; C6 – health protecting; C7 – informative-communicative; C8 – socio-pedagogical; C9 – technological.

The subjects of educational process act as partners, striving towards the proficiency and social acknowledgement. The educational and developmental level is determined by the criterion of activities carried out jointly by the educator and the student, i.e. all the educational subjects interested in achieving success fast.

The student acquires and adopts the educator’s experience, knowledge, skills, as well as uses different information sources to ensure the successful acquisition of the subject matter or trend, which has aroused his/her interest.

The educator involved in the implementation of further educational process (expert of a particular field – science, technologies, art, etc.), instead of influencing the student, affects the common subject by demonstrating the activity examples to the student, providing corresponding commentary, “enlightening” the student with the “light” of different educational fields.

A. Šmite (Smite, 2004) in her work expresses an idea that a human being has a desire to find a single model of lifetime activities – the model that would be useful for different situations and periods of time. She would like to have vertical and horizontal order, which is difficult to object against.

As an example, we will develop “the model of the educational competency content” that will be useful for both children and adult education (Fig. 2). In order to achieve our objective, we will apply D. Gilford's idea. He developed a three-dimensional model of artificial intelligence. Similar approach was applied also by I. Lerener and V. Razumovsky for the development of the models of educational content (Горский, 2007).

Conclusions

There are several explanations provided for the given conception; in addition, “the overlapping” of the meanings of terms used in the field of adult education is identified. Furthermore, one more peculiarity of the developmental tendencies of modern terminology in the Western andragogy should be pointed out – the merging of used terms taking place in relation to both content and expression. The characteristic example is the merging and approximation of the terms “continuing education” and “adult education”.

When analyzing the triad, we encounter the phenomena, which were already pointed out as characteristic to educational situation in Western countries – “blurring” of the borders of educational categories at the theoretical level of analysis and “overlapping” of educational trends implemented by different institutions.

The model of educational competency content allows a more precise definition of the concept of an educator involved in the implementation of further education, the technologies specifying the content of “educational competency” and designing of all its components. Taking into consideration the existing functional aspects ensuring its stability, any component might have a new content. On the other hand, when viewing this model from several perspectives, we can draw a conclusion that such a holistic approach provides several opportunities for designing the model in conformity with the modern educational requirements.

References

1. Skujiņa V., et. al. Pedagoģijas terminu skaidrojošā vārdnīca. – Rīga: “Apgāds Zvaigzne ABC”, 2000 – 137 lpp.
2. Šibajevs V. Neformālā izglītība interešu centros. – Rīga: “Izdevniecība RaKa”, 2002 – 352 lpp.
3. Šmite A. Izglītības iestādes vadība. I daļa. Pedagoģ. Organizācija. Pārmaiņas. – Rīga: RaKa, 2004 – 256 lpp.
4. Shalajeva O., Lasmanis A. (2006,1) “Aspects of using terminology in sport pedagogic.” *Journal of Science Education*, Vol. 7. ISSN 0124-5481, pp. 59–61.
5. Shalajeva O., Lasmanis A. (2006, 2) “Coach competence in Latvia's fitness clubs.” *ATEE Spring University 2006*, 1, ISSN 1822-2196, pp. 106–110.
6. Горский В. А. Компетентностный подход в дополнительном образовании детей – 2007, http://vio.fio.ru/vio_45/cd_site/Articles/art_1_4.htm.
7. Митина А. М. Дополнительное образование взрослых за рубежом: Концептуальное становление и развитие. – Москва: Наука, 2004. – 304 с.

About the authors

Aivars Lasmanis, Doctor's Degree in Education (Pedagogy), Assoc. Professor at the University of Latvia.

Research and academic interests: Methodology of Education (Pedagogy)

Address: University of Latvia, Faculty of Education and Psychology

Jūrmalas gatve 74/76, Rīga, LV-1083, Latvia

Telephone: +371-7033862

Fax: +371-7033860

E-mail: aivars.lasmanis@lu.lv

Web: <http://www.alnet.lv/>

Oksana Shalajeva, Mag. Paed (Sports Pedagogy), Ph.D. student, Latvian University of Agriculture.

Research and academic interests: Pedagogical problems in sports education

Address: Latvian University of Agriculture, Institute of Education and Home Economics

Čakstes blvd. 5, Jelgava, LV-3001, Latvia

Telephone: +371-29190105

E-mail: oxy@era2k.lv

**PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATORS AIMED
AT RESEARCH AND CHANGE OF THEIR OWN
EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE**

**DOCĒTĀJU PROFESIONĀLĀ ATTĪSTĪBA AR MĒRĶI APĢŪT
PĒTNIECISKO PRASMI UN MAINĪT
SAVU PEDAGOĢISKO PRAKSI**

Edita Slunjski

University of Zagreb Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences
Department of Pedagogy
Croatia

Abstract

Traditional forms of professional development of education experts are based on the assumption that a path from information to knowledge and from knowledge to practice is linear, simple and that both (knowledge and practice) can be obtained mechanically. However, professional development should result not only in the improvement of knowledge but even more in the changes of belief and behaviour of educators, and the lecture (informative) type of professional development cannot by itself lead to this. Quality of living, learning and education of students in an educational institution is not determined by individual pedagogical or methodical interventions of educators but by the entire context of the educational institution, of which a educator is an integral part and which he or she can change according to his or her degree of its understanding. For educators it is necessary to raise the level of understanding of the context of their own educational institution and to shape new believes on which new skills and capabilities are based, which are needed for development of a more quality educational practice. For this reason professional development of educators should be made in the educational institution itself, and should be aimed at evolution of their research and reflexive skills. By joint research, educators are qualified for better understanding and graduate change and development of their own practice and in this way they become “reflexive practitioners”, i.e., “class ethnographers”. Culture of common research, decision making and coordinated action should be developed in an educational institution, in which each individual is co-responsible for creation of the organization which is capable for individual and group research and continuous self-development, leading to continuous development of educational practice.

Keywords: professional development, context of an educational institution, reflexive practice, culture of research.

Introduction

Many authors point out the fact that the attributes of the modern times are not linearity or predictability, but insecurity, unpredictability, complexity and unexpectedness (Capra, 1986, Riley, 2003, Fullan, 1999). For that reason, educational institutions have to be flexible, prepared to continuously adapt and adjust to changes instead of maintaining the *status quo*. Educational institutions need to be enabled for continuous and flexible adjustment to unexpected and unplanned situations, i.e., adaptation to conditions of radical and long-lasting insecurity, unpredictability and change (Barnett and Hallam, 1999) in order to be able to prepare students for the same situations. It represents “the new paradigm of functioning of an institution – organisation which is in a permanent state of learning, creating changes” (Senge, 2003, p. 330). Professional training of teachers at school-learning organisation is understood as creating conditions for permanent research of their own practice together and enriching teacher’s professional knowledge together which leads to a continuous change of their educational practice.

Training teachers for reflective research and changing their own educational practice

A traditional approach to teacher's professional training is based on the practice of organising lectures, seminars and workshops in different specialised fields (pedagogy, psychology or methods) assumed to provide a higher level of their professional competencies. This point of view is based on the assumption that developing teacher's professional competencies can be achieved by instruction which will automatically improve the quality of the educational process. Many contemporary authors, for example, Senge (2003), Hawley (2002), Fullan, (1993, 1999), Hopkins (2001), Elmore (2002), Hargreaves (1999) and others, think that traditional, instructive understanding of teacher's professional training is inappropriate and ineffective. They point out that knowledge itself needs not lead to changes in a teacher's educational approach necessary to achieve a higher quality of practice. Namely, educational practice is too alive, unpredictable, complex and multidimensional (Fullan, 1993, 1999, Prosser, 1999, Datnow and others 2002, Bascia, Hargreaves, 2000) to be changed only by something as static as knowledge (theory). The relationship between theory and educational practice at school is not linear or mechanical, but complex and reciprocal. As pointed out by Datnow and others (2002), theory and practice represent "a two-way street", which means that theory can influence practice and practice can influence theory only if it happens simultaneously and reciprocally.

Senge and others (2003, p. 25) also claim that improvement in any organisation, educational organisation included, "cannot be achieved by more instruction or a traditional approach which includes command and control." This author points out that instruction cannot make people change their point of view, beliefs, understanding and abilities which determine the quality of their work. A similar view is shared by some other authors, for example Hawley (2002, p. 91) who claims: "... knowledge itself does not bring change. Professional development has to include teacher's beliefs, experience and habits." In order to learn or introduce a better practice into their work, teachers should be helped to become aware of and understand their beliefs directly reflected in their educational work because "...beliefs filter knowledge and control behaviour there will be no transformation of practice unless it is connected with teacher's beliefs and theories about learning and teaching." (ibid., 91) Fullan (1993, 1999), Hopkins (2001), Elmore (2002), Hargreaves (1999) and others claim that a successful professional development begins by creating conditions for continuous evaluation and reviewing of teacher's basic beliefs and attitudes.

Elmore (2002, p. 119) emphasises that teacher's professional development "has to be connected with specific problems of educational practice." It means that teachers should develop their pedagogical practice in their specific surroundings, i.e., solve problems arising from their particular practice. It means that professional development must be carried out in the very institution where the teacher works and must become an integral part of its activities (Fullan, 2005). This way of understanding professional development is based on educating teachers to research their own educational practice, discover and solve problems arising from practice, and continuously bring the quality of educational practice to higher levels. In other words, teachers are educated to become more sensitive to recognise problems existing in practice and gradually solve them. Creating prerequisites for the realisation of such an approach to professional training begins by making the teacher more prepared to accept the role of a researcher, i.e., to take over the initiative for creating, instead of consuming, new knowledge and practice (Hopkins, 2001).

Such research model of professional training gives special attention to developing teacher's ability to reflect individually and together with other teachers. Many other authors, namely Bowman and Stott (1994), Barth (2004) and others, consider the ability to reflect an essential teacher's competence, emphasising particular complexity of teacher's educational work. They

think that this ability shouldn't be limited to their superficial thoughts, private attitudes and standard practice.

Reflective strategies are directed towards the process of understanding and reorganising the way in which teachers see the educational process with the aim of better understanding their own behaviour, as well as behaviour of students in this process. In order to get new ideas and new values and build new practice on them, teachers should restructure their existing systems of knowledge and understand educational reality influenced by their "own blind spots" (Bowman and Stott, 1994). If they do not manage to reconstruct their "blind spots", no modern idea or new information they come across will make their understanding better or change their practice. These new ideas are more and more often called "reflective practice" or "teacher – reflective researcher of his/her practice" (Elliot, 1998, Ross and others, 1993, Dahlberg and others, 1999, Cohen and others 1996, Malaguzzi, 1998, agud, 2006).

Many authors think that realisation of the reflective practice represents a social process and they substantiate it by numerous arguments. Stacey (Fullan, 1993) claims that an educational institution, due to its complexity and dynamics, must not be taken as a sum of individual, mutually unconnected intentions and actions. Similarly, events occurring there cannot be regarded individually and separately because they overlap and influence each other. For that reason, there are no problems in an educational institution which are not in some way connected with the whole institution. A similar view is shared by Datnow and others (2002) who claim that there is no activity in a social context that happens separately, but they are all mutually connected and intertwined with the whole social context. Each teacher's problem at the same time represents a problem of the whole institution and most of them can only be understood and solved if their mutual connection and wider context are taken into account. Datnow and others (2002) state that complex problems occurring in everyday pedagogical practice can be far more effectively solved in a collaborative than traditionally isolating atmosphere of an educational institution. For that reason, a reflective practitioner is "a teacher who creates space for criticism and discussion about pedagogical practice and conditions important for it together with other workers" (Dahlberg and others, 1999, p. 144). Co-operation is crucial in the realisation of good reflective practice, because it enables teachers to think about problems in a given practice in a new and different way, seek for answers together and continuously exchange ideas. This view is shared by many other authors. Bruner (Fillipini, 1998) thinks that without collaborative, mutual relations between teachers, who share their professional experiences, every teacher would be stuck in his/her isolated perspective, and the educational practice would stay fragmented. In other words, without mutual connection, interpreting together and understanding educational practice, individual isolated activities and interventions of the teacher could leave an impression of a schizophrenic picture (Fillipini, 1998, p. 134), instead of leading towards an improvement of the quality of educational practice.

Getting to know, becoming aware of and changing teacher's views and attitudes is achieved most effectively in group discussions. A practice of open discussions and dialogues, according to Senge (2003, p. 199), offers teachers an irreplaceable opportunity to notice a difference "between their proclaimed theory (what they talk about) and theory in practice (theories their activities are based on)", which can lead to making the gap smaller. In such forms of collaborative, reflective learning people "start to gain so far unrealised insight into their basic views and attitudes (...) because nobody can reach that form of thought on his/her own" (Isaacs, 2002, p. 282). But to achieve this level of professional development and learning, "a context for thinking together" should be created in the educational institution as well as for exchanging thoughts, i.e., for creating a particular culture Bruner (2000, p. 43) calls "a complex exchange system."

Conflicts, criticism and disagreements often occur in teachers' discussions. However, the very difference of opinions, disagreements, mutual criticism, even conflicts occurring in discussions

and openly talked about have a great potential for constructing teacher's professional knowledge and improving educational practice together. "One of the most reliable indicators that the team of an institution is permanently learning is a visible conflict of ideas." (Senge, 2003, p. 241) "People do not gain new insights if their discussions are characterised by the state of equilibrium, conformism and dependence (...). People get new ideas when they disagree, when they are confronted, confused and search for a deeper meaning – in a discussion during which they listen to each other." (Stacey, according to Fullan, 1993, p. 27) Hargreaves (1991) claims something similar and points out that apparent understanding between teachers, i.e., conformism, does not provide new insights. In this context, a difference of opinions and criticism is considered an opportunity for self-improvement and not a threat and "negative emotions and disagreements are an acceptable part of communication between people." (Stoll and Fink, 2000, p. 135) Moreover, a difference of attitudes and opinions, discussed with arguments and looked at from different points of view, could be considered an essential dimension of constructing teacher's knowledge together.

To sum up, we could say that teacher's professional development begins by creating prerequisites for continuous research of his/her own practice together, i.e. constructing and reconstructing professional knowledge of each teacher together. We can also say that teacher's professional development begins by creating a context for thinking together with other teachers, since professional knowledge is created through reflecting, discussing and talking together with other teachers. Special attention is paid to the development of the skill of teacher's individual and group critical reflection, because it leads to constant re-interpretation and building their professional knowledge.

However, many authors consider continuity, i.e., teacher's lifelong professional development a crucial characteristic of the modern concept of teacher's professional development (Stoll and Fink, 2000, Valli and Hawley, 2002, Lieberman and Miller, 2002, Fulan, 1993, Elmore, 2002). The need for continuity of teacher's professional development results from the conviction that teacher's professional competence is a developing, and not a static category because "knowledge is dynamic and not static." (Barth, 2004, p. 85) Stoll and Fink (2000) likewise stress that the assumption that teacher's professional competence was sufficient at a particular period of his/her pedagogical practice, does not guarantee it still exists or is still sufficient. "If you were competent at a certain moment of your career, and failed to keep pace with changes in the nature of your work, you will become more and more incompetent." (ibid., p. 154) In other words, a need for continuous learning and reviewing the quality of teacher's own practice is not considered a lack in his/her professional competence, but contrary to that, a proof of his/her professionalism.

Supporters of the Reggio concept (Malaguzzi, 1998, Giudici and Rinaldi, 2002) also claim that teacher's professional development should be a lifelong process. They support a continuous search for the most successful strategies of research and understanding the process of learning in children, as well as themselves. Guidici and Rinaldi (2002, p. 44) particularly emphasise that the essence of teacher's professional development is his/her insight in the primary context. By primary context they mean "the place where reflection on everything happening in school takes place with the purpose of self-assessment, i.e., assessment of the quality and quantity of learning opportunities offered to students, families and teachers". That's the reason why the Reggio concept emphasises the need for finding different modalities of communication and collaboration (teachers with teachers and teachers with parents, children and wider community) and for collecting different types of documentation. Documentation, regarded as a type of communication, leads to creating a culture of research, reflection, involvement and dialogue of all participants in an educational institution. "Documentation is a means of reflection on educational practice" (Dahlberg and others, 1999, p. 145) because it, among other things, provides an insight in the quality and quantity of teacher's interventions in the learning

process of children, who were direct or indirect protagonists. It provides an opportunity for interpretation and remembering children's learning process, as well as the quality of teacher's interventions in this process. That's why documentation, according to Katz (1998, p. 39), is an important tool for teacher's professional development, because it also enables one to become aware of his/her own role in children's development, education and acquiring knowledge. Documentation "increases teacher's awareness of each child's development (...) and makes the choice of appropriate strategies for supporting the development and process of learning of each child easier and, therefore, represents a strong tool of teacher's individual and group reflection. In that sense documentation of children's learning process is a key element of forming the identity of a learning organisation." (Krechevsky, 2002)

And finally, such an approach to teacher's professional development also implies the orientation of learning for everybody. In an educational institution it means the learning process of students and teachers, but also creating opportunities for teachers, headmasters, associates and wider community to learn continuously and understand the educational process more deeply. Forman and Fyee (1998) also stress that active participation and exchange between different participants is an important step in the developing of school into a learning organisation, because all the participants (teachers, parents, associates, wider community) are able to have a different type of insight, which can lead to a deeper understanding of the way in which students think and learn. By sharing different views and ways of understanding, they become "partners in learning" (ibid., p. 253) and co-creators of knowledge and understanding.

Following the above-mentioned ideas, several pre-school institutions in different Croatian towns have been carrying out action and action-ethnographical research during the last fifteen years which resulted in publication of several studies (Slunjski, 2006, Šagud, 2006, Petrović-Sočo, 2007 and others).

A good quality of change of teacher's educational approach and realisation of the reflective practice cannot be achieved "over night". Enough time should be provided. If there is not enough time and the continuity of the process of change is not achieved, real improvement cannot be accomplished, only partial or temporary, as pointed out by Kinsler and Gamble (2001), Lieberman and Miller (2002), Stoll and Fink (2000.), Hopkins (2001) and many others. According to Fullan (1993), this process needs at least three to five years, for bigger changes even up to ten years, which is very difficult to achieve. A small number of educational institutions are ready to invest so much time into the process of qualitative change, and most of them give it up before the achieved changes are institutionalised in practice, i.e. before they reach cultural levels of the institution connected with the way people think, i.e. their beliefs and attitudes. Such improvements are soon lost and the educational practice goes back to its usual old track.

Conclusions

If continuity of the process of changing the educational practice and curriculum is to be ensured, it is necessary to strengthen the capacity of schools for change (Hopkins, 2001), create the school culture where everybody feels well about their need for learning (Vally, Hawley, 2002) and train teachers to become reflective researchers of their practice (Elliot, 1998, Ross and others, 1993, Dahlberg and others, 1999; Cohen and others, 1996). At the same time, different educational institutions need to be strengthened in order to be connected and continuously develop into a community of reflective practitioners.

References

1. Barnet, R., Hallam, S. (1999) Teaching for Supercomplexity: A Pedagogy for Higher Education. In: Mortimore, P. (ed.), *Understanding Pedagogy and its Impact on Learning*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing, 137–154.
2. Barth, B. M. (2004) *Razumjeti to djeca razumiju*, Zagreb: Profil International.
3. Bascia, N., Hargreaves, A. (2000) *The Sharp Edge of Educational Change – Teaching, Leading and the Realities of Reform*. London, New York: Routledge/Falmer.
4. Bowman, B. T., Stott F. M. (1994) *Understanding Development in a Cultural Context – The Challenge for Teachers*. U: Mallory, B. L., New, R. S., *Diversity and Developmentally Practices*. Teachers College, Columbia University New York and London, 119–134.
5. Bruner, J. (2000) *Kultura obrazovanja*, Zagreb: Educa.
6. Capra, F. (1986) *Vrijeme preokreta – znanost, društvo i nastupajuća kultura*. Zagreb: Globus.
7. Cohen, L., Manion, L., Morrison, K. (1996) *A Guide to Teaching Practice*. London, New York: Routledge.
8. Dahlberg, G., Moss P., Pence, A. (1999) *Beyond Quality in Early Childhood Education and Care: Postmodern Perspectives*. London: Falmer Press.
9. Datnow, A., Hubbard, L., Mehan, H. (2002) *Extending Educational Reform, from One School to Many*. London and New York: Routledge Falmer.
10. Elliot, J. (1998) *The Curriculum Experiment – Meeting the Challenge of Social Change*. Buckingham, Philadelphia: Open University Press.
11. Elmore, R. F. (2002) *Local School District and Instructional Improvement*. In: Hawley, W. D. (ed.), *The Keys to Effective Schools – Educational Reform as Continuous Improvement*. Thousand Oaks: Corwin Press, London: Sage Publications, 111–121.
12. Filippini, T. (1998) *The Role of Pedagogista – An Interview with Lella Gandini*. In: Edwards, C. P., Gandini, L., Forman, G. (eds.), *The Hundred Languages of Children – The Reggio Emilia Approach, Advanced Reflections*. London: Ablex Publishing Corporation, 127–137.
13. Forman, G., Fyfe, B. (1998) *Negotiated Learning Through Design, Documentation, and Discourse*. In: Edwards, C. P., Gandini, L., Forman, G. (eds.), *The Hundred Languages of Children – The Reggio Emilia Approach, Advanced Reflections*. London: Ablex Publishing Corporation, 239–260.
14. Fullan, M. (1993) *Change Forces*. London: Falmer Press.
15. Fullan, M. (1999) *Change Forces: The Sequel*. London: Falmer Press.
16. Fullan, M. (2005) *Leadership & Sustainability – System Thinkers in Action*. California: Corwin Press.
17. Giudici, C., Rinaldi, C. (eds.) (2002) *Making Learning Visible – Children as Individual and Group Learners*. Reggio Children, Municipality of Reggio Emilia.
18. Hargreaves, D. (1999) *Helping Practitioners Explore Their Culture*. In: Prosser, J., *School Culture*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing, 48–65.
19. Hawley, W. D. (ed.) (2002) *The Keys to Effective Schools – Educational Reform as Continuous Improvement*. California: Corwin Press, Inc., Thousand Oaks.
20. Hopkins, D. (2001) *School Improvement for Real*. London, New York: Routledge/Falmer.
21. Isaacs, W. (2002) *Dijalog*. U: Senge, P., *Peta disciplina u praksi – strategije i alati za gradnju učeće organizacije*. Zagreb: Mozaik knjiga, 282–287.
22. Katz, L. G. (1998) *What Can We Learn from Reggio Emilia?* In: Edwards, C. P., Gandini, L., Forman, G. (eds.), *The Hundred Languages of Children – The Reggio Emilia Approach, Advanced Reflections*. London: Ablex Publishing Corporation, 27–45.
23. Kinsler, K. & Gamble, A. M. (2001) *Reforming Schools*. London, New York: Continuum.

24. Krechevsky, M. (2002) Form, Function, and Understanding in Learning Groups: Propositions from the Reggio Classrooms. In: Giudici, C., Rinaldi, C., Making Learning Visible – Children as Individual and Group Learners, Reggio Children, Municipality of Reggio Emilia, 246–108.
25. Lieberman, A. & Miller, L. (2002) Transforming Professional Development – Understanding and Organizing Learning Communities. In: Hawley, W. D. (ed.) The Keys to Effective Schools – Educational Reform as Continuous Improvement. Thousand Oaks: Corwin Press, London: Sage Publication, 74–85.
26. Malaguzzi, L. (1998) History, Ideas, and Basic Philosophy – An Interview with Lella Gandini. In: Edwards, C. P., Gandini, L., Forman, G. (eds.), The Hundred Languages of Children – The Reggio Emilia Approach, Advanced Reflections. London: Ablex Publishing Corporation, 49–97
27. Marsh, C. J. (1994) Kurikulum: temeljni pojmovi. Zagreb: Educa.
28. Petrović-Sočo, B. (2007) Kontekst ustanove za rani odgoj i obrazovanje – holistički pristup. Zagreb: Mali profesor.
29. Prosser, J. (ed.) (1999) School Culture. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
30. Riley, L. (ed.) (2003) Learning in the Early Years – a Guide for Teachers of Children 3–7. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
31. Rinaldi, C. (2002) Infant-Todler Centers and Preschools as Places of Culture. In: Giudici, C., Rinaldi, C. (eds.) (2001) Making Learning Visible – Children as Individual and Group Learners. Reggio Children, 38–46.
32. Ross, D. D., Bondy, E. and Kyle, D. W. (1993) Reflective Reaching for Student Empowerment. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
33. Senge, P. M. (2003) Peta disciplina- principi i praksa učeće organizacije. Zagreb: Mozaik knjiga.
34. Senge, P., Kleiner, A., Roberts, C., Ross, R., Roth, G., Smith, B. (2003) Ples promjene. Zagreb: Mozaik knjiga.
35. Slunjski, E. (2006) Stvaranje predškolskog kurikuluma u vrtiću – organizaciji koja uči. Zagreb, Čakovec: Mali profesor, Visoka učiteljska škola u Čakovcu.
36. Stoll, L. i Fink, D. (2000) Mijenjajmo naše škole – Kako unaprijediti djelotvornost i kvalitetu naših škola. Zagreb: Educa.
37. Šagud, M. (2006) Odgajatelj kao refleksivni praktičar. Petrinja: Visoka učiteljska škola u Petrinji.
38. Valli, L., Hawley, W. D. (2002) Designing and Implementing School-Based Professional Development. In: Hawley, L. (ed.) The Keys to Effective Schools – Educational Reform as Continuous Improvement. California: Corwin Press, Inc., Thousand Oaks, 86–96.

**TEACHER EDUCATOR, GO EDUCATE THYSELF:
WHO TEACHES THE TEACHERS OF TEACHERS?
ESTABLISHING A MODEL OF PROFESSIONAL FORMATION
FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS
IN FURTHER EDUCATION COLLEGES
DOCĒTĀJ, EJ UN MĀCIES:
KAS MĀCA SKOLOTĀJU SKOLOTĀJUS?**

Christopher Spencer

Abstract

In this study, Directors of Teacher Education programmes in the UK, Canada, Spain, Australia and the USA and a sample of established teacher educators will be interviewed about how they view current CPD (Continuing Professional Development) opportunities and how they maintain and continue to develop their own professional skills and knowledge.

A contextual analysis of the transcripts revealing varying conceptions of professional formation for teacher educators, falling into the categories of pedagogy, scholarship, programme development, advocacy, cultural competence, collaboration and reflection, is provided. Discussion of an attempt to clarify how teacher educators may engage in purposeful professional development that is focused on clearly stated professional learning goals follows.

Findings relating to how teacher educators are identified, recruited and inducted are presented. Findings are also presented related to the means by which established teacher educators maintain a philosophy of teaching and learning. Questions are raised. For example, is practice continuously reviewed, based on a deepening understanding of research and practice? What provision of opportunities exists to participate in and reflect upon relevant learning activities in order to systematically reflect on own practice and learning, using both peer collaboration and involvement with professional associations who are offering well-defined CPD? Is it the case, rather, that teachers of teachers are, by and large, self-taught by experience and self-regulating: teacher educator, go educate thyself?

The result of the study may have important implications for teacher education in recommending a model of formation appropriate for both emerging and established teacher educators working in the Lifelong Learning Sector.

Background

The focus for this study came from a comment made in Autumn 2007 to me by a trainee teacher, suggesting that newly introduced standards for teachers in the learning and skills sector, published as “New overarching professional standards for teachers, tutors and trainers in the lifelong learning sector” (LLUK, 2007), were now clearly written. This document describes the skills, knowledge and attributes required of those who perform the wide variety of teaching and training roles undertaken within the sector. Where though, he then questioned, were the standards for the people teaching the trainees how to teach? This needed a similarly clear answer: one that is still being searched for. This research aims to answer two fundamental questions, therefore: how does a teacher educator know that they are doing a good job, and how should s/he keep their specialised knowledge up to date? The need to get it right cannot be underestimated, for there is clear agreement that the role carries a heavy responsibility, that the quality of teacher educators affects not only the quality of teacher education and the learning of the student teachers, but also the attractiveness and the quality of the teaching profession and therefore the quality of the education that is provided (ATEE, 2006).

I work within a small team of full-time teacher educators in a large, mixed economy Further and Higher Education College. We, in HE, deliver pre- and in-service programmes to teachers

of students in the learning and skills sector. Lancaster University award certification upon satisfactory programme completion. Blackpool and the Fylde College is their "sole provider" of such provision. Writings on teacher educators in the UK learning and skills sector, such as Davison, John and Murray (2005) and the report of the University of Huddersfield Post-Compulsory Education and Training Consortium "Communities of Practice" Project (Noel, 2006) reveal that little is known about them. The content and context of teacher education, the trainees undertaking the training and the teacher educators who deliver the training have received little attention.

The past history of FE has been described as one of 'benign' neglect (Lucas, 2004, cited in Noel 2006) and with it, the training of teachers in the learning and skills sector. This is also the case in relation to new school teacher educators, who have been identified as 'an under-researched and poorly understood occupational group' (Murray & Male, 2005, p. 125). The introduction in 2004 of Ofsted (Office for Standards in Education) inspection of Initial Teacher Training in the UK has increased attention on our work at Governmental level. The existence of such quality indicators can be said to present a clear, centralised ideological stance, focusing the attention of providers on how success in delivery is to be measured in terms of employability, viewing the curriculum of teacher education to be transmissive, with trainee teachers as its end product. Whilst this may be argued to be true of pre-service provision (informing future practice), it may not sit so easily within in-service provision (informing/transforming existing practice). It is anticipated that the scope of my current research will, by necessity, need to be extended to address practitioner perceptions relating to this inspection framework.

New school teacher educators, upon appointment, leave the schools in which they have practiced to join an institute of Higher Education. New teacher educators in the learning and skills sector, however, will typically remain in their Further Education colleges, delivering HE within FE, often continuing to teach within their original specialist subject area. Hyland and Merrill (2003) describe the FE sector as one that 'in particular, has, arguably, witnessed more radical change and development over the last few decades than any other sphere of educational provision.' (Noel 2006) Foster, in his 2005 review of further education, found an FE system that 'has suffered from too many initiatives' (p. 6) He was particularly concerned to find an FE workforce where 'morale is low in some areas and there are some recruitment and retention problems' (p. 15).

A European research project begun in 1987 looked at the recruitment and selection of teacher educators across European Union countries (Wilson, 1990, cited in Korthagen *et al*, 2005). It showed that, overwhelmingly, 'one became a teacher educator without any formal preparation, and often with little or no support from more experienced colleagues' (p. 110, see also Noel, 2006, p. 6). The Ofsted framework for the inspection of initial training of further education teachers (Ofsted, 2004) sets out clearly the expectation that teacher educators will 'have the necessary knowledge, understanding and skills' (p. 6) to carry out their roles and responsibilities, and offers examples of what these may involve. Nowhere are the qualifications, experience and qualities necessary to undertake the role of teacher educator in the UK learning and skills sector fully articulated. The professional development framework, proposed by the DfES (Department for Children, Schools and Families) (2004), in draft form for consultation, may address some of these issues (Noel, 2006). This framework is not yet publicly available.

Harkin (2005) suggests that the time is ripe for 'a debate within the further education community in England about what professional knowledge should be developed in initial training.' (p. 165) My study draws on previously published work related to teacher educators' skills, knowledge and contexts, both from the UK (Furlong *et al* 1996; 2000), Maguire (2000) and Noel (2006) and from other countries, specifically the USA (ATE, 2002) and the Netherlands (Koster and Dengerink, 2001). Such work identifies a number of elements

that can be seen to underpin the role and professional identity of teacher educators: keeping professional credibility; pride in teaching students; recognition as scholars/researchers and service to the college. The inter-related knowledge and skills needed for the role of educating pre-service and in-service teachers includes: knowledge and understanding of the curriculum subject(s) or area(s) being taught; pedagogical expertise and modelling professional practices; knowledge of group dynamics; communication skills; organisational skills, and knowledge of working with adult learners. (Davison *et al*, 2005). In consideration of appropriate professional development, the American Association of Teacher Educators (ATE, 2002) categorise areas of focus as pedagogy, scholarship, programme development, advocacy, cultural competence, collaboration and reflection. Such listings make explicit the ‘complex nature of teacher educators’ work.’ (Davison *et al*, 2005)

Wenger’s (1998) concept of “communities of practice” has been found to be highly relevant, as has Murray’s (2004) concept of “first order knowledge” (of a teacher educator’s original discipline, for example languages) and “second order knowledge” (how to teach other teachers to teach) when analysing teacher educators’ work. This may provide a beneficial means for the analysis of any subsequent findings. Murray (2005) observes that new teacher educators are not typical academics. They often enter Higher Education without doctoral level qualifications in education, or other sustained experience of research and publication processes. Unlike most new HE academics, teacher educators are likely to have extensive teaching expertise. (p. 4). As Noel comments:

Teaching HE, but within FE, may to some extent mask the possible import of this, again perhaps, both to the teacher educator and also to those in FE who make the initial teacher educator appointment. (Noel, 2006, p. 19)

Methods

This study is, by nature, interpretive. Case studies are being conducted in accordance with established qualitative research methods (Yin, 2002) and ethical guidelines (BERA, 2004). Directors of Teacher Education programmes in the UK, Canada, Spain, Australia and the USA and eight of their established teacher educators are being interviewed about how they view current CPD opportunities and how they maintain and continue to develop their own professional skills and knowledge. A study visit was made to Andalucia, Spain, in March 2007, in order to undertake action research into pedagogical approaches to teacher training. Time spent teaching alongside in-house teacher educators in that location proved a profound learning experience, provoking considerable “reflection in action” (Schön, 1983). Subsequent discussion regarding technique and expectations generated much needed “reflection on action” (Schön, 1983). Additional web searches for standards for teacher educators have been undertaken and contacts have been identified and targeted as a result. E-mail communication is proving increasingly valuable, both in terms of relevance and expediency. Informed opinion is being sought from key players in teacher education provision within and beyond the UK and their responses are being read and responded to. Face-to-face discussion with teacher education practitioners in two major providers of PCET from establishments within the UK has been undertaken and will continue throughout the period of study.

Semi-structured questionnaires regarding recruitment, professional formation and perceptions of role have been formulated on the basis of the unstructured discussions held via email and by telephone. These are being issued to a sample of experienced and new teacher educators working in the University of Huddersfield (which moderates the practice of a large PCET Consortia of providers), and to those working in Blackpool and the Fylde College of Further and Higher Education, (whose provision is validated by Lancaster University, and does not operate within a consortia). The questionnaire will also be made available to delegates at

meetings, conferences and CPD events attended by the author in the course of the year, the responses to which may yield additional, and equally relevant, results.

Findings

Research indicates that the higher education qualification and experience required of prospective teacher trainers responsible for the professional component in the training of teachers in Europe is specified in regulations or recommendations (Eurodyce, 2006). Doctorates are not standard entry requirements, albeit a desirable expectation. A master's-level qualification is called for in most cases, a bachelor's type qualification in some, whilst others stipulate that a doctorate is required. This has been compared to findings from communication with the USA, Canada and the Netherlands, where doctorates appear to be the minimum entry-level qualification, and to the UK, where masters-level appears to be the norm. An investigation of recruitment and selection practice has yet to be concluded for this report. No apparent commonality in recruitment practice for UK teacher educators has been identified (Noel, 2006) or confirmed to date.

Once employed, there may be standardised induction processes as a college employee, but none appear to exist specifically to Initial Teacher Training. There are indications of mentoring in role specific aspects, initially by a designated colleague. Noel continues by saying that what the ongoing support needs most, identified by teacher educators, is (the) joint moderation of trainees' work, regular team meetings and shared teaching resources" (p. 13). Where mentors exist, and where support needs decrease over time, they may become more of a consultant. However, by contrast,

The need for support with research and scholarly activity and the opportunity to undertake joint curriculum development actually increase as teacher educators remain in their role. (Noel, 2006, p. 14)

Newly appointed teacher educators seek reassurance that they hold the pedagogical skills needed to work with adult learners, as well as the adequacy of their professional and academic knowledge bases (Murray, 2008). This second concern remains throughout one's continuing professional practice. It has been found that staff help each other. There is collegiality in defined "communities of practice" (Wenger, 1998), involving staff meetings, course team meetings and reviews.

Research into one's own subject specialist pedagogy is agreed to be an essential aspect of teacher educator development, yet findings indicate that this appears to be accommodated in varying degrees. In the FE setting, research is done in ad-hoc (survival, rather than advancement) manner. Anecdotal evidence supports the view that research is done on a needs-must basis, to stay one step ahead, or walk at the same speed, as one's learners: this is to be researched in more depth. There is an absence of guidance from the Institute for Learning on what professional development activities teachers in the learning and skills sector should undertake at any stage in their career, as is the case for their educators. An on-line Institute for Learning article states,

Many people are expecting the Institute to come up with a definitive list of activities that count as CPD and identify those that do not. In my view this is neither desirable nor achievable. The Institute's position is that all things can count... (Davies, 2008)

This is in sharp contrast to the approach taken by the ATE a decade ago in wishing to consult and publish standards against which knowledge, skills and performance can be measured.

My research is continuing in the UK, identifying the existence and potential benefits of college-based communities of practice, evaluating the work of Penny Noel (2006) and, more

recently, Jean Murray (2008). It will examine the significance of membership and engagement in wider communities of practice such as, for example, the PCET Huddersfield Consortium, the Association of Teacher Educators (USA), Association of Teacher Educators Europe and on-line learning communities like the UK Institute for Learning. My research will seek to identify the place of, and opportunities for, research into one's own professional practice for teacher educators in the Learning and Skills sector.

Conclusions

The study has indicated a conceptual challenge, in that many of the respondents had no clear comprehension of what was being asked regarding guidelines and/or indicators CPD once someone becomes a teacher educator. The DfES have yet to publish or advertise the emerging standards. Communication on this topic is proving problematic. Little response has been obtained from professional officers concerned.

We can come up with comprehensive guidelines on the activities that will improve professional practice” states the IfL (Institute for Learning) web site, “but the strength of the Institute’s model is that it places teachers at the very centre of their professionalism. What counts are the activities that are most relevant to individual teachers at any given point in their careers. (Davies, 2008)

This suggests that CPD is a contract between the IfL and the practitioner. Membership of this association is mandatory. From April, 2008, members of the IfL are required to formally record the continuing professional development (CPD) they undertake. Any choice of developmental activity, other than meeting-based, collegial discussion and performance review, appears not to be solely at one's own discretion. It is addressed with reference to organisational need, managerial determinants and imposed performance targets and indicators. Attendance at conferences or specialised workshops is also controllable in the same way.

The study provides a valuable basis for further study of professional values, ethos, individual experience and the question of autonomous choice over routes to professional formation. Models of CPD and professional formation currently in existence for teacher educators will continue to be examined in more depth, as will the perceptions of teacher educators themselves. The need for clarity in CPD for teacher educators is long overdue, as is the need for appropriate and effective performance indicators to form a scaffold for this. Identifying quality indicators is just *one* step towards improving the quality of teachers. A second step is to use quality indicators to support and stimulate their professional development. The way in which the indicators are used should be consistent with the indicators themselves. For example, if professional growth, trust and responsibility are important values to be developed in pupils, then teachers themselves should be given trust and responsibility and their professional growth should be stimulated. This has consequences for the way in which quality indicators are used. (ATEE, 2006). If teacher educators are to be role models for their student teachers, then teacher educators should be explicit about their own professional quality, the indicators of this quality and the way they use them to develop professionally in a systematic and self-regulated way. (ATEE, 2006).

In 2006, Eurodyce (Eurodyce, 2006) asserted that in around 20 European education systems, the level of the higher education qualification required of teacher trainers responsible for the professional component in the training of teachers is specified in regulations or recommendations. This report established that a master's-level qualification is called for in most cases. A bachelor's type qualification is required in Spain and Romania, while teacher trainers in countries such as Estonia, Greece, Portugal, the Czech Republic, Slovenia and Finland have to hold a doctorate in their subject:

Teacher trainers have to do in-service courses during which they develop their knowledge of psychology, teaching and education studies in general. These courses also provide them with an opportunity to develop their skills in a preferred area of research. (Eurodyce, 2006)

It would appear that, currently, there is no such standardisation of practice in the UK. This needs to be rectified, and soon, if questions surrounding what constitutes appropriate CPD for newly appointed, developing and experienced teacher educators working with pre- and in-service teacher trainees in the learning and skills sector, its provision and accessibility, are to become answerable. Attention might then be turned to answering the fundamental questions of who should be a teacher of the teachers of teachers, and how are *they* themselves to be recruited and taught to do that?

References

- Association of Teacher Educators (ATE) (2002) *Standards for teacher educators*. Available at: www.edu.departments/coe/ate/standards/TEstandards.htm (Accessed 16 April 2008)
- BERA (2004) Revised Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research <http://www.bera.ac.uk/publications/guides.php> (last accessed 16-Apr-08)
- Davies, L. (2007) *Why CPD?* The Institute for Learning, London.
http://www.ifl.ac.uk/services/p_wvw_page?id=285&session_id= (last accessed 16-Apr-08)
- Davison, J., John, P., Murray, J., *A Little Knowledge? – Perceptions of the Professional Knowledge Base of Teacher Educators*, Paper (draft) presented at the British Educational Research Association Annual Conference, University of Glamorgan, 14-17 September 2005, p. 3. Available at <http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/documents/151436.htm>. (Accessed 16 April 2008)
- EURODYCE. Science teaching in schools in Europe, Policies and research, 2006.
- Foster, A. (2005) *Realising the potential: a review of the future role of further education colleges* (London, DfES).
- Furlong, J., Barton, L., Miles, S., Whiting, C., & Whitty, G. (1996) *Partnership and the Changing Work of the Higher Education Tutor: The Challenge to Academic Expertise*. Paper presented at the British Educational Research Association Conference, Lancaster University, 1996.
- Furlong, J., Barton, L., Miles, S., Whiting, C., & Whitty, G. (2000) *Teacher Education in Transition*. Buckingham: OUP.
- Hyland, T. & Merrill, B. (2003) *The changing face of further education: lifelong learning, inclusion and community values in further education* (London, Routledge Falmer).
- Korthagen, F., Loughran, J. & Lunenberg, M. (2005) Teaching teachers—studies into the expertise of teacher educators: an introduction to this theme issue, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21 (2), 107–115.
- Koster, B. & Dengerink, J. (2001) Towards a professional standard for Dutch teacher educators. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 24 (3), 343–354.
- Learning and Skills Council (2005) *We are moving forward: The Learning and Skills Council's Equality and Diversity Annual Report 2003–2004* (London, Learning and Skills Council).
- LLUK (2007) New overarching professional standards for teachers, tutors and trainers in the lifelong learning sector. Available at: http://www.lluk.org/standards/new_prof_standards.html (Accessed 16 April 2008)
- Lucas, N. (2004) The 'FENTO fandango': national standards, compulsory teaching qualifications and the growing regulation of FE college teachers, *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 28 (1), 35–51
- Maguire, M. (2000) Inside/Outside the Ivory Tower: Teacher Education in the English Academy. *Teaching in Higher Education*. 5 (2).

Murray, J. (2004) *Professional Educators in the English University Sector: a comparison of teacher educators' professional practices with those of medical, social work and nurse educators*. University Council for the Education of Teachers (UCET), London.

Murray, J. (2005) *Investigating good practices in the induction of teacher educators into higher education*, Research study for ESCalate, 2005, cited in Noel, P. (2006) *Communities of Practice*, Final Report to the Consortium Steering Committee, Communities of Practice Project, PCET Consortium, University of Huddersfield.

Murray, J. (2008) *Teacher educators' induction into Higher Education: work-based learning in the micro communities of teacher education*. Unpublished Paper, School of Education, University of East London, London.

Noel, P. (2006) *Communities of Practice*, Final Report to the Consortium Steering Committee, Communities of Practice Project, PCET Consortium, University of Huddersfield.

Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) (2004) *Framework for the inspection of initial training of further education teachers* (London, Ofsted).

Schön, D. (1983) *The Reflective Practitioner. How professionals think in action*, London: Temple Smith.

Wenger, E. (1998) *Communities of Practice: learning, meaning and identity*. Cambridge: CUP.

Wilson, J. D. (1990) The selection and professional development of trainers for initial teacher training, *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 13(1/2), 7–24.

Yin, R. (2002) *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. Newbury Park: Sage.

Kopsavilkums

Raksts aptver intervijas ar skolotāju izglītības programmu direktoriem Lielbritānijā, Kanādā, Spānijā, Austrālijā un ASV, kā arī ar vairākiem docētājiem. Intervijas mērķis bija noskaidrot, kā viņi attīsta savas profesionālās prasmes un zināšanas. Intervijas atklāj atšķirīgas koncepcijas par docētāju profesionālās izglītības ieguvu, kuras var izteikt pedagoģiskās kategorijās – *programmu attīstība, atbalsts, kultūrkompetence, sadarbība un refleksija*. Raksts piedāvā diskusiju, lai noskaidrotu, kā docētāji var iesaistīties mērķtiecīgā profesionālā attīstībā ar skaidriem mācīšanās mērķiem.

Raksts piedāvā pētījuma rezultātus, kuri atklāj veidus, kā docētāji kļūst par docētājiem un kā viņus ievada darbā. Ir parādīts arī, kā docētāji veido mācīšanas un mācīšanās filosofiju.

Ierosināti vairāki jautājumi. Piemēram, vai prakse nepārtraukti atjaunojas, balstoties uz padziļinātu pētīšanu, izpratni un pieredzi? Kāds atbalsts praksē sastopams, lai docētāji sistemātiski reflektētu uz atbilstošu mācīšanās aktivitāti, kolēģu pieredzi un iesaistīšanos profesionālās apvienībās, kuras piedāvā skaidri definētu palīdzību profesionālajā attīstībā? Ir jāsecina, ka skolotāju skolotāji galvenokārt attīsta profesionālismu pašmācības ceļā. Jāsaka: docētāj, ej un māci pats sevi!

Pētījuma rezultāti var būt noderīgi ieteikumiem un docētāju tālākizglītības modeļiem kā iesācējiem, tā arī pieredzējušiem docētājiem mūžizglītības procesā.

Atslēgvārdi: docētājs, programmu attīstība, atbalsts, kultūrkompetence, sadarbība un refleksija.