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Using Movie Scenes as Conceptual Framing Exemplars to Guide School Leaders in Thinking Reflectively about Organizational Change

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Abstract
This article describes the use of conceptual framing exemplars as an instructional tool to enhance the university graduate-level teaching and mentoring of education leaders (teachers, principals, instructional coaches, curriculum/special program directors, superintendents) interested in further developing their professional knowledge and skills in designing and implementing effective school improvement initiatives in elementary and secondary school settings. The article includes a discussion of selected organizational change leadership concepts that often pose learning challenges to school leadership graduate students, along with some specific examples of classic and popular movie scene conceptual framing exemplars that the author has employed in university graduate teaching seminars to assist leadership students in reflecting on the challenges and opportunities associated with enacting meaningful change leadership in schools. Some current, real-world school case situations are highlighted to illustrate how graduate students can apply reflective insights gleaned from their study of organizational change leadership conceptual framing exemplars to directly inform their own practical efforts in developing and implementing creative action strategies to improve teaching and learning effectiveness in their school communities.

Keywords
Organizational Change and Improvement, Conceptual Framing Exemplars, Collaborative School Leadership

1. Introduction
Ever since Auguste and Louis Lumière gave their first public screening at the Salon Indien du Grand Café in
Paris in 1895 of a set of ten projected “moving picture” short films (each approximately 40 seconds in length)—a set which included the very first short film they created entitled La Sortie de l’Usine Lumière à Lyon [literally: “The Exit from the Lumière Factory in Lyon”, more commonly known by its English title: “Workers Leaving the Lumière Factory”]—to demonstrate their new cinématographe invention, a three-in-one device that could record, develop, and project moving pictures (Chardère, 1995), successive generations of videographic artists and cinematographers have sought to represent reality on the silver screen. Although there were a number of inventors at the time who were making technological contributions to the general development of cinematography, the Lumière brothers were among the very first pioneers who understood its considerable potential. While the Lumière brothers, who are often credited as among the first inventors of the specific “cinematographic technology” that enabled cinéma as a mass medium, were doubtless aware of the practical societal importance of their breakthrough invention, perhaps even they may not have foreseen the varied and rich applications that their “moving pictures” technology would spawn in the coming century. Their technological inventiveness and the eventual worldwide moviemaking industry that grew from it in time both revolutionized existing societal practices and created a number of new professional areas, including video news production and network broadcasting. Their cinematographic technology has since been applied in almost every area of scientific inquiry. Their invention has also had a profound impact in the field of education. Today, of course, cinematographers leverage technological advances in the medium to continue the now century-old practice (and art) of telling stories with moving pictures on celluloid and, more recently, with digital pixels. In a social evolutionary sense, cinematic movies represent a logical continuation and technological expansion of the long history of dramatic theatre as a storytelling art form in human social consciousness. To be sure, a large part of the enduring appeal of traditional theatre, classic films, and popular movies is the fact that these are all, in essence, representational platforms for portraying human interaction in intriguing contexts and settings. And, the most compelling theatrical and cinematic portrayals are always those that succeed in uniquely dramatizing in memorable ways captivating human stories—and the challenging issues, multi-perspectivist conflicts, and human interactive encounters that fuel these intense dramatic situations.

For over two decades now I have been involved in teaching and mentoring university graduate students in the field of educational leadership. These educational leadership graduate students are most typically practicing elementary and secondary school educators (classroom teachers, school principals and assistant principals, curriculum directors, district central office program administrators, school district superintendents and associate superintendents) who, as an integral part of their professional advancement goals, elect to pursue masters and doctoral degrees along with accompanying professional certifications in campus- and district-level administrative leadership. Traditionally, elementary and secondary school educators embark on graduate study in educational leadership at various stages during their professional practice careers. Classroom teachers who are in the early stages of their school leadership careers and who have accumulated two or more years of teaching experience can elect to pursue school leadership masters degrees and certification endorsements to become campus-level principals. Similarly, seasoned school administrators (campus principals, assistant principals, curriculum specialists, district program directors, etc.) at some point in their administrative careers may make the decision to pursue advanced doctoral study to prepare for the rigors of district-level executive administrative leadership.

Early on in my graduate teaching career, I began to think seriously—and pedagogically—about the task of how to go about teaching elementary and secondary school leaders about the challenges and pitfalls associated with assuming administrative roles as school- and district-level change agent leaders. I quickly realized that, given the entire constellation of interconnected concepts and ideas that exists surrounding the subject of organizational change leadership in people-intensive school leading and learning communities, students would need help in: 1) mentally making sense of and internalizing these complex concepts and ideas; and 2) learning how to apply insights related to and drawn from these concepts and ideas in practical ways in multiple, real-world school leadership contexts. These change leadership concepts and ideas can often seem very abstract and hard to grasp for students—particularly for students who are just embarking on their school leadership careers and who have not yet accumulated substantial leadership experience. Thus, as I continued to work with graduate students during my early years of graduate teaching, I became increasingly convinced that the fundamental pedagogical challenge associated with teaching graduate students about organizational change leadership involves helping students learn how to: first, navigate around and generate deep insights about the interrelated sets of concepts and ideas associated with the notion of change agent leadership; and then secondly, be able to directly apply these insights in the practical arena of schools and school districts. This practical application ability involves
school leaders developing their skills in being able to effectively “leverage” their change leadership insights to design and implement creative action strategies that can bring together large numbers of diverse education stakeholders and motivate these stakeholders to work collaboratively to realize positive change and improvement in their school and school district communities.

The challenges involved in teaching about organizational leadership have naturally led me over the years to employ a broad multidisciplinary approach to helping students explore and think critically about difficult organizational behavior concepts. In particular, I have always been fascinated by the potential of dramatic theatre and cinema as pedagogical tools for portraying the subtleties of human interactive behavior and as a means for framing the unique kinds of organizational challenges these interactive behaviors can present to change agent leaders. Thus, as an integral part of my multidisciplinary teaching efforts over the past twenty-five years, I have continuously sought out compelling scenes from both historical and current theatrical and cinematic productions that could be utilized in meaningful ways as creative tools to inform my teaching about organizational leadership. An early encounter I had at the outset of my teaching career with one seminal theatrical production, in particular, proved to be a powerful stimulus steering me toward a long and fruitful decades-long journey focused on exploring the possibilities of dramatic theatre and cinema as creative teaching tools.

During the mid-1970s I attended a production of the 1965 Broadway musical stage play Man of La Mancha. The Man of La Mancha musical was based on a stage play “book” by Dale Wasserman, with lyrics written by Joe Darion and music composed by Mitch Leigh. Of course, the Man of La Mancha musical production itself was a long running “stage play adaptation” of the classic early seventeenth century social satire novel by Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra: Don Quixote de La Mancha (Cervantes Saavedra, 1605). Notably, Cervantes Saavedra’s novel presented a scathing portrayal of the church-dominated intellectual rigidity of the times and highlighted how this hierarchically imposed rigidity served to undermine any legitimate open quest for truth by inquiring scientific minds. There is an intriguing opening scene in Man of La Mancha that is portrayed with special effectiveness in the 1972 cinematic version of the musical. In this opening street scene set in the time of the Spanish Inquisition, Miguel de Cervantes, a poor playwright (played by Peter O’Toole) and his loyal assistant, Sancho Panza (played by James Coco) are engaged in leading their band of itinerant bardsmen in a morality play mocking the intellectual rigidity of the contemporary church authorities. Cervantes and his companion Sancho are quickly arrested and thrown into a dungeon, where they are forced to defend themselves against the taunts, jibes, and physical assaults of the dungeon’s prisoners—a motley group of common miscreants, thieves, and murderers. To survive among these ruthless cutthroats, Cervantes (Peter O’Toole) cleverly deflects the prisoners’ attacks by offering them the opportunity to take part in an “entertainment”—a fanciful play, which he creates for their amusement. Cervantes entices the prisoners to “hear him out” by inviting them to participate in a highly creative, collaborative endeavor: “With your permission, I will continue in the manner I know best, in the form of a charade—a play if you will. At worst it may beguile the time. And since my cast of characters is large, I call upon you all to enter in and play whatever role may suit your fancy... Well, if you have no objections, and with your kind permission, may I set the stage?” (Opening excerpt from the musical film, Man of La Mancha, 1972)

With this exhortation, Cervantes proceeds to immerse these prisoners in a “play-within-a-play” about the exploits of a fictional, reclusive old gentleman named Alonso Quijana and his alter ego: the dauntless knight Don Quixote de la Mancha.

Cervantes “sets the stage” for his audience of prisoners (who essentially become his “students”) to involve them directly in this immersive and collaborative play-within-a-play virtual learning experience to “teach” these prisoners-turned-actors about organizational change leadership—through following and participating in the exploits of the fictional Don Quixote as he jousts with organizational injustices and pursues the real meaning of “the impossible dream”. As Cervantes explains to his fellow prisoners in defense of his “play-within-a-play charade” technique: “Reality is a stone prison crushing the human spirit. Poetry demands imagination, and with imagination one may discover a dream”. What Cervantes means by this is that the “reality” of social organizations—with their complex problems, harsh injustices, and seemingly unending travails—can be numbing and burdensome, and can easily strain the human capacity (and will) of organization members for engaging in creative and meaningful (i.e., poetic) change agent leadership. Cervantes was, in fact, utilizing immersive teaching and learning techniques to dramatically portray for these prisoners (as well as for his readers and subsequent theatrical audiences) important social and political issues of the times, and how these collective organizational challenges highlighted the need for thoughtful (i.e., imaginative) change agent leadership “action”—grounded solidly in universal principles of truth and justice.
Following Cervantes Saavedra’s lead, I have found it useful throughout my teaching career to look for creative ways to similarly “set the stage” for students’ learning. I have learned from Cervantes that the real instructional challenge is to find creative, immersive ways to capture students’ interest and inspire their creative imaginations. In teaching about school change leadership this involves assisting students in developing their own critical thinking abilities in mentally relating to and internalizing difficult concepts and principles associated with organizational leadership and then creatively applying their hard-won insights directly to the real-world challenges associated with improving teaching and learning in schools. Just as Cervantes cleverly employed the “play-within-a-play” immersive teaching and learning technique to capture the interest of his audience of prisoners within his historical/dramaturgical context (as well as his larger theatrical audience in the stage play and cinematic adaptations of his book), I have sought in my own teaching to utilize this same “play-within-a-play” immersion technique to capture the interest of graduate educational leadership students to assist these school leaders in engaging imaginatively in the process of exploring, constructing, and applying deep insights about complex organizational change leadership concepts to the real-world task of improving teaching and learning in schools. Thus, early on in my teaching career I adopted the strategy of employing carefully selected scenes from classic films and popular movies (as well as scenes from theatrical productions) as a way to provide accessible, contextually grounded conceptual framing exemplars that students could mentally identify with and use as starting points (i.e., “conceptual frames”) for critically thinking about complex organizational change leadership issues. In particular, I have found that these conceptual framing exemplars can be an effective instructional tool for engaging students in exploring creative solutions to the kinds of entrenched organizational change challenges that teaching and learning dilemma situations in elementary and secondary campuses can present to school leaders.

2. Conceptual Framing Exemplars as an Instructional Tool

The study of organizational change leadership involves investigating interrelated sets of complex concepts, principles, and variables that collectively help to inform our understanding of how people in leading and learning organizations—such as schools and school districts—interact with each other on an ongoing basis to find creative solutions to challenging problems and move their organizations forward. School leaders working with education stakeholders in today’s elementary and secondary schools and districts are constantly grappling with the challenges associated with improving the quality of instructional planning and teaching in their school communities to address the diverse learning needs of their students. To tackle the intense teaching and learning challenges currently existing in many school district settings, school leaders and their educator colleagues must continuously engage in a variety of interrelated and ongoing school improvement activities, including: 1) identifying learning deficiencies in various student populations within and across multiple content areas as well as aspects of the overall school district instructional delivery system in need of improvement; 2) designing targeted improvement initiatives to address student learning deficiencies and need areas; and 3) working to systematically implement these learning improvement initiatives to enhance the school district’s overall productivity and effectiveness. Because of the complexity and multi-leveled nature of organizational life in schools, the study of school organizational leadership—and, in particular, the study of how to enact positive change and improvement in school organizations—can quickly become a daunting task for even the most dedicated school leadership students. The complex concept of organizational change leadership, in fact, is positioned within a constellation of interrelated ideas, constructs, and sub-constructs that straddle multiple dimensions associated with the interactive processes and practices of leading and learning in individual schools and school districts. These multiple “dimensions” encompass several core elements of school district community life, including: sociopolitical context and educational culture, internal and external communication networks, strategic planning and decision making channels, systems performance oversight and accountability mechanisms, and the like (Munro, 2008; Owens, 2004). In recognition of this complexity, school leadership graduate students’ understandings of the challenges involved in enacting meaningful change leadership in school organizations should grow and develop in an organic, integrated way within and through all of these interrelated organizational dimensions (in the same way that genuine insightful understandings about any complex idea grow organically inward and outward in all directions and are woven within and through the idea’s multiple dimensions). To help students make sense of this complexity, the study of organizational change leadership in schools requires some solid “anchoring” in the realities of human interaction.
Cinematic portrayals of human interactive conflict, resiliency, and change leadership in organizational settings, as can be found in classic films and popular movies as well as in dramatic theatre productions, offer an array of readily available and applicable resources that can be employed as creative “instructional tools” to assist school leadership students in engaging reflectively with the kinds of organizational challenges (roadblocks, obstacles, and constraints) that change agent leaders will often encounter in real-world school leadership situations. Indeed, movie scenes can “dramatically frame” for students these kinds of intense change agent challenges in ways that are especially vivid and memorable. Well-crafted, compelling movie scenes that portray intense, interactive situations and encounters have a way of becoming “mentally imprinted” in a multisensory way both visually and orally in viewers’ minds. These movie scenes tend to stay with us and become part of our mental environment—we remember these scenes and, when we choose, we can “replay” these scenes over and over in our own minds. As such, movie scenes can become a kind of \textit{mind-stage laboratory theatre} within which graduate students can mentally explore (turn around in their minds, take apart, and critically examine in detail) the complex challenges involved in enacting systemic change in multi-stakeholder organizations. Importantly, carefully selected movie scenes—scenes that highlight intense interactive encounters between/among characters involved in the contextual realities of organizational change in vivid story settings and places—can serve as powerful catalysts for engaging students in \textit{deep reflective dialogue} about specific elements and dimensions of organizational change leadership. These organizational elements and dimensions reflect the multifaceted, vexing challenges that can arise when change agent leaders attempt to enact systemic change in organizational settings in which multiple stakeholders and stakeholder groups espouse passionate, conflicting perspectives, values, and beliefs regarding key issues of importance to the organization. Thus, carefully selected movie scenes can be used as \textit{conceptual framing exemplars} to contextually ground and help clarify students’ own critical reflective thinking about these complex organizational concepts and issues. The use of movie scene conceptual framing exemplars in graduate teaching seminars can spur students to explore and develop new insightful understandings in their own minds regarding the challenges involved in enacting effective change leadership in organizational situations in which stakeholders are embroiled in intense multi-perspectivist conflict over core issues of central importance to the organization. Moreover, these conceptual framing exemplars can help students reflectively examine and refine their practical leadership skills in \textit{applying} their newly generated leadership insights to inform their efforts in designing and implementing creative school improvement action strategies in their own school leadership practice to address real-world teaching and learning challenges in meaningful ways. Intriguingly, utilizing movie scene conceptual framing exemplars as an instructional tool can also expand opportunities for graduate students to creatively explore new \textit{multidisciplinary connections} in their leadership thinking as students begin to critically examine organizational change leadership situations and problems through multiple analytic lenses (e.g., social, cultural, economic, political).

Rather than seeking to present an exhaustive, comprehensive listing of movies and movie scenes that can be used as portrayals of organizational change leadership challenges, in this article I present a sampling of selected scenes from classic films and popular movies which I have studied intensively for their “leadership insight value” and have utilized as \textit{conceptual framing exemplars} in my own school leadership graduate teaching. In the sections below I present an overview of these selected movie scenes and discuss how these scenes can serve as useful conceptual framing exemplars to stimulate students’ reflective thinking about the challenges and opportunities associated with designing and implementing meaningful improvement initiatives to enhance teaching and learning effectiveness in schools.

3. Discussion

The sections below provide some specific examples of important \textit{organizational change leadership concepts} that often pose challenges to school leadership graduate students, particularly in terms of students being able to: 1) develop and internalize change agent insightful understandings regarding these leadership concepts; and 2) apply these insightful understandings in their own school leadership professional practice to directly inform their strategic action plan development efforts in real-world school district settings. Following each “leadership concept”, I provide the reader with a description of one or more selected movie scene \textit{conceptual framing exemplars} identified from classic or recent popular movies that I have used in my graduate teaching to assist students in thinking “reflectively” and “in depth” about the identified leadership concept. I then contextualize these conceptual framing exemplars within current school leadership professional practice through discussing how each set of movie scene conceptual framing exemplars can be \textit{mentally applied} to inform an analysis of a real-world
3.1. Leadership Concept: Nurturing a “Collaborative Teaming Mindset” among Multiple Stakeholders to Support School District-Wide Instructional Change and Improvement

One of the most persistent challenges confronting education leaders in many school districts today is that of building a collaborative teaming mindset among multiple stakeholders in the school district organization—a collective mindset that is capable of developing and supporting a shared team vision for how school leaders can best utilize the district’s limited resources to effectively address the learning needs of all students. On the surface, developing a shared vision among multiple groups of education stakeholders (teachers, campus principals, parents, community business and civic leaders, district-level curriculum directors, instructional program coordinators, school board members) on how to effectively provide for the learning needs of all students in a school district community might appear to be a relatively straightforward endeavor. In principle, all education community members have an economic stake in providing for and supporting the learning needs of children attending their community’s schools. And, because of this, one might think that all stakeholders presumably would be supportive of their school district’s efforts to design and implement needed instructional programs to ensure that all students learn effectively. However, in practice, the task of nurturing a shared vision of school learning effectiveness is often much more difficult to accomplish, as education stakeholders (acting both individually and in stakeholder groups) frequently hold passionate beliefs and perspectives regarding how and in what specific ways individual campuses and the school district as a whole can and should accomplish the task of optimizing learning opportunities for all students. Individual stakeholders and stakeholder groups can and often do harbor intense, perspective-driven views on the merits of various instructional programs that a school district already has in place or may be considering for future implementation. In particular, as a dependable part of the organizational life of school districts, education community stakeholders can be relied upon to develop and voice their perceptions regarding a variety of issues associated with their school district’s existing or proposed learning improvement programs attempting to address the learning improvement and support needs of any one or more ‘targeted’ student population subgroups (e.g., low socioeconomic and disadvantaged learners, culturally marginalized learners, special needs learners). For example, education stakeholders may express strong doubts regarding the “achievability” of the improvement goals established by the district for one or more program initiatives. Additionally, stakeholders might voice their concerns regarding multiple implementation and sustainability “roadblocks” that they perceive could potentially emerge with various proposed school district learning improvement initiatives. And given today’s high-stakes performance accountability climate wherein school districts are under constant pressure to achieve demonstrable learning improvement gains with limited resources, community stakeholders will predictably ask probing questions and demand clear justifications from district leaders regarding the overall “cost effectiveness” and “organizational worthiness” of individual learning improvement program initiatives. These multiple education stakeholder views—sometimes in direct conflict with each other—quickly develop a community-wide, “critical mass” momentum of their own and can frequently be found in stark display in heated interchanges at school district board meetings.

Many school districts across the United States are currently facing intense pressure to increase students’ learning performance on state mandated tests in core content areas such as math and reading as a result of more rigorous state and national academic standards and heightened performance accountability demands. These increased standards and accountability demands come at a time when many school districts are being impacted by substantive demographic shifts in their overall state and regional populations. These demographic shifts are resulting in the emergence in many school districts of continually increasing percentages of Hispanic and other ethnic student populations as well as increasing numbers of low socioeconomic students in their overall district student enrollments. This growing diversification in the student and family population dynamics of school districts is, in many cases, dramatically redefining the overall landscape of instructional challenges and program demands for education leaders—particularly in terms of the ability of school district personnel to be able to respond adequately to the learning needs of these diverse students. School district education leaders (superinten-
students and assistant superintendents working closely with their central office staff of elementary and secondary curriculum directors and instructional program coordinators) are attempting to respond to this pressure in many instances by designing and implementing new multicultural curricula—along with new multiculturally sensitive instructional programs for these curricula—throughout their districts.

As a case in point: in one rural school district community in southwest Texas with a 43 percent (and growing) overall Hispanic student population as well as a disproportionately large percentage of low socioeconomic students (many of whom are Hispanic and/or other ethnic minority students), school administrators have initiated new district-wide curricula and instructional program initiatives to attempt to address the specific learning needs of these students. District central office curriculum directors, working collaboratively with some of the district’s veteran teachers and with content area specialists from the neighboring regional education service center, worked conscientiously within multiple year-long “new curriculum development initiatives” to incorporate multiculturally sensitive reading texts and math word problems into the district’s elementary and middle level English language arts (ELA) and math instruction and assessment materials. These efforts were undertaken specifically to make classroom instruction more responsive to the needs of the school district’s large and continually growing populations of Hispanic, low socioeconomic, and marginalized students. Ironically, these curriculum and instructional development initiatives have generated substantial divisiveness among multiple community stakeholder groups over the perceived “merits” of the new programs. While these efforts to refine the district’s curricula and instructional materials were received very favorably by many teachers in the district, notably by newer teachers to the district with ten or fewer years of teaching experience who were strongly aware of their university professional preparation of the benefits of a multicultural curriculum, the new programs were also met with some intense resistance from some of the district’s veteran teachers. These veteran teachers objected to the substantial “additional work demands” that the new programs were placing on their teaching. The additional work included having to attend required “professional development trainings” on the new curriculum and instructional materials, which were an integral component of the superintendent’s widely promoted Teaching and Learning Success for All Students district-wide instructional improvement initiative for the current school year. Parents in the community were also divided on the merits of the new curricula and instructional programs, with some parents siding with the veteran teachers while other parents were more generally supportive of the new programs. To complicate things further, some of the “supportive” parents were questioning whether the new programs were actually going far enough in meeting the multicultural learning needs of their children. These multiple, conflicting stakeholder beliefs and perspectives regarding the district’s new instructional improvement initiative and associated programs quickly mushroomed into an intense and highly volatile “multi-perspectivist logjam” affecting the entire school district community. The conflict spilled over into monthly school board meetings, with school board members (who were themselves divided on the issue), parents, and district administrators engaging in heated debates over the merits of the superintendent’s district-wide instructional improvement initiative. The intense controversy regarding the new instructional improvement initiative that erupted in this rural school district community ended up dividing community stakeholders over the important issue of how to provide quality teaching and learning opportunities for all of the district’s increasingly diverse students. Moreover, this community-wide controversy put in jeopardy (at least for the foreseeable future) any real prospects for a successful implementation of the new district-wide program. The above rural school district community instance of multi-stakeholder conflict over how to go about meeting the challenges of providing effective instruction to an economically and culturally diverse student population is offered as one example of the kinds of multi-perspectivist stakeholder conflict that can emerge in school district communities today—community-wide conflict that can stymie the most well-intentioned instructional improvement efforts of school district leaders.

There are a number of possible movie scenes that can be used as conceptual framing exemplars to provide a reference point for teaching about the challenges associated with nurturing a community-wide “collaborative teaming mindset” among stakeholders in school organizations. Presented below is a discussion of one classic movie scene in particular that I have used as a conceptual framing exemplar to assist educational leadership graduate students in identifying and probing the multiple (and multi-level) challenges that change leaders can often encounter as they attempt to work with stakeholders to build positive leadership teams and a shared vision of organizational improvement. This classic movie scene is briefly described along with an analysis of how this scene can be employed as a “conceptual frame” or reference point to guide students in thinking reflectively about the concept of collaborative teaming—including how to develop creative strategies for nurturing effective collaborative teaming practices in their schools and districts.
One famous movie scene which I have used frequently in my graduate teaching to illustrate to students the multiple challenges involved in nurturing a **collaborative teaming mindset** in school organizations is the well-known “Five Families Scene” from *The Godfather* movie (1972). This classic American movie is based on the bestselling book of the same title written by Mario Puzo (Puzo, “The Godfather”. 1969). The movie was directed by Francis Ford Coppola and produced by Albert S. Ruddy, from a screenplay by Mario Puzo and Francis Ford Coppola. Francis Ford Coppola’s 1972 movie and the larger cinematic “movie trilogy” that emerged from this initial movie—*The Godfather* (1972), *The Godfather: Part II* (1974), and *The Godfather: Part III* (1990)—portrays the saga of criminal racketeering, multiple family feuding, and empire building of the Italian mafia organization in America during the first half of the twentieth century. The initial installment in the movie trilogy, *The Godfather* (Coppola, 1972) movie, presents a storyline which vividly portrays this highly competitive, “multiple family feuding” environment. As portrayed in the movie, the mafia “dons” (the heads of the individual Italian mafia families) and the family-centered regional mafia groups they preside over conduct their family-centric racketeering operations based on an intense “regional protectionist” mentality (a mentality that has been a fundamental part of these Sicilian mafia families’ way of life for centuries)—using threats and strong-arm thug tactics to tightly control and protect at all costs their individual “regional” money-making interests. This “regional protectionist” mentality espoused by the various dons and their mafia groups, along with the dons’ natural bent toward maximizing their profitability through turf expansion, provides the main ingredient for a highly unstable and volatile overall “mafia organizational environment”. Competition between groups is intense and turf lines are frequently crossed, setting off episodes of vicious fighting and bloody retribution paybacks between groups—retribution attacks which sometimes result in individual dons’ own sons being seriously wounded or killed. Such an event occurs in *The Godfather* (1972) movie storyline: one of Don Vito Corleone’s sons is gunned down by thugs from a competing family mafia group (the Tattaglia family) in retribution for the killing of one of Don Tattaglia’s sons. This series of disastrous events provides the immediate backdrop for the “Five Families” scene. In this famous scene, Don Corleone (played by Marlon Brando) has called a meeting of the five regional mafia families (the families controlling mafia operations in New York, New Jersey, the Bronx, Brooklyn, and Staten Island, as well as additional mafia associates from California, Kansas City, and other national territories) for the ostensible purpose of offering a “truce”. During the meeting Don Corleone declares that he will forego engaging in any kind of personal vendetta and will not resort to further vengeance as a means to obtain retribution for his son’s killing. As Corleone states to Tattaglia in the meeting: “Is vengeance gonna bring your son back to you? Or my boy to me? I forego the vengeance of my son”. Rather, Don Corleone presents to the assembled dons his “rationale” for why he believes that the time has come for all the dons and their respective regional mafia families to begin working together to initiate a new era of broader organizational unity and common purpose based on mutual cooperation.

This scene is especially useful for framing the unique kinds of leadership challenges that can arise when attempting to nurture a **collaborative teaming mindset** among organization stakeholders. In this “Five Families” scene the assembled dons are essentially engaging in an elaborate pretense: they are all pretending to support Don Corleone’s proffered gesture of peace and proposal for initiating a new chapter of mutual cooperation among the dons and their respective regional mafia groups, while in their own minds they are still very much committed to protecting their own (highly lucrative) regional turf interests. Historically, this “regional turf” mentality has been the overriding force guiding each don’s individual mafia group leadership behavior, keeping the various dons and their regional mafia groups at cross-purposes and in vicious competition with each other. This strong desire on the part of the dons to protect their individual turf interests at all costs is fueled by their own core beliefs and their own understanding of the “payoffs” of organization membership as they see them. The dons essentially have a “regional turf payoffs” view of mafia organizational leadership—their only agenda is to continue to viciously protect their own regional turf, because they firmly believe that is the only way they can effectively ensure and maximize their own regional mafia group profits. The dons’ narrow “regional turf mentality” and protectionist beliefs are forcing them and their individual mafia groups to engage in competitive behaviors—to choose competition over cooperation. In broader organizational behavior terms, the dons’ competitive regional group “turf interest” infighting and acts of between-group retribution emanate from a decided preoccupation with their own self-interest driven opportunistic thinking. In working so single-mindedly to protect their own regional turf interests, the individual dons have been essentially working at “cross purposes” with each other, severely limiting—and, in fact, undermining—the broader national mafia organization’s potential for
lucrative cooperation and collaborative teaming. As an organizational leader, Don Corleone in this Five Families scene was attempting to help the assembled regional dons change and broaden their core beliefs about mafia leadership through embracing a new “radical idea”. The radical idea that Corleone was proposing was that the dons would be able to realize much bigger and more lasting “payoffs” for both themselves and the collective, multiple families organizational group by adopting a broader, more interconnected “collaborative teaming mindset”—that is, by embracing a collaborative stewardship approach to “organization-wide” mafia teaming.

The kind of collaborative stewardship approach to mafia organizational leadership that Don Corleone was proposing would reap much bigger payoffs for the multiple family groups acting together as a united national organization, and would enable the multiple families to end their long history of self-interest driven (and self-destructive) opportunistic infighting between family groups—which at that point in the movie had resulted in two of the dons’ sons needlessly being murdered. Thus, the dons’ interactive behaviors in this Five Families scene (along with the history of their respective regional mafia family groups’ infighting behaviors up to this point in the movie) highlight issues of competition versus cooperation and how these group behaviors can differentially impact organizational effectiveness. Moreover, The Godfather (1972) Five Families scene serves as a means to frame and juxtapose the important broader organizational behavior concepts of organizational stewardship versus individual opportunism—and how these concepts (and associated stakeholder behaviors) emerge directly from stakeholders’ own core organizational beliefs, which can influence stakeholders’ attitudinal stance as participating organization members.

The Godfather (1972) movie “Five Families” scene can be used as an especially vivid conceptual framing exemplar to provide school leadership students with a starting-off point for engaging in reflective discussions about the kinds of creative leadership strategies that are necessary to help move groups of organization stakeholders from a self-interest driven opportunistic mentality to a collaborative stewardship mentality—the kind of organization member “mentality” or “mindset” necessary to support genuine and sustainable community-wide collaborative teaming. The Godfather (1972) Five Families scene, used as a conceptual frame to guide reflective analysis, can enable school leadership students to derive some important insights about the complex dynamics of multi-stakeholder interactive behavior in organizations and develop better understandings of how even the most well-intentioned change efforts can often end up being ineffective because of lack of adequate change agent follow-through. In particular, The Godfather (1972) Five Families scene can be used as a vivid movie scene conceptual frame exemplar for engaging school leadership students in focused discussions regarding two fundamental tenets of change agent leadership, namely: values redefinition and values integration. These two fundamental leadership tenets associated with the overall process of enacting meaningful change in leading and learning organizations highlight two important “character traits” possessed by effective change agent leaders: 1) a commitment to actively articulating one’s own carefully considered values and beliefs regarding preferred organizational goals and group behaviors to others (no matter what the consequences) and, in so doing, redefining for organization members the values and beliefs that will be most conducive to the long-term health and prosperity of the organization; and 2) a dedication to working collaboratively with others to integrate—in an open and sustained manner—these values and beliefs directly into the organization’s culture through proactive reform initiatives. In this regard, the best change agents of leading and learning organizations are those who, over the long-term, work conscientiously to dedicate themselves to developing and espousing these two leadership character traits of values redefining and values integrating. It is clear from subsequent scenes in The Godfather (1972) movie that Don Corleone did not “follow through” on his values redefining declaration statements to mafia organization members who had gathered for the Five Families conference meeting. Don Corleone did not connect his new “values redefining” statements with conscientious and sustained “values integration” efforts to insert these new values and beliefs solidly into the dons’ organizational mafia culture. In essence, Corleone did not “walk his talk”. Corleone fell short in this important dimension of change agent leadership by failing to work industriously over the long-term to help completely “reshape” the mafia organizational culture by substantively integrating his change agent “values redefining” ideas into the mafia dons’ broader organizational culture—making these new values part of the “core values” of mafia organizational life.

These two change agent leadership tenets (and associated character traits) of effective change agent leadership, namely, values redefinition and values integration—when presented and discussed in graduate teaching environments utilizing the “conceptual framing exemplar” instructional approach—can provide school leadership graduate students with useful insights to help students learn how to craft practical leadership action strategies to address the kinds of organizational change and improvement challenges educators and community stakeholders
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routinely face in their schools and districts. I have frequently used *The Godfather* (1972) Five Families scene highlighted above (often in conjunction with other selected scenes from *The Godfather* movie trilogy) as a compelling conceptual framing exemplar (a “setting the stage” starting-off point) for engaging school leadership graduate students in lively and probing analytic discussions regarding school stakeholders’ multiple motivations and propensities in any given contextual situation (depending upon the real-world issues involved) for engaging in competitive versus cooperative behaviors and actions in schools and school districts. These discussions also include detailed explorations of how stakeholders’ varied interactive behaviors in response to pressing organizational challenges—and the underlying stakeholder values and beliefs that fuel these behaviors—are so very often symptomatic of, and can often be classified as falling within, a larger dualistic “organizational mentality continuum”. This organizational mentality continuum can be conceptualized as encompassing two polar opposites of possible stakeholder organizational “thinking” and “behavior”: one end of the continuum represents stakeholder thinking and resulting individual and/or group behaviors and actions that reflect a decided bent toward self-interest driven opportunism (a “me-payoffs” mentality), while the other end of the continuum represents stakeholder thinking and resulting individual and/or group behaviors and actions that demonstrate a marked propensity toward selfless collaborative stewardship (a “team-payoffs” mentality). This kind of “dualistic continuum” construct can serve as a useful reference tool for helping leadership students develop analytic clarity and depth in their examinations of the motivations and underlying political and sociocultural root causes of school stakeholder behaviors, as well as help guide students in identifying appropriate “context-sensitive” sets of action strategies that have real potential for moving school communities forward in positive ways to address and overcome school stakeholders’ educational challenges.

Referring again to the above mentioned rural school district “case in point” example: the veteran teachers in this rural school district organizational change example are displaying a “me-payoffs” mentality because they are only thinking narrowly about the pressures and extra work that the district superintendent’s new multicultural curriculum and instructional demands are placing on teachers. That is, these veteran teachers’ behaviors (as well as the similar behaviors of the school board and community members who support these veteran teachers’ views) reflect a preoccupation with responding in a manner that is “in competition with” or “against” the new multicultural initiative. These educators and community stakeholders are espousing perspectives and enacting behaviors that are at cross-purposes with the district superintendent’s new multicultural program initiative, effectively undermining this initiative. These stakeholders’ educational values and beliefs are causing them to react, in the immediate short-term, in a competitive rather than a cooperative manner. They are not thinking about the broader, long-term “team payoffs” that could potentially be realized for all education stakeholders in the school district (teachers, parents, community members, and most importantly, current and future students) through implementing this multicultural curriculum and new multicultural way of teaching. Thus, a central challenge for school change leaders in this situation is to find creative ways to help these veteran teachers, parents, elected school board officials, and community members develop new insightful understandings concerning the broader, long-term (sustainable) “team payoffs” for the whole school district community that could be attained through embracing a “collaborative team mindset” to support school district-wide instructional change and improvement. Examples of the kinds of practical action strategies that change agent leaders could employ to help stakeholders develop these new understandings could include such activities as: 1) working to create multiple kinds of opportunities for school district educators and community members to engage in open conversations about the underlying “learning values” and multiple “teaching and learning payoffs” associated with the multicultural curriculum and instructional initiatives; and 2) proactively modeling these “learning values” and “teaching and learning payoffs” during change leaders’ own ongoing professional practice interactions with school district educators and community stakeholders, as well as through active collaborative sharing of creative program implementation ideas and instructional best practices with teacher colleagues.

3.2. Leadership Concept: Using Conflict Creatively as a Catalyst for Positive Organizational Change

Burgeoning population growth, especially in the Hispanic population, is continuing to cause substantive population shifts in the demographic profiles of many communities throughout the United States—a demographic trend that is dramatically affecting large swaths of the southwestern region of the country in particular. This ongoing regional population shift is directly impacting and intensifying the challenges of teachers and administrators in
school districts serving these areas—educators who must now address the teaching and learning needs of highly diverse student populations. Many of these students are English Language Learners (ELLs)—Mexican-American (Latino) students who are entering the American educational system with a rich Hispanic cultural heritage and whose primary and/or only language in their home/family environment is Spanish. Coming from this monolingual (i.e., Spanish-speaking) home environment and, in many cases, being supported by parents who are operating at or near poverty level, these students find themselves struggling to succeed in the most basic of ways (both instructionally and socially) in American classrooms and, as a result, quickly become marginalized in the American public education system. Moreover, these Latino students’ own school-level educational marginalization is all-too-often reflective of a broader community-level economic and social marginalization experienced by their families. As a result, school districts attempting to serve these students and their families have the dual challenge of needing to develop and implement creative learning intervention and instructional support programs to meet the multiple “academic learning” needs of these marginalized students as well as address the “school involvement and connectedness” needs of these students’ marginalized families (parents and siblings).

The challenges associated with this multi-leveled marginalization phenomenon impacting Latino students and their families and the schools that are struggling to serve them take on special vividness and urgency in border districts—school districts serving rural and urban southwest US communities near the United States-Mexico border. Consider one mid-sized Texas border community approximately thirty miles from the US-Mexico border as a case in point. In recent decades this community has experienced rapid economic expansion and population growth, with an influx of diverse people from different parts of the world due in large part to the availability of high-mobility job opportunities in multiple public and governmental sectors, including manufacturing and industry, Texas Department of Public Safety, US Air Force, and US Border Patrol. These job opportunities have been steadily expanding in this region since the 1950s and 1960s, and have been further propelled in recent years by the United States-Mexico Free Trade Agreement (FTA). A large percentage of the families that have relocated to this region over the past several decades to fill these jobs are of Anglo (English-speaking) cultural descent, with an increase in recent years of newly-arriving families representing other cultures (Asian, French Canadian, German) as well. This regional manufacturing and government spawned economic growth continues to play out in tandem with the ongoing and ever-growing influx of Mexican-American (Latino) families into the community and region, many of whom are living at or near the poverty level. Latinos, in fact, now comprise the majority population (over 65 percent of the overall population) of this mid-sized city. One consolidated independent school district—consisting of seven elementary campuses (including a Head Start campus), two 6th through 8th grade middle schools, and one large 9th through 12th grade high school—serves the instructional and family support needs of this city school district’s highly diverse, multiethnic student population. The school district’s administrative leaders (superintendent, assistant superintendent, and curriculum and instructional program directors) have long recognized that serving the needs of this diverse student population base—particularly the intensive instructional and family support needs of the district’s large Latino student population, many of whom are disadvantaged and marginalized learners—is a responsibility of all educators in the district. However, in practice, much of the practical work associated with providing instructional and school-home liaison support to Latino students and their families is handled disproportionately by the district’s English teachers alone, particularly those English teachers who are bilingual and who teach classes for English language learners.

For example, the three bilingual English teachers at this border district’s high school campus have been shouldering the bulk of the work of communicating on a regular basis with the parents of the high school’s Latino students. Teachers in other core content areas (math, science, social studies)—many of whom are veteran Anglo teachers who have been teaching in the district for many years—are overwhelmed with their own departmental instructional demands and do not feel that it is their responsibility to have to communicate with these Spanish-speaking Latino parents. Indeed, many of the Anglo teachers are not bilingual—so, in these teachers’ minds having to communicate with these Latino parents is an unwanted and burdensome challenge. This places considerable pressure on the high school’s English teachers, who are tasked with meeting with Latino parents to discuss areas of concern regarding the English language arts and overall language literacy progress of their children in addition to having to try to respond to these parents’ questions about their children’s academic performance in other content areas such as math and science. This asymmetric progress monitoring, learning support, and school-home liaison communication “workload” that English and English Language Learner (ELL) teachers at this border district high school must shoulder is a phenomenon that is repeated across the entire district, as...
English and ELL teachers at the two middle schools are also engaged in similar kinds of extraordinary efforts in attempting to regularly communicate with and respond to the intensive instructional intervention/remediation and school-home support needs of Latino students and their families. Notably, many Latino parents are feeling that their own children are not being served well by the school district, and are voicing their own views that the kinds and quality of the instructional programs being offered at individual campuses in the district appear to favor Anglo students (along with benefiting the growing numbers of Asian, French Canadian, and German students) and are not directly addressing the unique multicultural learning needs of Latino learners. Moreover, this conflictive, multiple stakeholder “multicultural perspectivist environment” existing within the school district is reflective of a similar kind of “multicultural environmental conflict” playing out more broadly throughout this border community: the entire community’s organizational identity is in a state of flux, with different stakeholder groups expressing their own views regarding cultural identity and educational program effectiveness issues. Work-related stress and anxiety levels among teachers (in all content areas) across the entire district have continued to rise as a result of ongoing pressure from district administrators for campuses to demonstrate improved learning performance across all student population groups in response to state accountability demands. Fueling this volatility even further, community members (community business leaders, school board members, cultural support groups)—all harboring their own passionate views regarding the kinds of instructional programs they believe are needed for the district’s students, as well as specific ways they believe educators and community members can and should be working together to meet these student needs—have entered into a community-wide debate regarding how to go about addressing the substantial student diversity-related teaching and learning challenges facing the district. These community members have aligned their own perspectives with various district educators’ divergent views, siding with individual educator groups and administrators who are espousing substantively different educational solutions. Various conflicting stakeholder perspectives regarding how and to what extent the district should commit its limited resources to address the district’s instructional effectiveness and school community support challenges have caused this debate to expand throughout the community, with explosive encounters between teachers and board members and between parents and school district administrators occurring with increasing frequency at campus sponsored parent-teacher events and school board meetings. This city school district, in short, is experiencing a perfect storm of challenging economic, sociocultural, and educational issues that have converged to create a school district community-wide organizational identity and instructional change leadership crisis.

In an intriguing sense, this unordered and continuously evolving convergence of multiple stakeholder cultural identities and conflicting educational values and perspectives in this border community setting contains all of the necessary ingredients required for deep organizational learning. However, this community has been languishing in this unstable environment of multi-perspectivist turmoil for some time now and is quickly approaching an organizational tipping point. The clash of cultural identities and competing educational values occurring in this border community along with the multiple stakeholder group interactive tensions that have been fomenting for several years have now converged into a full-blown organizational change leadership crisis for this school district educational community. What this situation desperately needs is the clear breakthrough leadership thinking and decisive moral leadership action of a seasoned change agent leader—a leader who is able to pull together a critical mass of school district community stakeholders and immerse these stakeholders in intensive, community-wide dialogue about their community’s current educational challenges and the kind of future they want to build for themselves and their children. An experienced and committed change agent leader will understand that these communal dialogue encounters can serve as an important organizational learning crucible within which these multiple stakeholders—bound together by their situational proximity and their collective need to find a communal way forward—will be able to forge (out of their conflicting stakeholder perspectives) a common, shared educational vision of the school district community’s most desirable educational goals and future direction. The change agent leader’s challenge is to provide the galvanizing “organizational learning environment” along with the proper “moral leadership conviction and support” that, in combination, can serve as a transformative arena within which these multiple stakeholder groups can examine and reconcile their passionately held diverse perspectives into a unified vision—as an educational community—of who they are (and who they are continuing to become) and where they want to be going in their future.

In the section below I present a description and discussion of multiple scenes from one recent popular movie which I have used in combination as a conceptual framing exemplar set to engage graduate leadership students in reflecting on the creative ways in which one extraordinary leader was able to utilize intense multi-stakeholder
conflict as a catalyst for enacting positive organizational change.

**Lincoln**
The *Lincoln* (2012) movie is an epic historical drama film that portrays the final four months of the Lincoln presidency. The movie vividly recounts Abraham Lincoln’s decisive leadership efforts in January 1865 in securing the successful passage in the United States House of Representatives of the Thirteenth Amendment to the US Constitution to abolish slavery in all the states of the union and its territories. The *Lincoln* (2012) movie screenplay was written by Tony Kushner, and was based on the best-selling book *Team of Rivals* (2005) by Pulitzer Prize-winning author and historian Doris Kearns Goodwin (Goodwin, 2005). *Lincoln* (2012) was directed by Steven Spielberg (Spielberg, 2012) and co-produced by Spielberg and Kathleen Kennedy, with production company development support provided by DreamWorks Pictures and Participant Media. The *Lincoln* (2012) movie was released theatrically in the United States by Touchstone Pictures, and distributed internationally by 20th Century Fox.

There are multiple scenes in the *Lincoln* (2012) movie that highlight Lincoln’s interactive style and his political acuity—notably, his uncanny abilities in being able to clearly read the political thinking and strategic motives of the people (law makers and political operatives) surrounding him. Most intriguingly, these scenes also provide revealing glimpses into Lincoln’s own breakdown leadership thinking and moral leadership decision making. Lincoln’s keen political “coalition building” insights are evident in an early scene in the movie in which Lincoln (played by Daniel Day-Lewis) visits the home of Francis Preston Blair (played by Hal Holbrook), one of the primary architects and founders of the new Republican Party, of which Lincoln is a member. Blair is a prominent elder statesman and a seasoned politician who is held in high regard by the conservative wing of the Republican Party. Serving as the staunch and resolute face of conservative Republican Party leadership thinking, Blair is passionately committed to working to find a peaceful, negotiated solution to the country’s hostilities. Blair is sympathetic to Lincoln’s insistence on proactively pursuing the Republican agenda to put an end to slavery forever through a constitutional amendment, but fears that realizing this worthy goal too quickly could just further inflame the already intense north-south fighting and perhaps irreparably divide the country. Blair’s ardent desires for achieving peace first and only then proceeding to end slavery through constitutional amendment are in direct contrast with Lincoln’s own strategizing views, as well as the views of influential congressional legislators comprising the radical wing of the Republican Party—legislators whom Lincoln was actively courting for their ardent support of Lincoln’s push for immediate passage of the Thirteenth Amendment. Lincoln is well aware that radical wing Republicans in the US House of Representatives are adamantly opposed to any kind of north-south negotiated peace that would include a provision for the continuation of slavery within the union, and thus would oppose any efforts to engage in premature peace negotiations. While respectfully acknowledging Blair’s urgent desires for ending hostilities and achieving peace, Lincoln is able to bring to bear his own more expansive and insightful breakthrough leadership thinking to clearly envision the optimal—and singularly workable—political strategy for securing the country’s tenuous future. Given the politically fragmented national environment, Lincoln realizes that the only way to ensure full passage of the proposed Thirteenth Amendment in the intensely politically divided United States House of Representatives—and, thus, to secure a constitutionally sanctioned end to the moral scourge of slavery forever in the fragile American union—is to do so while the country is still immersed in the crucible of war. In Lincoln’s mind abolishing slavery and restoring the American union were ultimately what the war was all about. Thus, the war itself must become the present enabling means through which passage of the Thirteenth Amendment is achieved. In this scene, Lincoln—the great political compromiser and coalition builder—is able to creatively broker a political understanding with Blair grounded in mutually shared first principles (as both men fervently desired north-south reunification and national peace). Lincoln agrees to Blair’s demands to be allowed to go to Richmond, Virginia to attempt to arbitrate a negotiated peace in return for Blair’s influential conservative wing Republican Party elder statesman support for Lincoln’s push to move forward with passage of the Thirteenth Amendment in the US Congress. Lincoln’s keen “political savviness” and “practical ingenuity” are on full display in this scene as Lincoln leverages his own considerable political conciliatory skills to secure the political support of a strong-willed and influential elder statesman to work together in pursuit of a shared vision of peace and unity for the country.

As the political maneuvering of key players in the national drama continues to unfold, there are two crucial scenes that appear later on within the movie that showcase in dramatic fashion Lincoln’s own breakthrough leadership thinking processes and his unflagging, iron-willed determination to leverage these breakthrough in-
sights to operationalize his moral convictions through forceful leadership action. The first of these two scenes presents Lincoln late in the evening, seated with his two administrative secretaries in a White House office, drafting a telegram to his union army commander, Lieutenant General Ulysses S. Grant. Lincoln becomes engaged in an impromptu conversation with his two young assistants about each individual’s place in history and inquires of them if they think each person might be “fitted to the times we’re born into”. One of the assistants responds by stating that he is an “engineer” by profession: “I’m an engineer. I reckon there’s machinery but no one’s done the fitting”. This statement prompts Lincoln to reflect on a principle of Euclidian geometry which he remembered reading as a young man: “I never had much of schooling, but I read Euclid, in an old book I borrowed. Euclid’s first common notion is this: ‘Things which are equal to the same thing are equal to each other’”. His two young assistants are not able to follow Lincoln’s application of Euclid’s principle to the present situation and stare uncomprehendingly at Lincoln. Lincoln then explains the “connection” of Euclid’s principle to his own moral leadership thinking: “That’s a rule of mathematical reasoning. It’s true because it works; has done and always will do. In his book, Euclid says this is ‘self-evident’. D’you see? There it is, even in that two-thousand-year-old book of mechanical law; it is a self-evident truth that things which are equal to the same thing are equal to each other. We begin with equality. That’s the origin, isn’t it? That balance—that’s fairness, that’s justice” (Kushner, 2012: pp. 98-99).

In a follow-up scene shortly thereafter in the movie, Lincoln directly applies this reflective thinking about equality and justice to the practical task of moral leadership decision making in a heated confrontation with his cabinet. Lincoln is engaged in a late night meeting with members of his executive cabinet and a few republican congressional leaders. The republican congressmen chastise Lincoln on his creative action strategies in pursuit of ensuring a quick vote in the House of Representatives on the proposed Thirteenth Amendment to the US Constitution that would abolish slavery now and forever. While these congressmen, mired as they are in their own rather narrow-visioned understanding of congressional politics, continue to argue incessantly about the considerable risks to their party of attempting to move forward with this audacious amendment passage plan, Lincoln’s moral leadership insight rises above their banter. In this scene Lincoln’s well-honed sense of moral purpose (developed and refined over an entire lifetime of observation and reflection on the human condition of the unfortunate masses of people around him) and his passionate determination to act on that moral sense come through with great vividness. In a pivotal moment in the scene, Lincoln forcefully interrupts the congressional members’ bickering and demands that he and his republican political colleagues work purposefully to “seize the moment”—a moment which is presenting itself now as a result of a unique confluence of events, and that will not come again—and take action now: “I can’t listen to this anymore! I can’t accomplish a goddamned thing of any human meaning or worth until we cure ourselves of slavery and end this pestilential war, and whether any of you or anyone else knows it, ‘I’ know I need ‘this’! This amendment is that cure! We’re stepped out upon the world’s stage now, ‘now’, with the fate of human dignity in our hands! Blood’s been spilt to afford us this moment!” Pointing demandingly around the table at each of the republican congressional leaders seated before him, Lincoln exhorts these legislators to take action: “Now, now, now! And you grousle and heckle and dodge about like pettifogging Tammany Hall hucksters! See what is before you! See the here and now! That’s the hardest thing, the only thing that counts!” (Kushner, 2012: pp. 127-128).

These two crucial scenes in the Lincoln (2012) movie, when paired together to highlight the “link” or “connectedness” between Lincoln’s reflective thinking and his moral leadership action, provide outstanding conceptual framing opportunities for teaching about organizational change leadership. These scenes, when presented as a group within the larger context of other “coalition building” scenes occurring earlier in the movie (such as the Lincoln/Blair scene briefly described above), offer an especially compelling dramatic frame within which to instructionally “set the stage” for school leadership graduate students’ own reflective thinking about organizational change leadership. In particular, these scenes provide a dramatic, historical backdrop against which students can engage in critical examination of the breakthrough leadership thinking and moral decision making processes of an exceptional change agent leader responding to the extraordinary organizational leadership challenges of his time. Lincoln was a self-educated man, the last in the line of “log cabin presidents” in American history. Despite Lincoln’s lack of access to any formal education, he was highly inquisitive and continuously sought out and devoured books on many subjects. Lincoln was a voracious reader throughout his life, and this wide reading—and, in particular, his own thoughtful reflections on what he read—directly informed his leadership thinking. The late night scene in the movie involving Lincoln and his two administrative assistants (briefly described above), in which Lincoln quotes Euclid’s common notion of mathematical equality and applies this
idea to help elucidate the human justice challenges of his own time and context, demonstrates Lincoln’s remarkable mental abilities in *deciphering* and *internalizing* essential truths from what he read, and then *leveraging* these truths wherever possible to arrive at compelling leadership solutions to the sociopolitical challenges before him. And, while Lincoln’s breakthrough leadership thinking was grounded solidly in his careful application of fundamental truths to situational injustices, Lincoln—always the astute political pragmatist—also excelled at practicing the *relational* aspects of leading change. Lincoln understood the practical value of nurturing relationships and building coalitions, and was keenly aware of the importance of using *time* and *circumstances* to his advantage. Indeed, Lincoln at one point in the movie comments to his Secretary of State William Seward: “*time is a great thickener of things*”. Lincoln’s practical sociopolitical sensibilities and his ability to clearly read other people’s political motivations and beliefs enabled him to display steadfast tact and patience (as well as genuine compassion) as he worked with multiple rival political party factions, helping congressional leaders over time develop and refine their own organizational thinking on difficult issues. Within the context of this constant encouragement and support, Lincoln also acted resolutely and insistently toward achieving his organizational goals and, in doing so, became a strong moral force for equity and justice, inspiring congressional leaders to find new ways to work together to forge consensus on critical issues and build a shared vision of national purpose and direction.

The selected scenes of the *Lincoln* (2012) movie described above (along with additional, relevant scenes dispersed throughout the length of the movie) can serve as a compelling set of *conceptual framing exemplars*—conceptual starting-off points—for engaging school leadership graduate students in focused reflection and dialogue about the intriguing change leadership challenges involved in navigating through and orchestrating collaborative solutions to intense organizational conflict. Importantly, these scenes can provide leadership students with a conceptual frame for examining the *transformative energy potential* of conflict in organizations and the ways in which creative change agent leaders are able to ingeniously co-opt and refashion conflict to serve their organizational purposes. This ability of highly expert change agent leaders (such as Abraham Lincoln) to use intense, multi-stakeholder conflict as a catalyst for positive organizational change centers on the change agent’s focused leadership insights and skill in being able to: first, *accurately assess* the “transformative energy potential” embedded in multi-perspectivist conflict; and then, secondly, *creatively leverage and redirect* this conflictive organizational energy into a synergized catalyst for positive organizational change and improvement. Through critically reflecting on the clear *breakthrough leadership thinking* and decisive moral decision making actions of Abraham Lincoln, graduate leadership students can begin to examine and internalize important change leadership insights and explore opportunities for creatively applying these insights in real-world school district community settings. Importantly, through engaging with the *Lincoln* (2012) movie scene conceptual framing exemplars in tandem with carefully examining the “south Texas border school district” case example described above, graduate leadership students can discover parallels between the national “organizational identity and sociopolitical change” dilemma challenges faced by Lincoln and his 19th century contemporaries and the school district community-wide “organizational identity and instructional change leadership” crisis being experienced by multiple stakeholders and stakeholder groups in this 21st century south Texas border district community. Students can then use the organizational parallels they identify as a comparative framework for considering the possibilities of applying Lincoln-style *breakthrough leadership thinking* and *relational coalition building* to devise creative sets of sensible instructional improvement and family support action strategies that can move this border school district community forward in positive and inclusive ways. Most critically, leadership students will realize that the action plans they create must both challenge and empower school community stakeholders in this south Texas border community situation (educators, students, parents, and community members) to find new ways to work together with patience, tact, and compassion to forge consensus on critical issues and build a shared vision of border district community purpose and direction. In short, leadership students will glean new insights on how to *use conflict creatively as a catalyst for positive organizational change*.

### 3.3. Leadership Concept: Leveraging 21st Century Technologies to Create Flourishing e-Learning Networks in Schools to Benefit All Learners

Today’s students are growing up in a *digital world*, a world that in many important respects is fundamentally different from the world of their parents and grandparents. The young people who are the students in today’s elementary, middle, and secondary school classrooms have at their disposal new kinds of interactive digital tools...
Students in elementary and secondary schools today, no matter what their socioeconomic level or ethnicity, are all familiar with “texting” and “surfing the internet” (worldwide web). Participating easily and continuously in these online social communicative activities is a vital and natural part of young people’s digital interactive skill sets. And although within the past two decades many school districts have engaged in substantial efforts (and have expended considerable fiscal resources) to “equip” their schools and classrooms with computer technology and related classroom technologies (computer labs, classroom data projectors, smart boards, etc.) in an attempt to technologically revitalize the educational process for both students and teachers, unfortunately many of these well-intentioned efforts, to a significant degree, have failed. Many educators are now realizing that these “technology equipping” efforts have mostly failed because implementing “technology add-on” initiatives (the frequently top-down school district actions that involve putting computer technology into classrooms) are essentially surface-structural attempts at instructional change. Much of the “technology” that presently exists in many elementary and secondary classrooms, in fact, appears outmoded to today’s digitally savvy students. School districts have implemented these surface-structural technology add-on initiatives while ignoring to a large degree the complementary (and critical) challenge of tackling the kinds of time- and effort-intensive deep-structural changes that must also be implemented if genuine instructional change is to occur. And this kind of deep-structural instructional change, if undertaken, will require education leaders (school district administrators, curriculum directors, technology support specialists, and campus-level teachers and principals) to engage together in no less than a comprehensive rethinking of the fundamental processes of teaching and learning—a collaborative, critical reflective effort that will necessarily involve school district and campus educators in: first, expanding and deepening their own core beliefs about teaching and learning; and then secondly, using these new, refined core beliefs as the basis for systematically reculturing the overall instructional environments of their school communities.

Consider the following example of the instructional technology integration challenges of educators and school stakeholders at one urban high school as a case in point. In a large urban high school situated in the Dallas/Fort Worth metroplex area in central east Texas, teachers and administrators of this sprawling campus of 3200 students are confronted on a daily basis with the time- and effort-intensive instructional planning challenges associated with integrating digital technologies effectively into classroom teaching and learning. As a result of state accountability demands for school districts throughout the state to demonstrate high levels of student learning performance in their elementary, middle, and high school campuses, educators at this Dallas/Fort Worth urban high school are under intense pressure to reach their district’s identified student learning performance “improvement goals” within all major secondary content areas (English language arts [ELA], mathematics, science, and social studies). In addition, educators at this high school campus are also expected to provide enhanced “career readiness” instruction to secondary level students, particularly in math and science, to prepare students for possible future careers in STEM-related (i.e., science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) professional fields. Student performance data (consisting of student test results on state core content area assessments) are reported on annual campus- and district-level academic performance reports, and include an overall accountability index percentage score for individual campuses on the postsecondary readiness performance level of their secondary students. This postsecondary readiness percentage score reflects the extent to which students have acquired the academic foundation necessary for success in college, the workforce, job training programs, or the military. Individual school performance data are used to assign accountability ratings for each school in the district based on student performance “target percentage ratings” on accountability indices that are set by the state. This Dallas/Fort Worth area high school campus received a postsecondary readiness accountability index rating of 60 percent (15 percentage points below the state “target” percentage rating of 75 percent)—a “below expectations” rating that was documented on this high school’s campus-level academic performance report for the most recent completed school year. Campus administrators (the principal and four assistant principals) at this urban high school are well aware that the school’s inability to reach the state’s target rating on the postsecondary readiness index to a large extent is due to the ongoing challenges these school leaders have been facing in getting their teachers to work collaboratively to creatively integrate available digital technologies into their grade-level in-
structional practices. For these school leaders the practical task of motivating and supporting teachers in their weekly instructional teaming efforts to effectively integrate digital technologies (mobile devices and social media sharing and learning tools) into their classroom- and grade-level teaching has proven to be a daunting challenge. To be able to uncover the root causes of this school’s instructional technology integration dilemma, it is necessary to examine teacher practices at this school within and across multiple dimensions, including: 1) individual teachers’ knowledge of digital technologies; 2) teachers’ application skill levels in planning for and teaching with digital technologies; and 3) educators’ teaching and learning core beliefs. Although many of the newer teachers on the faculty at this high school (teachers who have fairly recently completed their university professional teacher preparation/training and are in their first five to seven years of full-time teaching) are very familiar with digital technology tools and are highly enthusiastic about the potential of leveraging available digital tools to enhance classroom instruction, these “next generation” teachers are also serving on grade-level instructional planning teams with other “veteran” teachers, many of whom have been teaching for ten or more years (either at this high school or at other secondary schools, both in this district and in other districts). The school’s “next generation” teachers are quite familiar with using mobile technologies (laptop computers, digital tablets, and the like) and social media (Youtube, Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn, MySpace, Pinterest, Second Life, and similar internet sharing and networking sites) as creative digital tools to enrich lesson content and heighten students’ learning interests. Adept at using these digital tools themselves, these “next generation” teachers understand well the value of leveraging these available digital tools to expand and deepen their students’ 21st century learning opportunities. As a result, these “next generation” teachers have completely internalized the instructional payoffs of teaching with digital tools—these payoffs are part of these teachers’ core beliefs about effective teaching and learning. And although during grade-level instructional team meetings at this school many of the school’s “veteran” teachers can frequently be seen nodding their heads in agreement while listening to their younger colleagues as these “next generation” teachers enthusiastically champion integrating these digital learning tools into their team’s instructional unit planning efforts, these veteran teachers often end up stalling or even sabotaging some of the team’s planned technology integration efforts. These veteran teachers’ relative unfamiliarity with digital learning tools coupled with a general lack of available “hands-on” staff development offerings for teachers in the district on how to go about integrating mobile technologies and social media into teachers’ instructional practices have combined to significantly raise these veteran teachers’ anxiety levels regarding using digital technologies in their classrooms. Collectively, these veteran teachers to a large extent have shied away from using these digital learning tools in their own teaching and, thus, have been unable to experience (and internalize in their own minds) any positive instructional payoffs associated with the application and use of digital learning tools in their classrooms. As a result, these veteran educators’ core teacher beliefs about effective teaching and learning have continued to be more traditional and technology averse in nature. The upshot of all of this is that many grade-level teacher teams at this urban high school have remained stymied in their digital learning and teaming efforts and have been unsuccessful as collaborative teacher teams in designing and implementing truly effective multidisciplinary and technology-integrated instructional units that can creatively expand and deepen students’ learning.

This combination of lack of technology familiarity, unavailability of relevant and useful technology integration staff development, and resulting high teacher stress levels has caused many teachers at this urban high school to react negatively to the district’s continuing calls for teachers to proactively integrate digital technologies into their instructional practices. Without appropriate district-wide technology training and support—and especially without comprehensive professional staff development being made available to teacher teams on how to collaboratively plan and teach with 21st century digital learning tools (including helping teachers experience and understand the instructional payoffs of digital technology integration)—this school will continue to fall short in the provision of 21st century learning opportunities to students.

In the section below I discuss one recent popular movie that I have used as an especially intriguing and relevant conceptual framing exemplar to help guide students in their reflections on the potential of connecting ideas about communal networks and collaborative learning with available digital communication and sharing technologies as a creative means for transforming teaching and learning opportunities for 21st century learners.

**Avatar**

James Cameron’s *Avatar* movie (Cameron, 2009) is undoubtedly one of the most creative science fiction films appearing in recent years. Advanced computer generated (CG) effects were employed to digitally create and
render substantial segments of this movie. Notably, cutting-edge breakthroughs in the development and use of new stereoscopic cinematic technologies (specially designed for this movie) in conjunction with available “advanced motion capture” video techniques were utilized to enable and support production of the movie. The film’s futuristic storyline takes place in the mid-22nd century and involves the intergalactic expeditionary efforts of humans who are interested in mining the rich deposits of “unobtanium” (a rare mineral and high-temperature superconductor used to fuel the 22nd century human economy) that are found in abundance on Pandora, one of several moons orbiting a planetary gas giant in the Alpha Centauri star system. The planetary moon Pandora is home to hundreds of disparate Na’vi clans of ten-foot tall, blue-skinned indigenous humanoids—including the Na’vi “Omaticaya clan” who play a central role in the movie—all of whom share a deep cultural respect for all life forms inhabiting the rich, tropical Pandoran environment, along with a strong sense of interconnectedness with their environment. Na’vi clan members’ respect for their natural environment and all life forms associated with this environment is reflected in their communal culture and artisanal practices in which Na’vi clan members celebrate the interconnectedness of nature through their tribal stories, songs, dance, and handcrafts. The Na’vi view their lush, tropical environment as a living, responsive “communication and learning network” that connects the Na’vi to each other, as well as to the wealth of knowledge possessed by their tribal ancestors. Intriguingly, the Na’vi understand the power of communal learning networks: the Na’vi clansmen intuitively understand and value the “interconnectedness” between and among all living things on their Pandoran moon, and they are highly adept at leveraging the natural environment and the interactive resources their environment has to offer (i.e., their environment’s “interactive technologies”) to expand and deepen their knowledge sharing and communal learning potential.

As a result of their physiological makeup the Na’vi can establish direct empathic communication links with other Pandoran life forms through a process of “queuing”. The Na’vi can connect physically via a system of neural tendrils (a “queue” sheathed in a long hair braid) to the neural tendrils (“queues”) of other Pandoran life forms such as, most notably, the direhorse and the mountain banshee (other fanciful creatures inhabiting this fictional interstellar lunar environment). As explained by Wilhelm and Mathison (2009): “This neural connection allows a Na’vi to sense the energetic and kinetic signals broadcast by creatures, plants, and even the moon [Pandora] itself. It is believed that the queue also allows the Na’vi to access the neural network that envelops the entire [Pandoran] moon, and thus the collective wisdom of all Pandoran life. It is difficult to overstate the importance of the queue to the spiritual and physical well-being of the Na’vi” (Wilhelm & Mathison, 2009: pp. 28-29). Interestingly, this kind of “plugged in” connectedness is a notion that many people who spend large amounts of time on the internet are quite familiar with. In fact, moviegoers who have seen The Social Network (Sorkin, 2010)—a recent tech start-up/biographical movie with a screenplay written by Aaron Sorkin based on a book by Ben Mezrich (Mezrich, 2009) about Mark Zuckerberg and the founding of the social networking website Facebook—can recall scenes in this movie in which one or more characters make reference to other characters who on multiple occasions are “plugged in” to the internet and, thus, “connected” to the internet’s neural information network.

There is an especially intriguing scene in the Avatar (2009) movie in which the character Dr. Grace Augustine, an interplanetary exobiologist and cultural anthropologist (played in the movie by Sigourney Weaver), confronts the corporate administrator of the interplanetary expedition who is overseeing the human mining operations to extract the large unobtanium deposits from the Pandoran moon. Dr. Augustine has become exasperated with this corporate administrator’s blatantly insensitive and callous disregard for the indigenous Na’vi and their cultural/spiritual dedication to respecting and preserving all forms of life existing in their Pandoran natural environment. The corporate administrator, in fact, at this point in the movie’s timeline has already given orders to his workers to use explosives to begin demolishing the massive trees standing on top of the substantial Pandoran underground deposits of unobtanium that the human mining corporation is bent on extracting for human benefit. These ancient, massive trees on Pandora—honeycombed with natural hollows and alcoves—are the physical and spiritual “homes” of the Na’vi Omaticaya clan, within which Omaticayan clan members and their families make their natural home dwellings. In this scene, in which the insensitive, resource-hungry perspective of the corporate mining administrator collides head-on with Dr. Augustine and her avatar team’s anthropologist inclinations toward protecting the rights of interplanetary indigenous cultures, Dr. Augustine pointedly chastises the chief mining administrator and attempts to persuade him of a more collaborative solution: “I’m talking about something real, something that’s measurable in the biology of the forest. What we think we know is that there is some kind of electro-chemical communication between the roots of the trees, like the synapses between neurons, and
each tree has $10^4$ connections to the trees around it, and there are $10^{12}$ trees on Pandora. It’s more connections than the human brain. Get it, it’s a network, it’s a global network, and the Na’vi can access it. They can upload and download data, memories, at sites like the one you just destroyed. The wealth of this world isn’t in the ground, it’s all around us. The Na’vi know that and they are fighting to defend it. If you want to share this world with them you need to ‘understand them’” (emphasis added)” (Avatar, 2009: scene 20). For Augustine, “understanding” the Omaticaya means fully grasping the particular way these Na’vi clansmen view and interact with their natural environment. In short, Dr. Augustine is exhorting the human mining corporation executive to recognize and respect the “Na’vi worldview”—a worldview that accords a fundamental physical and spiritual primacy to the “interconnectedness of all living things” on Pandora, which for the Na’vi includes the “spirits” of their ancestors who are linked to the Na’vi people through their environment. Most importantly, Grace Augustine is making a passionate claim that the Na’vi have discovered an invisible “resource” on their planetary moon that is even more valuable than the unobtanium deposits: the Na’vi have intuitively developed a deep understanding of and a collective ability to tap into and harness the substantial power of communal learning networks. And, intriguingly, these communal networks provide the Na’vi with multiple sociocultural opportunities for exponentially increasing their interactive knowledge sharing and collaborative learning.

The above-referenced Avatar (2009) movie scene (along with additional supporting scenes in the Avatar movie), potentially employed in conjunction with selected scenes from other recent movies dealing with “social networking” and “collaborative learning” such as The Social Network (Sorkin, 2010), can serve as excellent conceptual framing exemplars to jumpstart reflective conversations among graduate students on how school leaders can work collaboratively with fellow educators to design and implement creative, technology-integrated teaching and learning initiatives in elementary and secondary schools. Considering again the urban high school “digital technology integration” case in point presented above, the Avatar (2009) movie scene(s)—used as conceptual framing exemplars to guide graduate teaching about organizational change leadership—can provide graduate students with intriguing opportunities for gleaning new organizational change insights regarding the multiple instructional payoffs that high school students and teachers can derive through designing and implementing communal learning networks in their secondary school classrooms. For example, many innovative high school educators today are becoming increasingly involved in utilizing problem-based learning (PBL) instructional techniques in conjunction with open-collaborative peer learning models of teaching to design highly creative Global Science Education (GSE) learning projects to substantively expand and diversify their technology-integrated teaching practices. These teacher-led GSE initiatives are emerging in response to the recent inclusion in many school district vision and mission statements of a recognition on the part of school district leaders of the need to educate students to acquire an “informed awareness” of and a sense of “communal responsibility” toward addressing the collaborative leading and learning challenges and opportunities associated with participation in a 21st century global society. This increasing trend, engaged in by more and more education leaders, of rearticulating school district vision and mission statements to include a “global learning” dimension reflects recent calls for reinventing teacher instructional practices that are now appearing in new editions of national teaching and learning standards emerging from several US national education organizations. A prime example of these new standards is the Next Generation Science Standards (NGSS) for teaching and learning science in US elementary and secondary schools (National Academy of Sciences, 2012). Developed through a collaborative effort of the National Research Council (NRC), the National Science Teachers Association (NSTA), and the American Association for the Advancement of Science (AAAS), the Next Generation Science Standards are based on a rigorous national Framework for K-12 Science Education (National Research Council, 2011) and focus specifically on STEM-integrated science teaching and learning in elementary and secondary classrooms. Notably, the NGSS standards include strong emphases on the instructional value and importance of “breaking down classroom walls” and “expanding networked learning opportunities for students” through global, interconnected teaching and learning. School leadership graduate students seeking to apply Avatar (2009) movie scene insights supporting the instructional payoffs of incorporating communal learning networks into educators’ instructional practices could leverage the NGSS emphasis on global, interconnected teaching and learning as a standards-based starting point for designing some highly creative and implementable “global-collaborative science learning” projects.

For example, large swaths of the southwestern United States and the inland land expanses of Australia share similar geographic profiles and ecosystems, with both of these continental areas having limited rainfall and ground water resources. As a result, people living in these two geographic areas share similar environmental
challenges on how to best conserve their limited water resources and utilize their available water supplies efficiently for irrigation, livestock use, urban reservoir planning, etc. Science teachers in the Dallas/Fort Worth urban high school case example (described above) seeking to integrate NGSS standards into their classroom teaching could leverage principles of communal networked learning to identify and partner with teacher colleagues in a “sister” urban secondary school in Canberra, in southeastern Australia. Working together via internet-enabled instructional design planning (using email, instant messaging, LinkedIn, Twitter, and similar online communication and sharing tools as an integrated communal e-learning network), this collaborative teacher team could design and develop a “global-collaborative, problem-based science learning” project for their US and Australian students. Within this global science learning project students in the Dallas/Fort Worth urban high school and students in the urban high school in Canberra would create their own e-learning network community—using the same kinds of digital, internet-enabled communal networking tools leveraged by their teachers—to collaboratively brainstorm and identify a well-defined, focused learning problem of mutual interest to both student groups (such as: “how to utilize limited water resources efficiently and creatively for optimal urban vegetable gardening”). The students could then collaborate as a “global scientific research team” to investigate the problem and generate some creative water conservation and urban gardening/hydration solutions to benefit vegetable gardeners in their respective urban communities. This global team of science students could utilize a wide array of mobile technologies (computer laptops, tablets, personal cell phones, and the like) and digital audio and video production tools available at their schools to collaboratively write and produce narrated video segments documenting their “urban vegetable gardening” problem-based learning project efforts. Additionally, these global science students could even collaborate to design their own “global-collaborative science learning” website to showcase their ongoing global science project activities and to solicit comments and feedback from “global science” students in other countries. Furthermore, teachers and students could also invite interested members of their larger school communities (parents, civic leaders, and scientific professionals such as geologists, horticulturalists, urban community planners, and environmentalists) to become involved in their global science learning project activities as mentors/coaches and project evaluators who would interact with students via project website chat rooms and blogs. Intriguingly, through becoming actively involved in leveraging mobile technologies and social media to pursue their problem-based science project activities, students will begin to explore and discover new interdisciplinary “links” or “connections” between and across multiple content areas, which will add multidisciplinary depth to their learning. Indeed, the design possibilities for these kinds of “global-collaborative learning projects” are only limited by the creative imaginations of the students, teachers, and school community members involved.

The Dallas/Fort Worth-Canberra global science education project example presented above highlights multiple, noteworthy “instructional payoffs” that students and teachers can derive through actively designing globally-connected, problem-based learning projects and participating in these projects via digital (internet-enabled) communal e-learning networks. These instructional payoffs include the educational potential of mobile technologies and social media learning networks for: 1) expanding opportunities for globally-connected communal sharing and learning; 2) nurturing intergenerational communication links across continents and cultures; 3) enabling networking participants to engage in real-world, collaborative problem identification and problem solving; 4) facilitating “group reciprocity” through peer coaching which can cultivate heightened collective learner enthusiasm for and interest in approaching real-world problems from multiple “vantage points”; and 5) naturally supporting, enabling, and expanding the possibilities for “multidisciplinary” inquiry and learning. Most significantly, these global-collaborative learning projects can immerse students directly (along with their teachers and interested community members) in using digital creation and communication tools to globally collaborate together on problems and issues of practical importance to their communities—enabling these students, teachers, and community members to experience for themselves the substantive teaching and learning benefits that all learners can derive through creating and participating in 21st century digital, internet-enabled communal e-learning networks.

4. Conclusion
This article has presented an overview and discussion of the author’s use of conceptual framing exemplars as a creative instructional tool in graduate teaching seminars to enhance school leaders’ reflective thinking and applied skill development in designing and implementing meaningful learning improvement initiatives in elementary and secondary school settings. The selected organizational change leadership concepts highlighted in this
article—namely, the leadership challenges associated with: 1) nurturing collaborative teaming mindsets among multiple school district stakeholders; 2) using conflict situations creatively as catalysts for positive organizational change; and 3) leveraging 21st century technologies to create digital learning networks to benefit all learners—represent some of the most pressing (and vexing) organizational change and improvement challenges confronting school leaders today. Cinematic portrayals of organizational conflict, human resiliency, and creative change leadership enacted within various story settings and places as can be found in available classic films and popular movies can provide an array of intriguing and highly applicable resources that those interested in school leadership graduate training and development can employ to creatively expand and enliven the study of school organizational change leadership for today’s school leaders. These cinematic resources can be used creatively as conceptual framing exemplars to focus students intently on critically examining relevant organizational change “issues” and teaching and learning improvement “challenges” of current interest to educators and community stakeholders in elementary and secondary schools and districts. Most importantly, the use of conceptual framing exemplars in graduate teaching can help “set the stage” (a la Cervantes) for enhanced leadership learning and development—through providing leadership students with a rich multimedia-supported and multiple discipline-informed instructional platform for generating new leadership insights and creative action strategies that school leaders can use in practical ways to help realize meaningful teaching and learning improvements in their own school settings.

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Creative Drama Study about Intangible Cultural Heritage: Turkish Wedding Traditions

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Abstract

Education has an important role in protecting the intangible cultural heritage, which is an important part of cultural identity, and transferring it to the next generations. In the Protecting Intangible Cultural Heritage Agreement that is accepted by United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), it is indicated that it is necessary to arrange educational, sensitivity increasing and informative programs that target the general of the society and especially the youth. In line with this target, there are some creative drama practices based on teaching with games about intangible cultural heritage with reference to wedding example. The themes of the creative drama practices have been designed before by the researcher and the drama workshop has been performed by primary school teacher candidates. In the essay, the practice example has been represented in a detailed way; the essay includes the studies of the teacher candidates and their opinions during and after the practices have been indicated in the essay. As a result of the study, it is put forth that the young are interested in wedding traditions. The teacher candidates think that intangible wedding traditions have to be kept alive and creative drama can be used as an effective way in the education of the intangible cultural education. In the frame of the results, it is planned to evaluate the practice results of creative drama activities about the heritage fields told in the Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage, which are: “oral traditions and expressions, performance arts, other social practices, rituals and feasts, practices and information about nature and universe, handicrafts tradition”.

Keywords
Creative Education, Creative Drama, Heritage, Intangible Cultural Heritage
1. Introduction

Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage, which was accepted on 17th October 2003 at 32nd General Conference of UNESCO and became valid on 20th April 2006, has come up as a result of a long research and preparation process. It is an international document which aims to protect Intangible Cultural Heritage (Öcal, 2008: p. 5). In this agreement, intangible cultural heritage is defined as the practices, representations, expressions, knowledge, skills—as well as the instruments, objects, artefacts and cultural spaces associated therewith—that communities, groups and, in some cases, individuals recognize as part of their cultural heritage. This intangible cultural heritage, transmitted from generation to generation, is constantly recreated by communities and groups in response to their environment, their interaction with nature and their history, and provides them with a sense of identity and continuity, thus promoting respect for cultural diversity and human creativity.

For the purposes of this Convention, consideration will be given solely to such intangible cultural heritage as is compatible with existing international human rights instruments, as well as with the requirements of mutual respect among communities, groups and individuals, and of sustainable development (UNESCO, 2003). “Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage describes the procedures, methods and opportunities of intangible cultural heritage. This Convention will contribute to protecting intangible cultural heritage, which was inherited from generation to generation, to future generations (Öcal, 2009: p. 8).

According to Ekici (2004: p. 7): “when intangible expression and culture expression are combined intangible culture expression shows up, this expression excludes tangible, physical and technological aspects of culture. The rest: oral (traditional oral creations), aural (traditional musical creations), visual (traditional musical or tuneless games) and practices and credence (traditional credence and related practices). To express these in terms of heritage extent, the heritage should have been produced by a group lived in past and mentioned group should have handed over the heritage to the continuing individual, group or nation.”

“Folklore” thought emerged from modernity and rose as a product of social and cultural transformation. This thought emerged as a new research field at historical beginning of it and in time it should become a wider and more comprehensive study in a period in which variable nature of social studies and interdisciplinary studies become prominent (Kutlu, 2009: p. 15). Academic studies can protect sustainability of intangible cultural heritage nationally and internationally. Recently discussing heritage in terms of interdisciplinary approach has been the main topic. Rethinking Heritage work of Bendix (2009: p. 253), which was published in 2003 at the editorship of Robert Shaman Peckham, pointed out the contributions from geography, history, art history, landscape design and philology. In his work he indicates that either modern philosophers or tourism experts may be interested in cultural heritage. Ulusoy (2011: p. 159) represents the necessity to carry on cultural heritage studies with interdisciplinary approach: “Every nation has to know and protect their own values themselves. Cultural factors such as traditions and customs take an important place. Historians and educationists should introduce basic structure of the society in a better way and should guide new generations by making studies in this field as well as sociologists, anthropologists, literature teachers.” (Ulusoy, 2011: p. 159). The importance of education in inheriting cultural heritage to future generations cannot be denied. Cultural heritage education begins with family. It takes form in school and it continues throughout life.

In the 14th article of Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage (Education, awareness-raising and capacity-building) following subjects are indicated to be performed (UNESCO, 2003):

Each State Party shall endeavour, by all appropriate means, to:

1) ensure recognition of, respect for, and enhancement of the intangible cultural heritage in society, in particular through:
   a) educational, awareness-raising and information programmes, aimed at the general public, in particular young people;
   b) specific educational and training programmes within the communities and groups concerned;
   c) capacity-building activities for the safeguarding of the intangible cultural heritage, in particular management and scientific research; and
   d) non-formal means of transmitting knowledge;
2) keep the public informed of the dangers threatening such heritage, and of the activities carried out in pursuance of this Convention;
3) promote education for the protection of natural spaces and places of memory whose existence is necessary for expressing the intangible cultural heritage.
According to Kutlu (2009: p. 14) “Agreement says every country should develop its own intangible heritage in education and communication corporations in the first instance and evaluating all of cultural transmitting processes.” According to agreement intangible heritage should be thought beginning with primary school. Besides it is emphasized that there should be some extracurricular informative studies about intangible cultural heritage.

In Turkey “Public Culture” lesson has been put into action at 6th - 8th grades in order to develop above mentioned aims in the frame of Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage. Besides one of the learning domain out of eight learning domains of Social Studies lesson that is begun to be taught at 4th grade is “Culture and Heritage”. This teaching field is explained in Social Studies Curriculum:

“Students accept the necessity of developing and protecting national conscious forming culture by learning and adopting main elements formed Turkish Culture. Students realize the importance of cultural elements in forming national identity of societies. Thus they realize that cultural elements tell apart from other societies and these elements contribute cultural heritage to be developed nationally and internationally. Primary school 4th and 5th grade students realize that they are affected from their family, their school and the society they live in. Student explores cultural elements forming him/her and the family. He/she learns to arrogate culture to himself/herself via cultural activities. With reference to his/her inner circle he learns historical places, things and structures in Turkey. He accepts that he should know and protect work of art and cultural works. Student takes part in activities aimed at learning other cultures. Students comprehend that culture is formed by people. Student learns the importance of the culture in becoming socialized.” (MEB, 2005: p. 96).

Information about “oral, traditions, visual arts, handicraft custom, social practices, rituals and spread” takes place in the context of social studies lesson. Especially in basic education some activities that will activate student in learning heritage subjects and that is predicated on learning by experience. It is thought that the interest of the student’s interest can be caught to cultural heritage subject by creative drama studies. Studies will contribute to their cognitive, affective and behavioral fields of the students about cultural heritage. In fact it can be seen that Turkish culture is close to drama activities. There are applications and rituals based on improvisation and acting. Besides, the term play takes an important role in both Turkish culture and creative drama applications.

Play based creative drama is identified as “animating a word, concept, behavior, sentence, idea, experience or incidence with the help of theatre techniques by developing play and plays” according to San (1990). According to Baldwin and Fleming (2003) drama and acting as a creative way of learning is about six fields directly or indirectly. These fields can be summarized as (Baldwin and Fleming, 2003: p. 9):

Drama is a tool to offer personal, social and emotional development.
Drama is a means contributing the development of communication, language and literacy.
Drama is a tool to understand cognitive enhancement and the world.
It is a vehicle for mathematical development.
It is a means to develop creativity.

“The importance of creativity and its relation between culture and education have become more apparent gradually in the recent century. Educators have accepted the importance of creativity and creative thinking in future progress of a nation and satisfying the educational difficulties caused by labor force once again. Creative drama is at the center of drama process. Students can learn new information using their creativity in different ways, they can develop their abilities and use these abilities and they can gain more insight by drama” (Baldwin and Fleming, 2003).

According to Landy (1982) drama is natural and spontaneous like a game; it is social and ceremonial like a ritual; it is like rehearsing, previewing and reviewing experiments, besides it is like dealing imagination, wishes and dreams. As Baldwin and Fleming (2003: p. 48) represented “ritual is an important tool of life culture and theatre and has also an important role in education. Ritual can be used to identify and emphasize the important moments in drama. Once identified rituals can be used again and again and can provide a reliable reference guide and community feelings”. It is known that rituals are as old as history of humanity. Landy explains historical progress of rituals and drama:

“Historically drama is one of the oldest activities. When the community gathered together drama used to be
performed for ceremonial purposes such as good hunt, plentiful precipitation or long life to the new leader. Drama has been a natural way of learning in the development of history of humanity. The importance of drama has been accepted since humanity existed. All primitive communities in the world have used dramatic dances to rehabilitate sanity” (Landy, 1982).

Kara (2010: p. 1181) expressed in his work that there are documents about how far drama do back in Turkish Culture and in the essay published at 1934 in Politics Gazette of Belgrade of M. M. Nikolic the researcher he pronounced that Turks know drama for more than four hundred years. The existence of rituals and social applications those tried to be kept alive offers important clues about how drama is important in Turkish culture and its history. Yavuzer, Dikici and Gündoğdu (2008) presented the close relationship between Turkish culture and drama practices with observing that teacher candidates participates creative drama activities eagerly. They said that the most important reason for this is that Turkish public isn’t stranger to drama activities because of traditional children’s game, rituals held in Anatolia and traditional ceremonies. For instance, while women applying henna to the bride at henna nights, a woman pretending to be drunkard man and entertains them by annoying them. Also, there had been no difficulty in the activities in which girls and boys had to be close and touch each other. Because they had the culture in which people dance the halay by holding hands.

2. Application Sample (Wedding Traditions)

Intangible cultural heritage (wedding traditions) themed study has been carried on with Niğde University Faculty of Education Primary School Teaching Department Drama lesson students. At the end of the study the participants have been asked to share their attitudes with the group. Besides, the activities have been photographed with the permissions of the participants.

Drama lesson is compulsory in Faculty of Education Primary School Teaching Department. This lesson aims students to use creative drama as a method in the education of various subjects. The basic aim of creative application is to create awareness in the primary school teacher candidates who will serve about intangible cultural heritage and make them realize that they can make use of creative drama activities.

Application at creative drama consists of three phases those are preparation, animating and evaluation (Adıgüzel, 2006; Üstündağ, 2004).

2.1. Preparation (Warming up)

Participants asked to walk around freely according to the rhythm of the regional music. The participants are said to say “hello, welcome” and shake hands to the closest friends when the music stopped. At the end of this activity, which was done for the communication, the participants asked to “imagine themselves dancing in a wedding, acting in appropriate according to this role and stop moving when the music ended”. The participants dance with different dance music belonging to various regions of the country. When the music stops the participants freeze (Figure 1). They continue dancing with the music.

The participants are asked to go into a huddle. Different colored handkerchiefs are given to everybody’s hand. They are asked to drop the handkerchief when the leader says grab and grab the handkerchief fast when the leader says drop. It is announced that the ones puzzled and lagged will be eliminated and the winners will be applauded at the end of the activity (Figure 2). At the end of the activity every detail about their feelings are asked to the students. In accordance with the answers the leader announces that such games are played for fun in Turkish culture. The participants are asked about similar applications or games in Turkish culture. Direct quotation of a student is that:

Aykut: Sometimes 15 - 20 people come together in houses. One of them performs imitation spontaneously for fun. A man in woman dress comes in and performs imitations. Apart from that, some funny incidents are animated. The aim is to provide cultural coalescence.

Then the leader asks the participants what kind of traditional plays take part in Turkish weddings for fun. The answers of the students are camel game, head game etc. as a result of the answers of the students it is emphasized that “Turkish culture is too rich and some games are called differently in different regions”. For example, one of the participant named Seda defines head game like this: “head game is played among men in my hometown. There is a leader in this game. Everyone does what the leader does. The leader punishes the ones who can’t do the movements with his belt. Sometimes the leader does hard actions and the players are ridiculed”. 
Basak says “I am from Kayseri. In our weddings the same game is being played with shawm and drum”; Mert says “The same game is played in Yozgat” and the participant named Cansu says “I am from Ardahan, the same game is being played in my town. But I don’t know its name”. The leader says the participants that the same game is going to be played in the class. A leader is determined. The participants are asked to hold hands beginning with the leader. They are told to do the exactly the same thing with the leader or else they would be eliminated. The game has been played accompanied by music. The leader began with simple movements, continued with hard ones and at the end of the game the winners have been applauded. In the assessment done at the end of the game, the students emphasized that Turkish culture is very rich. Some students expressed that they come across this game for the first time and they had so much fun.

The participants asked which communal applications are kept alive in their regions. Some direct quotations from the answers of the students are:

Ash: When the bride is taken to the home something such as wheat, sugar, grapes and money are spilled over her. I have heard that this application is to bring plentifulness to the newly founded family.

Mesut: Oil and honey are being rubbed onto the door before the bride enters.

Derya: In my hometown a pot is being broken when the bride comes to home. I have heard that it is believed that the bride will be strong and skilled if she breaks the pot.

Kagan: In my home town a flag is displayed on a tall pole and an onion has been put at the top of the pole. Chicken feathers have been put on the onion. This pole is sticked in front of the wedding house.
2.2. Animation

The participants split up to five groups. Every group member is asked to tell an intangible communal application of their own hometown to the other members of the group. The leader informs the groups generally about the intangible cultural heritage. The entire groups sit in a circle and listen to their group mates sharing. Every group is asked to choose one of these intangible cultural heritage applications and make a picture representing the situation. They are told that they have three minutes to make a picture and they ought to stay still while the application is being displayed. After the preparations of the groups have finished, the pictures have been made and they have been photographed. The first group showed putting gold in hands of bride and groom (Figure 3), the second group showed giving a baby to the bride’s lap (Figure 4), the third group showed wheeling presents around the bride’s head (Figure 5), the forth group showed the brothers belting the bride (Figure 6) and the fifth group showed prickling the groom (Figure 7) in a still way.

Figure 3. An image of improvisation of putting gold in hands of the bride and the groom.

Figure 4. An image of putting a baby to the bride’s lap improvisation.
After the photographs of all of the groups have been displayed, the participants are told to draw the people on the photographs out and show what they do by acting. After the animations the participants are asked to share their feelings and ideas with the group.

Yasemin: *As a result of the animations I think that we have a very rich culture and these applications should be kept alive.*

Onur: *I think these applications will be forgotten one day if they aren’t kept alive. As teacher candidates we may contribute keeping our intangible cultural heritage by conducting these kinds of activities in the lessons.*

Funda: *I realized that our cultural heritage is rich during the applications by having fun. I think that these applications aren’t kept alive anymore.*

### 2.3. Assessment

The participants are asked to share their feelings and ideas about the activities held in this studio.
Hasan: I figured out the difficulty of holding a wedding. We saw that the known applications are applied in different ways. There are some applications like betroth, engagement and henna. But these applications differ from region to region.

Meltem: Our weddings are the most important applications of our intangible cultural heritage and they are still been carried on. These traditions are being kept alive by being inherited from generation to generation. We saw that we are keen on wedding ceremonies. We learnt our wedding traditions by having fun.

Asya: I think we couldn’t represent our traditions exactly. The bride is made to sit on a chest before exiting her home, someone sit in front of the bridal car and a baby is given to the lap of the bride. These are combined to each other, the reason why we couldn’t represent all of them exactly is the fact that our culture is too rich.

Meltem: We tried to animate many traditions in a limited time.

Fatma: As the aim of the study we revived our culture in an amusing way. We tried to animate some of our customs and traditions.

Mehtap: The groups were formed randomly. The members of the groups were from different regions. The traditions of Aegean, Central Anatolia and Eastern Anatolia are different; we tried to perform a common picture by combining them.

Mehmet: Our culture is very rich. There are amusing traditions from west to east of our country. I think that we could animate them exactly.

Ali: We tried to animate different applications about our culture in our way. I realized that different intangible heritage applications are kept alive or aren’t kept alive in our region. It formed a sense of belonging.

Cansu: I am from Antalya. We don’t have any of these customs in my region, they are too much obvious. I used to see these customs in documentaries.

Esra: We should realize that how our customs and traditions are connective. Because even distant friends want to share each other’s happiness when there is a wedding or want to stand by each other in funerals. I realized that customs and traditions are very connective with the help of the improvisations we made.

Sedat: As a teacher candidate I thought that these applications may show what culture is perceptibly in the 4th grade Social Studies lesson.

Hasan: Primary school students must be living these incidents always; they must be seeing these traditions in the weddings of their relatives. But it is possible that they might not be able to understand them literally. They will understand the importance of intangible cultural heritage when they animate in groups under the teacher’s guidance.

3. Conclusion and Suggestions

In this study, the creative drama activity about wedding ceremonies which are among the most important part of
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Turkish intangible cultural heritage and the opinions of teacher candidates about the applications have been evaluated. The results are given below:

**Teacher candidates’ attitudes towards creative drama activities about intangible cultural heritage are positive.**

**It can be said that the teacher candidates are notably interested in wedding traditions.**

**Teacher candidates think that intangible wedding traditions should be kept alive.**

**Teacher candidates think that creative drama can be used effectively in teaching intangible cultural heritage.**

It is seen that awareness has been formed as a result of the studies about “protecting and respecting cultural heritage” aim of Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage.

Recently we feel the devastating effect of the globalization on cultures more intensely. It is really important to protect and adopt cultural values and create awareness and sensibility for this subject in terms of national existence (Kolaç, 2009: p. 22). Artun (2004: p. 147) expresses that protecting cultural heritage is not an international issue anymore. Besides, some policies should be developed aimed to determine, protect, promote and transmit intangible cultural heritage by focusing on information and education. He also expresses that intangible cultural heritage is the mirror of the cultural diversity. By using wedding example, it has been tried to create awareness about the importance of intangible heritage, in protecting them and in making effective and authentic activities about intangible cultural heritage.

These suggestions can be made as a result of the study:

* More educative studies are necessary to protect Turkish intangible wedding traditions.
* Individuals can be made to protect and respect intangible cultural heritage by extracurricular and in curricular creative drama studies about intangible cultural heritage.

Within the context of this study, creative drama teaching plan has been prepared and applied just about Turkish wedding traditions. In the further studies, creative drama activities about “oral traditions and narrations, performance arts, other communal applications, rituals and feasts, information and applications about nature and universe, handicraft traditions” fields, which are indicated in Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage, can be designed and the application results can be assessed.

This teaching plan can be applied by being rearranged according to the acquisitions taking place in Public Culture lesson teaching plan or primary school 4th grade Social Studies lesson “Culture and Heritage” learning field. The conclusions can be assessed.

**References**


Mastery of Active and Shared Learning Processes for Techno-Pedagogy (MASLEPT): A Model for Teacher Professional Development on Technology Integration

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Abstract

As schools increasingly adopt new technologies in enhancing teaching and learning, models of teacher professional development are also evolving. To ensure that teacher development programmes effectively assist them in integrating technology in instructional processes, a study was conducted to determine a more acceptable model of teacher professional development. This study employed a quantitative survey methodology in the collection of data towards the development of a model on technology integration in classrooms and the identification of training needs for teachers. A total of 400 teachers were selected to participate in this study using the stratified random sampling technique from primary schools in 10 Regions of Cameroon to identify their preferences in a professional development model. The data was analysed using percentages, frequency counts, mean and standard deviation. The results indicated that teacher-participants showed a strong preference for an on-going school-based professional development model that supports collaborative learning, problem solving and involves classroom follow-up. A review of the weaknesses in current models as well as literature on best practices in in-service teacher training led to the proposed Mastery of Active and Shared Learning Processes for Techno-pedagogy (MASLEPT) model.

Keywords

Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge, Technology Integration Model, Information and Communication Technology Integration

1. Introduction

In 2009, Cameroon published the Growth and Employment Strategy Paper aimed at transforming the country into an emerging nation by 2035. One of the strategies to achieve the vision is the development of the required human capital by the education sector. Qualified human resources in Information and Communication Technology (ICT) play a key role in leapfrogging nations to emerging country status (Partners for 21st Century Skills, 2009). Building a competent ICT workforce to drive the vision will require pupils to start acquiring technological skills while still in primary school. For this to be effective, teachers should be empowered to adequately use technology in instructional processes. Since ICT was introduced in the Cameroon primary school curriculum, very little in-service training has been conducted to empower teachers to adapt technology in teaching and learning (Inspectorate of Pedagogy in Charge of ICT, Annual Reports, 2009, 2010, 2011). An effective professional development model on technology integration in classroom practices is a pre-requisite for them to use the tools.

Professional development should be intentional, on-going, and a systemic process aimed at increasing the knowledge-base of teachers about a topic that will in turn increase their knowledge and the achievement of their pupils (Guskey, 2000). Ingvarson (2005) remarked that “there are no short cuts to educational improvement” (p. 63). Stakeholders often have naive expectations about the ease with which educational change can occur, not understanding that the most significant changes are those that build teachers’ capacity and professional culture. Instead they often focus on building structures and reforming school curriculum framework (McDonald, 2009). Petersen, Mcarthy, and Elmore (1996) commented in their research on the capacity of “restructuring” reforms in the United States to benefit classroom practice, “school structures can provide opportunities for the learning of new teaching practices and new strategies for pupils’ learning, but structures, by themselves, do not cause learning to occur” (p. 149). Therefore, stakeholders must redirect their focus towards on-going quality teacher professional development programmes.

For teachers to be able to use technological tools in their classrooms, an effective professional development model must be put in place to improve their skills (McDonald, 2009). Several studies have proven that effective teacher professional development leads to the enhancement of teachers’ knowledge and skills (Hanley, Maringe, & Ratcliffe, 2008; Lieberman & Pointer-Mace, 2008). Yoon, Duncan, Lee, Scarloss and Shapley (2007) affirmed that effective teacher professional development contributes to pupils’ improved learning outcomes. The improvement in pupils’ academic achievement is the ultimate aim of teacher professional development (Borko, 2004; Guskey & Sparks, 2002; McRae, 2003; Rock & Wilson, 2005). Adequate professional development for teachers on the adoption of technology in their classroom will empower them to use the tool to improve pupils’ achievement. This paper surveys primary school teachers’ views on their preferred professional development model and concludes with recommendations for stakeholders.

2. Model of Teacher Professional Development in Cameroon Primary Schools

The teacher professional development model that has been in practice in Cameroon primary schools for the past two decades is the pedagogic day seminar (Inspectorate General of Pedagogy, 2004; Nkwenti Ndongfack, 2010). The pedagogic day seminars are organised at Sub-Divisional levels which are usually held in a nearby school or at the Sub-Divisional Inspectorate for Basic Education with the goal of improving teachers’ professional knowledge, skills and attitudes. These seminars are organised by the Sub-Divisional Inspectors in collaboration with Regional Pedagogic Inspectors (Inspectorate of Pedagogy in Charge of ICT, Annual Reports, 2009). The seminars are held once a term and last for a day, accumulating to three days per school year (about 18 hours of effective instruction).

Guskey (2000), Supovich and Turner (2000) recommended that for a teacher professional development programme to be effective, it should be held for a minimum of 60 to 80 hours annually. This indicates that the duration for which professional development of teachers on the use of ICT conducted in Cameroon is largely insufficient. This view is further confirmed by the Inspectorate of Pedagogy in Charge of ICT, Annual Reports (2009, 2010, 2011) which highlights that in-service primary school teachers regularly complain of the short duration of professional development on the use of ICT for instructional purposes. Pedagogic day seminars offer brief interventions which are ineffective in promoting long term or lasting change in teachers’ practice. Fraser (2005) remarked that this model of professional development is characterized by knowledge transmission rather than reflective thinking and exchange of ideas. This view was further confirmed by Tante (2010) who uphold...
that

“… in the Cameroon primary educational system, opportunities for in-service training and teacher development are sparse and intermittent, in most cases just once a year. The training and staff development follow the transmission model and the sessions are hardly evaluated, nor are implementation of training monitored” (p. 27).

Crawford (2000), Guadelli (2002) and Fraser (2005) observed that the pedagogic day seminar also known as the one-shot workshop model for teacher professional development is practised by many countries. Despite the widespread applicability of the model, the researchers argue that it does not promote long term change in teachers’ practice and has generally failed to transform what teachers do in the classroom. One of the reasons identified by the researchers is that there is usually no follow-up after the training. Even if participants felt that it was beneficial, the likelihood that they would integrate the skills and knowledge acquired into their practises and maintained them over time is very slim. Guadelli (2002) commented that teachers from the same school attending this model of professional development have very little chance of continuous collaboration and networking after the event because of no follow-up and support. The researchers concur with this view because working as an Inspector of Pedagogy in the Ministry of Basic Education for the past eight years and a teacher educator for 23 years, the limited number of supervisory staff and other resources cause a limited follow-up of teachers after their participation in the pedagogic day seminar. The lack of proper follow-up indicates that teachers will be unable to build on the knowledge and skills discussed at the workshop or get practical support from their colleagues to effectively integrate technological knowledge into their practices. Based on the weaknesses observed in the existing model of teacher professional development on technology integration, this study was conducted with the following research question in mind:

“What professional development model will empower in-service primary school teachers to develop their knowledge of technology, pedagogy and content to effectively adopt ICT across the school curriculum”?

Characteristics of an Effective Professional Development Model

Rogers (2007) stated that contemporary professional development models have moved from short-term teacher-training events where information was transmitted by an expert to a group of listening participants, to a more constructivist approach. The constructivist model of teacher professional development is perceived as being more effective because it is based upon the recognition that learning takes place over time and that active learning requires learners to connect new ideas to previous knowledge (Upitis, 2005). Guskey (2003) and McDonald (2009) have all provided descriptions of what characterises an efficient professional development model for teachers. They all seem to be unanimous that effective professional development of teachers should have positive effects on pupils’ learning outcomes.

Hawley and Valli (1999) analyse studies conducted on professional development to identify factors that foster pupils’ learning. Their findings resulted in the identification of nine factors that characterise the design of an effective professional development programme. The researchers recommend that professional development models should:

• be focused on what teachers teach to their pupils and misconceptions pupils may face learning the materials and how they can be addressed;
• be based on analyses of the differences between actual pupils’ performance, goals and standards for pupils’ learning;
• involve teachers in the identification of what they need to learn and in the development of the learning experiences in which they will be involved;
• be primarily school-based and built into the day-to-day teaching programme;
• be organised around collaborative problem solving;
• be continuous and on-going, involving follow-up and support for further learning;
• incorporate best practices in implementing lessons learned through professional development;
• provide opportunities to gain understanding of the theory underlying the knowledge and skills being learned; and
• be connected to a comprehensive change process focused on improving pupils’ learning.

Similarly, Ingvarson (2005); Lieberman and Pointer Mace (2008) and Plummer (2005) also reviewed litera-
ture focusing on the principles of effective professional development. The rationale for the review was to identify factors that were most prominent in teacher professional development programmes. The findings revealed most commonly agreed principles of effective professional development amongst educators and practitioners. They suggested that professional development should be a demonstration of how pupils learn; be continuous, include follow-up; be part of a comprehensive approach or strategy to instructional improvement; be a process that provides teachers with learning opportunities which are meaningful, intellectually engaging and professionally empowering.

In the same perspective, the findings of Guskey (2003) synthesize a list of twelve fairly representative samples of effective professional development conducted in the United States. The rationale of the study was to identify the factors that were recurrent in most effective professional development models. According to Guskey (2003), the most frequently-cited characteristics in order of frequency of inclusions were the enhancement of teachers’ content and pedagogical knowledge; provision of sufficient time and resources; promotion of collegiality and collaborative exchange; inclusion of specific evaluation procedures; alignment with other reform initiatives; modelling of high quality instruction and be school or site-based.

3. Theoretical Framework

From the literature reviewed, it can be discerned that an effective professional development model should be characterised by teachers’ pedagogical content knowledge; provision of sufficient time and resources; promotion of collegiality and collaborative exchange; include follow up procedures; models high quality instruction and be school or site-based. In this regards, three key factors comes into play. Firstly, given that teachers’ pedagogical content knowledge is paramount in any teaching and learning process, the Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) framework for understanding the complexity of integrating technology into specific subject matter can provide solid background knowledge for teachers to teach using technology (Mishra & Koehler, 2006).

Before technology was readily made available to teachers, they considered two basic issues during lesson planning and teaching: which content to teach and how to teach it which may have been made separately or in a concerted manner. Shulman (1987, 1986) introduced the concept of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) as the way pedagogy and content knowledge can be blended to provide an understanding on how particular topics to be taught can be represented and adapted to pupils’ characteristics, interests and abilities. Specifically, PCK relates to the transformation of several types of knowledge which includes an understanding of what makes the learning of specific concepts easy or difficult and “embodies the aspects of content most germane to its teach-ability” (Shulman, 1986: p. 9). This transformation occurs as the teacher critically reflects on and interprets the subject matter; finds multiple ways to represent the information as analogies, metaphors, examples, problems, demonstrations, and/or classroom activities; adapts the material to pupils’ developmental levels and abilities, gender, prior knowledge, and misconceptions; and finally tailors the material to those specific individuals or groups of pupils to whom the content will be taught.

Mishra and Koehler (2006) upgraded Shulman’s PCK by introducing technology to include teachers’ understanding of teaching specific content with appropriate pedagogical methods and technologies. Just as Shulman argued that content and pedagogy should not be viewed as separate domains, Mishra and Koehler (2006) argued the same for the inclusion of the technology domain. Mishra and Koehler (2006) argue that,

Though Shulman’s approach still holds true, what has changed since the 1980s is that technologies have come to the forefront of educational discourse primarily because of the availability of a range of new, primarily digital, technologies and requirements for learning how to apply them to teaching (p. 1023).

Acknowledging the significant role of ICT in the teaching and learning process, Mishra and Koehler (2006) proposed the integration of technology into Shulman’s (1987) PCK model and named the resulting combination, Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK). TPACK is used in this study as one of the frameworks to guide the design of the content of the teacher professional development programme.

Secondly, Lesson Study is a well-documented school-based teacher professional development model which originated from Japan in the 18th century (Baba & Kojima, 2004; Fernandez & Yoshida, 2004; Hashimoto et al., 2003). The underlying principle of the model requires groups of teachers to meet regularly over an extended period of time, to work on the design, implementation, feedback, and improvement of one or several “research
Research lessons are authentic classroom lessons taught by the teacher to their own class. They are:
- focused on a specific, pre-determined teacher-generated problem, goal, or vision of pedagogical practice;
- carefully planned, usually in collaboration with one or more colleagues;
- observed by other teachers;
- recorded for analysis and reflection; and
- discussed by group members, other colleagues, administrators or an invited commentator (Lewis & Tsuchida, 1998).

In designing their lessons that integrate technology, teachers identify areas that pupils are likely to have difficulties in understanding. To resolve the difficulties, teachers may proceed to identifying how technology can be used to further illustrate the difficult or abstract concepts. When the teachers complete the study, they document their work in a report that describes the lesson they designed, explain how the lesson worked and what they have learnt about teaching and learning using ICT from the lesson study experience (Baba & Kojima, 2004; Fernandez & Yoshida, 2004). This model enables teachers to be collaboratively engaged in action research in order to improve the quality of instruction using technology as clearly outlined by the literature on best practices in effective teacher professional development programmes (Lewis, Perry, Hurd, & O’Connell, 2006).

Thirdly, social constructivism is one of the most appropriate theoretical frameworks that support the teacher professional development model. Dewey (1916) suggested that experience is the cornerstone from which new knowledge is created, promoting authentic learning and meaningful experiences that foster new knowledge growth. This perspective gave rise to a theoretical perspective known as constructivism. Widely accepted within the educational community, constructivism describes learning as a process whereby learners actively construct or build new ideas, concepts, or knowledge objects based upon existing understandings. Vygotsky (1962), a cultural psychologist theorized that language and conceptual development are linked to social phenomena and cultural contexts. Vygotsky (1978) extended the perspectives of constructivism by theorizing that learning occurs through sociocultural mediation, meaning that individuals construct new knowledge through their active participation within a social context and via interactions with its signs and tools. Social constructivism recognises that teachers grow from a relationship with a trusted confidant with whom they can establish and continue dialogue about ways of developing their understandings. It guided the design of interactive activities that teachers’ undertook throughout a professional development programme.

4. Methodology

The study employed quantitative research methodology in the development of the model. It targeted 53,452 public primary school teachers teaching in 14,712 primary schools nation-wide. The application of Research Advisors (2006) spreadsheets in calculating the sample size for this study yielded 378 schools and 382 teachers with approximately 218 females and 164 males at a confidence level of 95% and a margin of error (degree of accuracy) of 5%. According to the Ministry of Basic Education Statistical Year Book (2011), 57% of the primary school teachers are females while 43% are males; 50% of the teachers teach in urban schools, 30% teach in semi urban schools while 20% teach in rural schools. These variables were taken into consideration when selecting the sample for this study. For easy distribution of the sample size across the ten Regions of Cameroon, taking into consideration gender and location of the teachers, the researcher increased the number to 400 (230 females and 170 males) teachers which is greater than the minimum sample size suggested by Research Advisor (2006). The sample seize for schools remained the same. From the Ministry of Basic Education Statistical Year Book (2011), 38% of the primary schools are in urban settlements; 22% in semi-urban settlements while 40% are in rural settlements.

After determining the sample, proportionate sampling technique was applied in the selection of schools from each region taking into consideration the type of settlement. Proportionate sampling technique is used when the researcher knows the distribution of target schools or population across a set of groups and when there is a desire to ensure that minorities are properly represented in the study (Moore & McCabe, 2005). This guideline enabled the researchers to identify the groups to be used for the sub-segments and the proportion of the population in each group. To get the sample for each group, the percentages were multiplied by the total sample size as seen in Table 1. The table indicates the distribution of participating schools per region in terms of school location. The Centre Region had the highest number of schools because it is highly populated. It is worth noting that
Table 1. Number of participating schools from each region in terms of school location.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Number of primary schools</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Semi-urban</th>
<th>Urban</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adamawa</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Far North</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Littoral</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North West</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South West</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>378</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 indicates the demographic information of teachers in terms of gender, age, and teaching experience. The bulk of the participants were females because 52.5% of teachers teaching in Cameroon primary schools are females.

4.1. Data Collection

Quantitative data were collected through a nation-wide survey involving 400 in-service primary school teachers. To respond to the research question, survey questionnaires containing Likert Scale items were administered to 400 teacher-participants selected using the stratified random sampling technique from the 10 Regions of Cameroon. The test items were designed to investigate their preferred professional development model and its characteristics.

4.2. Results

Research Question: What professional development model will empower in-service primary school teachers to develop their knowledge of technology, pedagogy and content to effectively adopt ICT across the school curriculum?

Table 3 represents the responses of teacher-participants who were surveyed on eleven statements related to their preferred professional development model and its characteristics on a 5-point Likert Scale items. The first three statements on the table were designed to investigate teacher-participants’ preferred professional development model while the remaining eight were formulated to find out what should characterise the model. Regarding their preference for a standardised professional development model; 183 (47.4%) teacher-participants were not in favour of the model, 73 (18.3%) were in favour of it while about 130 (34%) remained neutral. Concerning the self-learning professional development model, 229 (57.6%) teacher-participants were not in favour of such a model. In reference to a school-based professional development model, 368 (92%) supported such a model. From their responses on standardised, self-learning and school-based professional development model, it was concluded that 368 (92%) teacher-participants were in favour of a school-based professional development model as compared to 73 (18.3%) for standardised and 77 (19.4%) for self-learning models respectively.

With their interests settled on a school-based professional development model, 322 (90%) teacher-participants preferred an on-going professional development model whilst 376 (94.3%) teacher-participants preferred the professional development model to address the challenges faced in their classrooms. With regards to the collaborative nature of the model, 381 (95.2%) teacher-participants were of the opinion that the professional development model support collaborative learning with colleagues. Additionally, 368 (92.1%) of them would feel
Table 2. Demographic information of teacher-participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participants</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>57.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;32 years</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>14.25</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≥32 years</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>28.25</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>39.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≤5 years</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>16.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 - 10 years</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>12.25</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>13.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 - 15 years</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≥15 years</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>8.25</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Teacher-participants’ preferences of a professional development model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SD (1)</th>
<th>D (2)</th>
<th>N (3)</th>
<th>A (4)</th>
<th>SA (5)</th>
<th>NR</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>STD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I prefer the standardised professional development model currently in practice</td>
<td>37 (9.3%)</td>
<td>146 (36.5%)</td>
<td>130 (32.5%)</td>
<td>45 (11.3%)</td>
<td>28 (7.0%)</td>
<td>386</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer a self-learning professional development model</td>
<td>81 (20.6%)</td>
<td>148 (37%)</td>
<td>83 (20.8%)</td>
<td>60 (15%)</td>
<td>17 (4.4%)</td>
<td>398</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer a school-based professional development model</td>
<td>03 (0.8%)</td>
<td>13 (3.3%)</td>
<td>14 (3.5%)</td>
<td>236 (59%)</td>
<td>132 (33%)</td>
<td>389</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer the professional development model to be an on-going one</td>
<td>08 (2.0%)</td>
<td>18 (4.5%)</td>
<td>51 (12.8%)</td>
<td>227 (56.6%)</td>
<td>95 (23.8%)</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer the professional development model to address the problems I face in my classroom</td>
<td>02 (0.5%)</td>
<td>03 (0.8%)</td>
<td>18 (4.5%)</td>
<td>209 (52.4%)</td>
<td>167 (41.9%)</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer the professional development model to support collaborative learning with my colleagues</td>
<td>00 (0%)</td>
<td>03 (0.8%)</td>
<td>15 (3.8%)</td>
<td>225 (56.1%)</td>
<td>156 (39.1%)</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will feel comfortable if the professional development model facilitates lesson planning with my colleagues</td>
<td>06 (1.5%)</td>
<td>08 (2.0%)</td>
<td>17 (4.3%)</td>
<td>210 (52.5%)</td>
<td>158 (39.6%)</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will feel comfortable if the professional development model enables my colleague(s) observe me teach and make criticisms</td>
<td>01 (0.3%)</td>
<td>06 (1.5%)</td>
<td>18 (4.5%)</td>
<td>205 (51.4%)</td>
<td>169 (42.4%)</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will like to have a follow-up after participating in a professional development programme</td>
<td>03 (0.8%)</td>
<td>04 (1.0%)</td>
<td>21 (5.3%)</td>
<td>207 (51.9%)</td>
<td>164 (41.1%)</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will like the follow-up to take place in my classroom</td>
<td>10 (2.5%)</td>
<td>15 (3.8%)</td>
<td>29 (7.3%)</td>
<td>241 (60.4%)</td>
<td>104 (26.1%)</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will like the follow-up to take place through online discussions</td>
<td>73 (18.4%)</td>
<td>118 (29.8%)</td>
<td>126 (31.5%)</td>
<td>02 (15.9%)</td>
<td>16 (4.0%)</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 3.76 0.81

Note: Strongly Disagree (SD = 1), Disagree (D = 2), Neutral (N = 3), Agree (A = 4), Strongly Agree (SA = 5), Number of Respondents (N), Standard Deviation (STD).

comfortable if the professional development model facilitates lesson planning with their colleagues. Regarding their colleagues observing them teach and providing critical feedback, 374 (93.8%) teacher-participants indicated that they will feel comfortable if the professional development model enabled their colleagues to observe them teach and make criticisms. Regarding follow-up, 371 (93%) teacher-participants were in favour of a follow-up after participating in the professional development programme. About 345 (86.5%) indicated their desire for a classroom follow-up. Although a majority indicated their interest for a follow-up after their professional
development, 191 (48.2%) teacher-participants disagreed on using online follow-up while 18 (19.9%) showed interest and 126 (40%) remained neutral to the view. The overall mean and standard deviation for the construct were Mean = 3.76 and STD = 0.81 respectively. The small standard deviation (STD < 1.00) indicates that they were clustered closely around the mean.

From the results, it can be established that the teacher-participants preferred a school-based professional development model that:

- is on-going;
- addresses the problems faced by teachers in classrooms;
- supports collaborative learning amongst colleagues;
- encourages teachers to plan lessons with their colleagues;
- encourages teachers to observe one another teach and provide feedback;
- encourages follow-up after participation in a professional development programme; and
- encourages follow-up to take place in classrooms.

5. Discussion of the Findings

5.1. School-Based Professional Development Model

Based on the initial findings and combining aspects of the literature review, a model was developed to guide the development and implementation of professional teacher development in Cameroon (see Figure 1 below).

The MASLEPT model motivates teachers to participate, contribute, guide each other’s learning, and give meaning to their common course of developing technology integration skills. It establishes a common ground which gives teachers the motivation to meet, discuss and share their views on how to improve their pupils’ learning outcomes through the use of technology in their classrooms. In so doing, the model contributes in defining the identity of the teachers because coming together for a common purpose implies a commitment to

![Figure 1. MASLEPT model for Cameroon 2035 Learning.](image-url)
shared competencies that distinguishes them from others. As they engage in the model, they will undertake common activities, share ideas, reflect on their experiences and support each other. Their participation in these activities and the relationships that they create enable them to learn from each other and grow professionally.

The MASLEPT model draws inspiration from a community of practice. Wenger, McDermott and Snyder (2002) propose that the terms “community of practice” refer to “a very specific type of social structure with a very specific purpose” (p. 41). The specific purpose within the framework of this study is the development of technology integration skills by in-service primary school teachers to enable them prepares pupils who can transform Cameroon to an emerging nation by 2035. Members of a community of practice are “informally bound by what they do together” (Wenger, 1998: p. 2). They interact and learn together by engaging in joint activities around their shared domain of interest (Gray, 2004). The existence of these common situations, problems and perspectives is what brings teachers together to share knowledge and to learn from each other as they develop technology integration skills.

5.2. Implementation of the MASLEPT Model

To successfully implement MASLEPT, the model has further been simplified as seen in Figure 2. The first part

![Figure 2. School-based teacher professional development model for technology integration (MASLEPT).](image-url)
of the diagram depicts the processes teachers are expected to go through to build their skills to mainstream technology in the school curriculum while the second part illustrate the different stages they are expected to work through to develop their capabilities. The MASLEPT model indicates that during a professional development programme, a member of the pedagogic supervision chain such as a head teacher, pedagogic animator, pedagogic adviser or regional pedagogic inspector playing the role of a facilitator, clusters teachers according to levels (Level I, II, III). The facilitator proceeds by guiding the teachers in setting technology-driven lesson goals, planning the lessons, implementing the lessons and reflecting on its outcomes. The activities that take place during the process are highly influenced by social constructivist theorists. The teachers continue the practice together by working through the TPACK developmental stages as seen in the second part of the diagram to master the art of mainstreaming technology with content and pedagogy. As the process goes on, teachers’ practises change. This change influence their teaching and learning in the classroom. A member of the pedagogic chain continues with the provision of classroom support to ensure that the change in teachers’ routine practises is sustainable. The role of a member of the pedagogic chain is very important in the entire process.

The developmental stages as seen in the MASLEPT model indicate how Cameroon in-service primary school teachers can be guided to develop their knowledge of technology, pedagogy and content as an amalgamation. The sole challenge lies in the fact that the use of technology in the classroom as well is still in its incubation stage (Ndongfack, 2010). Niess, Ronau, Shafer, Driskell, Harper, and Johnston (2009) model originally kick starts teachers at the recognising stage. For this study, an extra stage called “sensitising” was added because the context in which the original model was developed is not the same as Cameroon. Therefore the original model could not be directly applicable in the Cameroon primary school settings. The researcher modified it to include a sensitising stage at the beginning of the model. The sensitising stage will enable in-service teachers who have never had the opportunity to learn how technology can enhance teaching and learning practices to become acquainted. Most primary schools in the country are located in rural areas where teachers are rarely exposed to innovative pedagogic practices. For them to modernize their traditional classroom practices, they obviously need an understanding of the impact of the tool in the teaching-learning process. This will not only help in sensitising them on the importance of the tool but will also serve as a way of combating resistance to change.

One of the strong points of the school-base teacher professional model is that it is on-going. An on-going professional development model empowers teachers to constantly keep pace with innovative pedagogic practices in the field of educational technology (Hawley & Valli, 1999). Besides, teachers will be able to meet up with the minimum recommended duration of an effective professional development of 60 to 80 hours annually (Guskey, 2000; Supovich & Turner, 2000).

Given that the training took place within the school environment, teachers in the nation-wide survey were largely in favour of the fact that the professional development programme should address specific problems they face in their classrooms. Professional development programmes that are based on problem-solving are said to be time bound. Time-bound in this context refers to the provision of a just-in-time solution. Such programmes have proven to be very effective in providing a sustainable solution to problems teachers face in their routine practices. When teachers’ specific problems are addressed in a professional development programme, their classroom practises change. If the application of knowledge learned from a professional development programme leads to a change in pupils’ learning outcomes, the teachers’ attitudes and belief changes (Guskey, 2002).

The collaborative nature of the school-based professional development model as solicited by the teacher-participants is also one aspect that fosters teacher professional growth. Social constructivist theory argues that learning occurs through socio-cultural mediation (Vygotsky, 1978). This means that teachers will construct new knowledge through their active participation in the professional development programme and via interactions with various learning technologies. As teachers work collaboratively during the professional development programme, the more knowledgeable ones with technological skills support the less experienced colleagues. The MASLEPT model reinforces this practice because it enables teachers in a professional development programme to come together to set technological lesson goals, plan the lessons, implement them and reflect on its outcomes.

Lewis and Tsuchida (1998) uphold that when teachers work through the lesson study cycle as seen in the MASLEPT model, they produce authentic classroom lessons that are focused on a specific pre-determined problem, goal, or expected learning outcome. Since the teachers work collaboratively, the lessons are carefully planned, observed by other teachers, analysed and reflected upon by group members, administrators or an invited commentator. In such processes, social constructivism is very much in action because social negotiations, dis-
cussions, reflections and explanations lead to a positive learning outcome (Rock & Wilson, 2005). Collaborative lesson planning improves the effectiveness of the learning experiences teachers provide to their pupils. To this end, teacher learning is examined in terms of pupils’ learning outcomes. When teachers learn collaboratively, it becomes eminent that they will engage pupils in collaborative learning activities (Fraser, 2005).

Given that the professional development model is school-based, teacher-participants in the nation-wide survey opted for a classroom follow-up. Classroom follow-up is one of the characteristics of an effective professional development programme identified by many practitioners (Ingvarson, 2005; Lieberman & Pointer Mace, 2008; Plummer, 2005). Classroom follow-up contributes significantly in enhancing teacher professional growth because they receive instant feedback on their challenges. The one-shot model currently in practice offers very little classroom follow-up to teachers. The new Organisational Chart of the Ministry of Basic Education (2012) clearly traces the pedagogic supervision system. The MASLEPT teacher professional development model suggested in this study requires a member of the pedagogic supervision system to play an active role. As a facilitator in a professional development programme, he/she continues with a classroom follow-up to support teachers in the implementation of the new knowledge. Many studies have shown that professional development programmes fail to yield the expected results because there is usually no follow-up after teachers attend such trainings (Ingvarson, 2005; Lieberman & Pointer Mace, 2008; Plummer, 2005; Tante, 2010). When there is a classroom follow-up the difficulties teachers face in implementing a lesson can be addressed on the spot. It is worth noting that professional development on technology integration can be very demanding and frustrating at times. Building teachers’ confidence as they work up the TPACK developmental stages to become advanced users of technology in instructional processes will be guaranteed through regular classroom follow-up and support as per the MASLEPT model.

6. Implications for Policy Makers

The professional development model currently practised in the Ministry of Basic Education assembles teachers of each Sub-Division in a single location for a day (8 hours) and once a term to transmit pedagogic information to them. Since the school year has 3 terms, it means teachers have a total of 36 hours of training annually. Several researchers have challenged this approach as being brief, fragmented, incoherent, decontextualised and isolated from real classroom situations (Crawford, 2000; Guadelli, 2002; Fraser, 2005). Guskey (2000), Supovich and Turner (2000) suggest that for a teacher professional development programme to be effective, it should be held for a minimum of 60 to 80 hours annually. Policymakers should review policies relating to in-service teacher training to ensure that it meets the standards suggested by research. Teacher-participants in the nation-wide survey have already shown preference for an on-going school-based professional development model characterised by collaborative learning, classroom follow-up and problem-solving. Policymakers should capitalise on these findings and implement this model in schools nation-wide. This will increase the brief duration of in-service training, improve teachers’ quality and transform the school to a true learning organisation for both teachers and pupils.

Policymakers should also explore opportunities through which teachers can be subsidised to own personal computers. Ownership of personal computers has been widely reported by researchers as facilitating learning by teachers themselves, between them and their colleagues or mentors anytime and anywhere (Webb, 2007).

Teachers are in an early stage of technology adoption and thus are likely to face challenges as they try to integrate technology in their lessons. Some of the difficulties may include wrong manipulation of both hardware and software applications. They can become very frustrated if they cannot overcome the challenges. This researcher suggests that the equipment of schools should be accompanied by the intensive training of at least a school-based teacher on computer maintenance. The maintenance teacher will subsequently provide support to colleagues when they encounter any difficulties in the use of technology in their classrooms.

6.1. Implication for Members of the Pedagogic Supervision Chain

Professional development content that is clearly structured, easy, appropriately sequenced and includes activities to assist teachers in the construction of their own knowledge from previous experiences produces effective teachers. The activities should be related to authentic classroom situations in order to increase teachers’ interest in the programme and make learning fun (Koehler & Mishra, 2006; Webb, 2007). These experiences should be provided in an environment that is comfortable for teachers to explore, experiment and practice with the tools
and content. Furthermore, activities that are designed to be completed collaboratively produce quality results and build professional relationships whereby expert teachers support the less knowledgeable ones. Collaborative practices that yield better results are those that enable expert teachers or facilitators from within the group to carry out demonstration exercises that are beneficial to teachers with less experience in technology integration into lessons (Fernandez & Yoshida, 2004). In short, the design of a professional development programme for teachers is very crucial for a successful rollout of the programme.

To ensure that the professional development model is sustainable, practitioners should incorporate into the design a facilitator who is capable of providing clear, effective, and timely feedback to teachers. The facilitator should also be able to model best practices and ensure teachers are engaged throughout the professional development programme. Modelling best practices to teachers is very important because most teachers tend to replicate the activities and practices they learn during professional development programmes into their own teaching practices (Fraser, 2005). Depending on the availability of a facilitator to implement the programme, practitioners may have to design and develop a facilitator’s guide. This guide would be created to assist the facilitator with the implementation of the intended programme. Additional training sessions with the facilitator might be necessary depending on the facilitator’s technological skills. The designer should consider the facilitator’s availability at the beginning of the professional development process, so they can plan accordingly and work within the timeline for implementation.

As teachers begin putting the knowledge and skills gained into practice, they would need access to required resources. Therefore, incorporating an awareness of where and how to access required resources is an important factor to be included in a professional development programme. The implication of this finding aligns with previous research on incorporating appropriate access to resources to increase the sustainability and successful transfer of knowledge and skills developed in a professional development programme to classroom practices (Crawford, 2000; Guadelli, 2002; Fraser, 2005).

6.2. Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to develop a more acceptable professional development model for technology integration among primary school teachers to achieve Cameroon’s 2035 Vision. The findings from this study indicated that teacher-participants preferred an ongoing, school-based professional development model characterised by collaborative learning, problem-solving and classroom follow-up was their preferred in-service training model. School-based professional development models are increasingly being practised in most educational systems around the world to yield high learning outcomes. Though it may seem tedious implementing the model, the reward is ultimately great. No teacher will feel comfortable if challenged by pupils who are increasingly becoming technology savvy because they come from homes that are highly equipped with a variety of technologies. This challenge can be overcome by effectively taking part in the proposed model of teacher professional development. Besides, it is teachers’ responsibility to ensure that pupils perform outstandingly in school and become successful citizens in the society and contribute to nation building. This can be achieved if teachers are empowered to help pupils reach their full potential. It is therefore recommended that schools should implement the school-based professional development model. Constant monitoring and evaluating the impact of the model will facilitate the resolution of minor problems while ensuring that the country is on the right track towards the achievement of the 2035 Vision.

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References


Teachers’ Learning Activities in the Workplace: How Does Teacher Education Matter?

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Abstract

The ability of teachers to learn and develop at work is important for the quality of their performance and their well-being. However, research has been ambiguous about what factors can improve it. Two reasons for this ambiguity are discussed in this paper: The links between workplace learning and professional education have often not been included in research studies, and teaching may have special characteristics that make workplace learning difficult. The paper examines new empirical connections between teachers’ learning activities at work and the outcome of teacher education, using longitudinal Norwegian survey data. The results show that an active and independent study strategy increases the likelihood of consulting professionals outside work and finding information in books and journals. Furthermore, the introduction of individual characteristics substantially improves the workplace impact models, and should be adopted in future research. Finally, it is discussed whether the methodological framework in existing research on teachers’ workplace learning is consistent with the theoretical point of departure, or whether greater consistency should be sought.

Keywords

Work Place Learning, Teacher Education, Higher Education, Comparative Studies, Study Strategy

1. Introduction

‘Teachers’ professional learning and development are essential components of school development, as well as of teachers’ professional growth, well-being and success. Muijs et al. (2004: p. 291) argued that teachers’ ability to reflect, access new ideas, experiment and share experiences within school cultures gives greater potential for...
school and classroom improvement. Moreover, teachers’ learning at work also affects students’ attitudes toward learning, teaching processes and achievements. Day et al. (2007) found that teachers in various phases of their professional careers consider continuing professional development activities to be important; these activities represent an investment in their professional lives and are a “means of recharging their batteries” (p. 148). A general feature of the knowledge society is the demand for continual learning and development of professionals, including teachers, after their period of professional preparation is finished (Day & Sachs, 2004: pp. 3-5). Because teachers benefit from professional preparation and learning, and are demanded to develop and learn, their ability to do so thus becomes an important research topic.

Because the results from research on teachers’ workplace learning have been ambiguous, a call for more research has been put forth (Kwakman, 1998, 2001; Taris et al., 2003). In this paper, a specific tradition on research on teachers’ learning at work is examined and discussed, a tradition emphasizing the balance among control, demands and support at work. Different models emphasizing these rather simple mechanisms have been put forward, but the results remain unclear. Two potential reasons for this lack of clarity are addressed in this paper. One reason is the omission from the data of initial teacher education in many projects, which might have an influence on later professional learning and development. Professions such as teaching are characterized by a period of professional preparation as an entry to a career. This period of preparation affects the values, motivation and cognitive abilities of participants (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). It also serves as a labor market shelter for the profession and a gateway to the subsequent career (Bills, 2004: pp. 37-60; Collins, 1979; Freidson, 2001: p. 84).

Another reason for inconclusive results might be the research focus solely on teachers. As various researchers (e.g. Barnett, et al., 1987; Hargreaves, D., 2007a; Kennedy, 1990) have pointed out, teaching is a quite distinct profession, with characteristics that have implications for workplace learning. One example could be the privacy and individualism of teaching (e.g. Little, 1990), which may bring about teachers’ lack of binding collaboration with colleagues, especially collaboration that supports learning. To shed light on the more specific features of teaching, this paper compares teachers’ learning activities with those of physicians. Teaching is sometimes described as a “weak” profession with an unclear knowledge base and low status, whereas medicine is considered the ideal-typical profession, with an established knowledge base, strong academic traditions, strong professional groups and high status (see e.g. Etzioni, 1969; Hargreaves, D., 2007a, 2007b; Myers, 2008). Comparing these two professions should elucidate any shortcomings of the previously used models in research on teachers’ workplace learning. According to Haugan’s (2011) review of Norwegian research on the general teacher education programme, questions of how teacher education adequately prepares student teachers to become professional teachers have not been addressed in a systematic way, despite a strong focus on this question in international research. The current paper can be seen as an effort to contribute to this in a cumulative way, by linking international research approaches to Norwegian data.

The research question can be stated as follows: What relationships exist among the educational outcomes, workplace characteristics and workplace learning activities of teachers and those of physicians? Learning activities here refer to the actions of professionals who are in need of information or knowledge to handle situations at work. Learning activities can be viewed as attempts to operationalize learning behavior at work, albeit in a general way. Dependent variables measure intentional learning activities. These activities are an important part of an individual’s total learning activities, in addition to organized learning activities and informal learning. The aim is to discuss how the inclusion of the contribution from professional education can improve previously used models for workplace learning. This study uses longitudinal data from a Norwegian survey of student teachers and medical students at the end of their professional education and in the early stages of their careers.

1.1. Previous Research on Teachers’ Workplace Learning

Different perspectives and methodological approaches have been put forward in research on teachers’ learning in the workplace. Summarizing and expanding on previous empirical and theoretical studies of early career learning in the workplace in various professions, Eraut (2007) distinguished between learning factors and context factors in a two-triangle model. Learning factors are the challenge and value of the work, feedback and support and confidence and commitment/personal agency. Context factors are allocation and structuring of work, individual participation and expectations of performance and progress and encounters and relationships with people at work. According to Eraut (2007), the important issue in novice professionals’ learning is that their
work has to be sufficiently challenging, yet not so challenging that it reduces their confidence. They must have control of situations so that they can fulfill their learning potential. If they lack control of situations, they may develop negative coping mechanisms, which in turn may prevent learning.

Eraut’s (2007) model bears some resemblance to Csikszentmihalyi’s (1996) research on how the feeling of flow in performing a task depends on striking a balance between the complexity of the task and the skills of the performer. A similar argument can be found in research using the Job Demand-Control-Support (JDCS) model as a starting point for investigations into teachers’ learning in the workplace (Karasek, 1979; Karasek & Theorell, 1990). This model is based on perceived control over one’s work and the demands experienced from the work. When jobs are highly demanding and provide high levels of control, there is potential for learning (active jobs). When demands are high and control is low, stress and poor health result (high-strain jobs). This model was later expanded by the addition of a third dimension that would affect both learning and strain: social support (Karasek & Theorell, 1990: pp. 68-76). Social interaction is a major component of health and behavioral reactions, and social support in the workplace can affect learning behavior by acting as a buffer between psychological stressors at work and adverse health outcomes.

The results from empirical tests of the learning hypothesis in the JDCS model have been ambiguous (Kwakman, 1998; Parker & Sprigg, 1999). Taris et al. (2003) tested the hypothesis among Dutch teachers and found that job demands had a negative effect on learning, contrary to the initial assumption. Job control had a positive effect, which was in line with the model. It seemed that the highest levels of learning (and self-efficacy) were found among those with high control and low demands and, furthermore, that the transition from a teaching job with low demands and low control to a job with high demands and low control was particularly harmful. Kwakman (1998) found the hypotheses to be only partially supported; that is, groups of teachers with low or moderate job demands, in combination with high variety in the work performed, experience professional learning situations. Kwakman (1998, 2001) called for an expansion of the model and for the inclusion of more variables to predict learning at work for teachers. In their 2010 study, Gijbels et al. concluded that the initial hypothesis put forth by Karasek is intriguing because of its simplicity but that the model needs to be updated with the inclusion of individual learning behavior variables. They included the measure of self-directed learning orientation and found self-directed learning orientation to be a more important predictor of work-related learning than the initial variables in the JDCS model.

Focusing on similar dimensions, McCormack et al. (2006) found that collaboration with colleagues and former peers in an informal, unplanned way is important for novice teachers’ professional learning, as is participation in traditional types of formal induction programs and mentoring. These findings are supported by those of Flores (2006), who also emphasized the important role of school leadership. Garet et al. (2001) investigated what makes teachers’ professional development effective and found that improvement of professional development activities is more dependent on the duration of the activity (longer lasting activities have more potential for active learning), the collective participation of the teaching staff and the content and coherence of the activity than on the type of professional development activity (workshops or other course-based activities vs. mentoring and induction programs). Klingner (2004) found that teachers’ professional development activities are most successful when administrative support is clearly evident, the duration is long and sustained and teachers take ownership of their own professional development activities and mentor their peers. Meirink et al. (2007) found that this type of learning activity leads to changes in teachers’ cognition. According to Taris et al., 2003, “the paucity of research addressing learning-oriented outcomes is striking, even more so because many current management practices and philosophies promote the development of self-managing and development-oriented employees” (p. 2). Researchers have also argued that the limited number of tests performed do not adequately take into account how individual factors (such as what the individual brings from higher education and learning behavior) affect workplace learning and continuing professional development (Gijbels et al., 2010; Parker & Sprigg, 1999).

Again, the research cited here represents a distinct tradition in research on teachers’ workplace learning, but has had a substantial impact. Thus, there are good reasons to follow up on the approaches found in previous research, and develop the research further in a Norwegian context. The variables used in Karasek’s JDCS model (Karasek, 1979; Karasek & Theorell, 1990) are included in the data used in this paper, thus making it possible to draw a direct connection with previous research. Variables measuring perceived control (skill discretion and decision authority), perceived demands (the interaction between control and demands) and perceived support from superiors and colleagues are used as operationalizations of workplace factors affecting workplace learning activities, in line with findings of previous research.
1.2. The Importance of Including Individual Learning Characteristics When Analyzing Workplace Learning

Scholars (e.g. Becker, 1993) have generally assumed that initial professional education is important for performance in subsequent work and for further professional development, but it is rarely discussed why (Baker, 2009). In their comprehensive review of the literature on how college affects students, Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) argued that higher education can have both affective and cognitive outcomes. Cognitive outcomes include not only specific skills, such as problem solving and knowledge of subject matter, but also critical thinking, intellectual flexibility, reflective judgment and cognitive complexity. In the present study, these skills are included in the measures of study strategies in the last year of education. Study strategy includes the critical questioning of the content presented during education, the seeking of knowledge without exams being viewed as the main goal for education and active participation in classes. This way of approaching studies can be viewed as an individual trait, or a personal characteristic. However, it can be argued that, at least partly, it is something that teacher education can encourage and foster. Active student involvement is good for student learning, and involvement is a result of explicit and implicit demands put forward by education (Tinto, 1997). Within the self-regulated learning tradition (e.g. Pintrich, 2004), it is emphasized that students can be active and independent learners who can set goals, monitor their own progress and adjust their own behavior and reflect upon their own practices. Gijbels et al. (2010) found that individual learning orientation is more important for workplace learning behavior than the variables used in previous research on the Karasek model, which was discussed in the subsection titled “Previous Research on Teachers’ Workplace Learning”.

Study strategies could also be included with reference to affective outcomes. The period of professional education is believed to play an important role in forming or reinforcing the professional identities of students (Kaufman & Feldman, 2004). One branch of research argues that an important part of professional education is to instill students with a drive for knowledge—that is, an eagerness to continue to learn and develop in their professional careers. Some examples include the analyses of Jensen (2007), Jensen and Lahn (2005) and Smeby (2007) on how different professional communities instill students with a drive for learning. The main concept is that students who are active knowledge seekers and take an active part in their own professional learning and development can be described as “connected” to the relevant professional knowledge base. This, as Smeby (2009) in particular has shown, has consequences for how they approach and seek out learning situations in their professional careers. The implementation of active study strategies during education produces active knowledge seekers at work.

The present study proposes two hypotheses connecting educational outcomes with workplace learning. Hypothesis 1 states that students who find that they have achieved a high educational outcome at the end of their studies will be more active knowledge seekers in their later workplace. Similarly, hypothesis 2 states that students who employ an active and independent study strategy during their education (indicating intellectual flexibility and critical thinking) will be more active knowledge seekers in their later workplace. As previously mentioned, the ambiguous findings of past research on teachers’ workplace learning could be a result of omitting the cognitive and affective impact that professional education might have. One aim of the present study is to investigate whether the models used for research on teachers’ workplace learning could be further developed by including the contribution from professional education.

1.3. A Comparison of Teachers and Physicians

Another reason for ambiguous results in research on teachers’ learning in the workplace might be that teaching as a profession has special characteristics compared with other professions. The general models often used might therefore be of limited accuracy. To shed light on this claim, this study compares teachers with physicians.

One argument for comparing teachers and physicians can be found in the different knowledge traditions in the two professions. Teaching is sometimes referred to as a knowledge-weak profession (Hargreaves, D., 2007a). Teaching has poor systems for disseminating new knowledge to the individual teacher (Jensen, 2007), a lack of

\[\text{On a more technical note, testing the model in only teaching, or in only one professional group at a time, could give conservative estimates because the range in the dependent variables might be restricted when similar work environments are tested (Taris et al., 2003). This can be handled, however, by ensuring sufficient variation within one profession, as Parker and Spriggs (1999) argue. A comparison of different professions also allows variation to be included in the design.}\]
professional follow-up of teachers in the workplace (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2009) and professional organizations and unions that do not see continuing professional development and learning as important tasks (Karseth & Nerland, 2007). The term semi-profession, coined by Etzioni (1969), is applied to teaching. By contrast, medicine often serves as an ideal type of profession (Myers, 2008) and is described as having a systematic connection between science and technology and the work of physicians (Freidson, 1970). In teaching, a greater divide has existed between the academic education and research system and the field of professional teaching (Barnett et al., 1987).

When choosing other professional groups for comparison, there are several issues to consider. First of all, one can choose between a “most similar design” and a “most different design” (Przeworski & Teune, 1970: pp. 31-46). Is comparing teaching and medicine a most similar or most different design? Answer depends on whether most attention is given to differences and similarities, but the differences are the most striking. The debate over evidence-based professional practice in medicine and teaching is a good illustration of the differences between these professions, as a push for evidence-based practice has developed in both professions but with different effects. Hargreaves, D. (2007a: pp. 3-17), who has extensively discussed the differences between teaching and medicine, has criticized the scientific field of education for having decoupled teaching from educational research, whereas in medicine, most practitioners often double as researchers with the intent to improve practice and to “translate” and implement research (pp. 4-6). Medicine has been at the forefront of the development of evidence-based procedures, and the development of the field was initially based on the need to link research and practice closer together. The goal was not only to improve practice but also to direct research in a relevant direction for practice. Evidence-based professional practice in education has likewise developed as a response to serious doubts about the quality of educational research and the lack of relevance for educational practice (Biesta, 2007). The knowledge base in teaching has been described as either nonexistent or, if existing, irrelevant to professional needs (Barnett et al., 1987). As a continuation of this, teaching has been described as “not at present a research-based profession” (Hargreaves, D., 2007a: p. 3), whereas medicine has traditionally been considered the prototype of all other professions (Freidson, 1970: p. xvi).

In medicine, evidence-based procedures are established as a part of everyday practice through the development and implementation of procedures and protocols. Many researchers have argued in favor of similar developments in education; however, these developments have been met with opposition and have not been as extensive (see e.g. Biesta, 2007; Hammersley, 2007a; Sackett et al., 1996). The important impact of the development is that teachers do not have the same “toolbox” as do physicians because the tradition of basing professional practice on research results that stem from evidence-based procedures is not as developed in teaching as in medicine.

The use (or lack of use) of scientifically encoded knowledge is reinforced through the organization of the work. Both teachers and physicians have a great deal of what Freidson (1970) referred to as technical autonomy, which is the individual opportunity to decide the technical content of the work. Teachers most often perform their work alone with a group of students and are free to choose their procedures. Physicians also have choice of method but are more guided and restricted by procedures and, it can be claimed, by the consequences of their actions. The act of teaching is an individual enterprise resulting from how school work is organized, whereas doctors’ collaborative work may often vary more with the task at hand. As Hargreaves, A. (2000) discussed, teacher collaboration has increased as a response to the traditional, autonomous, one-teacher-one-class model. However, Hargreaves, A. (2000) emphasized that collaboration initiated via imposed curriculum reforms fades away after a short while and that actual teacher collaboration is rare. Great efforts have been made to promote new ways of organizing teachers’ work in schools during the past few decades, but many researchers have argued, both internationally (e.g. Jang, 2006) and in Norway (Imsen, 2004), that the actual level of collaboration remains low and that when it does occur, it is often the result of two or more teachers doing together what one teacher could have done alone (Welch, 2000).

Great differences also exist between the two professions in terms of how novice professionals are introduced to their first job. Residency is institutionalized in medical education worldwide, whereas teachers have been described as starting their career with little or no follow-up, in a sink-or-swim manner (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009).

Comparing teachers and physicians also has its obvious challenges, especially in describing similarities and differences in work context and organization. The images of the two professions presented here might seem a bit caricatured, and they have been met with opposition by scholars (e.g. Hammersley, 2007b). The jobs that teach-
ers and physicians perform have very different goals: Teachers are responsible for the upbringing and education of children, whereas physicians are responsible for treating the sick. They work in very different environments (schools vs. hospitals, clinics and offices), with very different organization of work and large variations in technical complexity. Grossman et al. (2009: p. 2057) stated that making comparisons across professions is difficult because the differences in status and the nature of the work can be so great. However, these differences can also provide the opportunity to highlight the specific characteristics of a profession, and the similarities should not be understated. Hargreaves, D. (2007b) argued that doctors and teachers are similar in that they make decisions involving complex judgments. They are different in that many doctors draw upon research about the effect of their practice so as to inform and improve their decisions, whereas most teachers do not.

In summary, making a comparison between teaching and medicine can be used to present several hypotheses about the differences between teachers’ and physicians’ learning activities in the workplace. Hypothesis 3 states that most teachers make less use of scientifically encoded knowledge in the form of finding information in scientific books or journals in their daily professional practice. Furthermore, the lack of a scientifically encoded knowledge base could indicate that teachers seek other knowledge sources, such as colleagues. The tradition of individual teachers and their classes is still a prevailing way of organizing work in schools, although attempts have been made to change this. Thus, the opportunity to gain access to colleagues might be lower for teachers than physicians, which in turn suggests that colleagues are a more frequent source of knowledge for physicians than teachers (hypothesis 4; however, this hypothesis does not say anything about importance). Similarly, making contact with colleagues outside the workplace can be harder for teachers than physicians; hence, teachers will seek them less frequently (hypothesis 5). As a consequence, teachers may reach out to other types of knowledge sources, such as the Internet, to find the information they do not receive from colleagues. The ensuing hypothesis is that teachers find information on the Internet more often than physicians (hypothesis 6).

2. Data and Methods

The analyses are based on the combined data from two different panels on two different occasions in a longitudinal survey. The data are part of a larger ongoing Norwegian panel survey called StudData, which is organized and carried out by the Centre for the Study of Professions at Oslo University College. Students from more than 20 different professions from 11 different university colleges and universities are followed during their education and for the first 6 years of their careers.

2.1. Respondents

A subsample consisted of two cohorts of teachers and two cohorts of physicians. These cohorts were examined near the end of their studies in the spring of 2001 (cohort 1) and the spring of 2003 (cohort 2). Both groups were examined again 3 years later (spring of 2004 and spring of 2006, respectively), after they had moved into schools and hospitals as professionals. A total of 478 teachers and 516 physicians answered the survey 3 years after graduation, and 414 teachers and 357 physicians answered the survey in both phases. The response rates in the year of graduation were 81.6% for teachers and 75.7% for physicians. 3 years later, the response rates were 68.3% for teachers and 63.1% for physicians.

The surveys were administered in a mandatory class in the year of graduation, whereas postal, electronic and telephone surveys were distributed 3 years after graduation. A panel retention study based on Norwegian public registers indicated that dropout occurred for several reasons: In some instances, individuals left the occupation, but more often, they found other relevant work or were continuing to further their studies (Storøy, 2010).

2.2. Dependent and Independent Variables

General questions, as opposed to profession-specific questions, were included in the survey to ensure the com-
parability of the groups. The dependent variables are four questions in which the professionals were asked to answer how often (daily, weekly, occasionally or seldom) they seek information from colleagues or superiors in the workplace, from colleagues outside the workplace, from books or other print sources or from the Internet when they need additional knowledge in demanding situations. They are an attempt to operationalize learning activities in the workplace, but they are obviously not a comprehensive operationalization of learning activities. However, all four activities seem important for learning at work and appear to cover the reading and collaborating categories (both with “internal” and “external” colleagues), which have been pointed out as important in previous research (see Kwakman, 2003, for a discussion of teachers’ learning activities at work). The variables are also in line with Wenger’s (1998: p. 114) distinction between local and global knowledge sources and the claim that knowing in practice involves an interaction between these sources.

The independent variables and items used in the analyses are of two types. One type comprises workplace characteristics, defined as control (measured as skill discretion and decision authority), demands and support (from colleagues and superiors). The other type comprises outcome of education and individual study strategy. Study strategy is an index with 7 items, all with the scale from 1 (disagree) to 7 (agree) (example of items: “I seek out teachers to clarify substantial problems I meet in my studies”. “I am present on campus only during classes”. Cronbach’s alpha, 0.60). The index thus describes the range from an exam-oriented “minimum student” to an extra-effort student who reads additional literature and approaches lecturers for more information. This index was specially designed for the survey and has also been used in other studies (Dæhlen & Havnes, 2005; Smey & Vågan, 2008). The students’ perceived outcome of their education is included as an additive index of 17 items. The students were asked to what extent they feel that their education has provided them with knowledge and skills in different areas on a five-point scale, ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much so) (examples of items: “My education has provided me with practical skills”. “My education has provided me with work-specific knowledge”. Cronbach’s alpha, 0.88). The measure is a Norwegian adaptation of the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) (see e.g. Zhao & Kuh, 2004: p. 10), measuring the generic outcomes of education.

The workplace variables were all Norwegian translations of the Karasek model and were taken from the core Job Content Questionnaire (JCQ) and the Quality of Employment Survey (QES) (Karasek et al., 1998). However, 1 item in the measure of skill discretion, 2 items in the measure of social support from supervisors, 2 items on the measure of social support from colleagues and the single item “education required by job” in the measure of skill utilization were not included. The exclusion of these items reduced the number of items from 27 to 21, and was done to limit the size of the questionnaire. This exclusion should be noted when comparing the results with previous research. The variables measured different aspects of control: skill discretion (example of item: “My work demands a high level of skills”. 5 items; Cronbach’s alpha, 0.65), and decision authority (example of item: “I can choose how to perform my work”. 3 items; Cronbach’s alpha, 0.67). Psychological job demands were measured with an index of 5 items (example of item: “My work demands that I work hard”. 5 items; Cronbach’s alpha, 0.71). Supervisor social support was measured with an index of 2 items (example of item: “My supervisor is helpful getting the work done”. Cronbach’s alpha, 0.88), and co-worker social support with 2 items (example of item: “My co-workers are personally interested in me”. Cronbach’s alpha, 0.68). A factor analysis on both groups supported a five-factor solution. One item, repetitive work, which in the original model was used (inverted) as a measure of skill discretion, also loaded together with hard work and fast work items in the measure of psychological job demands. When repetitive work was excluded from the factor analyses, Karasek’s initial model was reproduced, except that support from colleagues and support from supervisors were combined in one factor and that skill discretion was divided into two factors. However, this is very close to Karasek’s initial model, and, thus, the initial structure was kept to ensure comparability with previous research.

The reliability of the independent variables (as measured by Cronbach’s alpha) varied from 0.60 to 0.88. Different limits have been discussed for this kind of reliability measure (see e.g. Henson, 2001). All in all, the reliability measures indicated strong to medium internal consistency. However, the focus of the analyses was to reproduce the general model for workplace learning in previous research, and it was therefore important to use the same models as in previous research. Research investigating the factor structure and the consistency in the JDCS model already exists—but only for the strain hypothesis, not the learning hypothesis. Analysis of factor structure

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Principal components analysis with oblimin rotation (as it is assumed that the factors are correlated); minimum factor loading, 0.32 (10% of factor variance); Kaiser’s criterion used for extraction (eigenvalue > 1). Total explained variance, 60.5% (see e.g. Kim & Mueller, 1978, for an overview of criteria and discussion).
and consistency in the learning hypothesis should be developed more in future research.

Most of the independent variables were formed as statements with a scale from 1 (disagree) to 5 (agree). However, some of the variables were assigned response alternatives from 1 (disagree) to 4 (agree). Because this range is considered too restricted for the items to be used as independent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001), all indexes were made additive and were then included in the analyses as standardized variables (z scores). The respondents’ gender and age were included as demographic variables.

The mean scores (or percentages), standard deviation values, observed minimum-maximum scores, scale ranges, number of items and Cronbach’s alpha values for the independent variables used are presented in Table 1. Teachers reported more control in terms of skill discretion, had a less independent study strategy during education and were somewhat younger than physicians at graduation (the difference was equal to the 2-year longer medical education program). The results also revealed a higher percentage of female teachers than that of female physicians.

### 2.3. Data Analysis

An examination (involving the calculation of cross tables and chi-square values) of the learning activities that were most frequently used among teachers compared with physicians was carried out to determine the existence of any differences in learning activity characteristics between the two groups. The learning activities were then used as dependent variables, and the workplace characteristics were included as a first step in an ordinal logistic regression. The introduction of study strategies and outcome of education comprised the next step. Regression analysis is used to examine the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables, with the purpose of predicting the outcome. There are several types of regression analyses, which are appropriate for different types of dependent variables. Because the dependent variables were at an ordinal test level, ordinal logistic analysis (maximum likelihood) was performed to estimate the effect of the independent variables on the probability of performing each of these actions daily, weekly, occasionally or seldom. To ensure that the parallel regression assumption was not violated (i.e. the slope coefficients were identical across each regression, a precondition for using ordinal regression), a Wald test (Brant, 1990) was performed for all models and variables, revealing adequate test statistics (Long, 1997: pp. 140-145; Long & Freese, 2006: pp. 199-200). Tests were also performed for the product of the linear function (link test), but no indications of curvilinear relationships were found in the models. Potential improvement of the model was examined with a likelihood ratio (LR) test (i.e. whether the −2 log likelihood significantly improves from one model to another, chi-square distributed). All effects of the independent variables were compared for teachers and physicians with a t test for independent samples.

### Table 1. Mean, standard deviation, observed min-max score, scale, number of items and Cronbach’s alpha for independent variables.

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<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Physicians</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision authority</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill discretion</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>2.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Demands</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supervisor support</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Co-worker support</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>1.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Study strategy</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total outcome of education</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>8.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age at graduation, years</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>5.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>% women</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>59*</td>
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Note: *Significant difference in mean score between teachers and physicians, \( p < 0.05 \) (t test). **Significant difference in percentage of women/men, \( p < 0.05 \) (chi-square test).
2.4. Limitations and Validity

The data were from a Norwegian context, but most of the literature included was from international research contributions so as to position the research in an international context. The validity of the claims in the paper was nevertheless limited to the Norwegian context, or a similar context. References to Norwegian research were included to show similarities to, and differences from, the international context. Furthermore, the data used sheds light on the learning behaviour of teachers graduated from the previous general teacher education programme, not the current, divided teacher education program. It is possible that data examining students from the new teacher education program would yield different results. This is too early to establish using the same approach as in this paper, as the teacher education program have only recently started, and no students yet have graduated. Future panels of the StudData-survey can address this question.

The independent variables used in the JDCS model are well established. The validity of the independent variables covering study strategy and total outcome of education is less established. Although they are not especially designed for the purpose of this paper, they are indicative of what kind of individual learning variables (in addition to context variables) can be included in analyses of workplace learning.

Study strategy is considered an important outcome of education, but individual study strategy is also affected by academic and social climate. Studying is not only about studying and seeking knowledge but also about socializing (e.g. making friends and having fun). From this perspective, study strategy is only one of the intended outcomes of education. Later periods are about establishing a career, raising a family and finding time for interests that are not work related, but these activities also influence how one acts at work. Thus, a workplace model, no matter how elaborate, does not cover all relevant factors for explaining workplace learning. However, by trying to ground the variables used in previous research and theory, the aim is not to explain everything but rather to test theoretical assumptions in a specific tradition of research on teachers’ workplace learning. In this way, it is possible to build on previous research and provide a starting point for future analyses in a cumulative manner.

The research design of this project approaches teachers’ learning in the workplace as an action that individuals carry out so as to obtain information or knowledge necessary to perform their work. One limitation of this approach is that the operationalization does not explicitly take into account the kinds of situations from which the professionals themselves feel they are learning because this question is not asked. The approach also does not explicitly address questions concerning learning as an identity issue (see e.g. Anderson et al., 1996, for more on the situated learning perspective). In the present study, learning is not exclusively viewed as an individual cognitive phenomenon, which is often implicitly assumed in quantitative research. The approach to learning is not committed to one particular theoretical understanding of learning. The focus is on learning behavior at work as part of a collaborative work culture while acknowledging individual features.

3. Teachers’ and Physicians’ Learning Activities

In Table 2, teachers’ and physicians’ learning activities are presented as percentages within each activity and profession.

The percentage of physicians (68%) who reported that they sought advice from superiors or colleagues on a daily basis was more than twice that of teachers (32%). Although the difference diminished if the “weekly” percentage were included, the teachers still reported that they carried out this type of learning activity more rarely than the physicians (80% vs. 94%, respectively). In terms of consulting professionals outside work, the “daily” percentage was low for both teachers and physicians (1% and 4%, respectively). However, if the “weekly” percentage were included, physicians again were more active (33%) than teachers (4%). Teachers were also less active than physicians in finding information in scientific journals and books (13% vs. 26% on a daily basis, respectively). There were only small and insignificant differences between teachers and physicians in the use of the Internet. 19% of the teachers and 13% of the physicians report to use the internet on a daily basis. Overall, physicians seemed to be significantly more active knowledge seekers than teachers in terms of finding information in print sources, seeking advice from superiors and colleagues at work and consulting professionals outside work.

Workplace Characteristics and the Contribution of Professional Education

In Table 3, the likelihood of each of the different learning activities is analyzed by means of ordinal logistic regression. Step 1 is a model with only workplace variables; step 2 is a model that introduces variables from the
Table 2. Learning activities as percentage of responses within each profession.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning activity</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Monthly</th>
<th>Weekly</th>
<th>Daily</th>
<th>Total, %</th>
<th>n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seek advice from superiors or colleagues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physician</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2 = 93.56; p = 0.000$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consult professionals outside work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physician</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2 = 148.07; p = 0.000$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find information in scientific books or journals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physician</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2 = 97.42; p = 0.000$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find information on the Internet</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physician</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2 = 6.58; p = 0.086$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

year of graduation. This approach makes it possible to examine any improvement of the analyses from model 1 to model 2, using an LR test (the difference in log likelihood).

The description of the results is done for one dependent variable at the time. The two variables measuring control (decision authority and skill discretion) show no effect on teachers’ likelihood of seeking information from superiors or colleagues. Both have an effect for physicians when the study variables are not included, but the effect disappears in model 2. Neither supervisor support nor demands have any effect on the likelihood of teachers or physicians to seek information from superiors or colleagues for teachers. Co-worker support has a positive significant effect for the likelihood of seeking information from superiors or colleagues. For teachers, this effect disappears in model 2. The interaction terms between demands and the two control variables are not significant for either of the groups, and the same holds for gender and age. In terms of study strategy in the year of graduation and total outcome of education, independent and extra-effort medicine students (i.e. students who score high on the study strategy index) have a greater likelihood of seeking information from superiors and colleagues. For both teachers and physicians, the analyses improve significantly from model 1 to model 2, as indicated by the LR test.

In terms of the likelihood of finding information in scientific books or journals, the JDCS variables, the gender variable and the age variable do not have any significant effects. However, in model 2, study strategy has a positive effect for both groups, and perceived total outcome of education has a positive effect for physicians. There is a significant improvement from model 1 to model 2 for both physicians and teachers.

The likelihood of seeking information from professionals outside work increases for teachers who experience high decision authority in their work (i.e. have a high degree of technical autonomy). Physicians who experience a high degree of co-worker support are also more likely to seek information from professionals outside work. The interaction term between decision authority and demands has a significant negative effect for teachers in model 2, contrary to the assumptions in the JDCS model. Study strategy has a significant positive effect on the likelihood of seeking information from professionals outside work for teachers and physicians, and the analyses improve significantly from model 1 to model 2 for both groups.

The likelihood of seeking information on the Internet is increased when physicians have high decision authority; however, the effect disappears in model 2 when the study variables are included. For teachers who experience a high degree of supervisor support, the likelihood of seeking information on the Internet decreases, but this effect disappears in model 2. The older the teachers are at graduation, the less likely they are to seek information on the Internet, Female teachers and physicians also seem less likely to find information on the Internet,
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Superior or colleagues</th>
<th>Scientific books or journals</th>
<th>Professionals outside work</th>
<th>Internet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teach. Mod. 1</td>
<td>Teach. Mod. 2</td>
<td>Phys. Mod. 1</td>
<td>Phys. Mod. 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision authority</td>
<td>0.294</td>
<td>0.292</td>
<td>-0.976**</td>
<td>0.364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill discretion</td>
<td>-0.293</td>
<td>-0.339</td>
<td>1.032***</td>
<td>0.172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demands</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.217</td>
<td>0.445</td>
<td>1.561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor support</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>0.262</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>0.085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-worker support</td>
<td>0.279**</td>
<td>0.249</td>
<td>0.327**</td>
<td>0.664**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision authority’</td>
<td>-0.348</td>
<td>-0.353</td>
<td>0.429</td>
<td>-2.136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>demands</td>
<td>0.576</td>
<td>0.395</td>
<td>-1.224*</td>
<td>0.654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age at graduation</td>
<td>-0.004</td>
<td>-0.028</td>
<td>-0.016</td>
<td>-0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>0.279</td>
<td>0.198</td>
<td>0.353</td>
<td>0.269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study strategy</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.368*</td>
<td>0.472***</td>
<td>0.321*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcome of education</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>-0.065</td>
<td>0.184</td>
<td>0.341*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cut1</td>
<td>-2.502***</td>
<td>-3.107***</td>
<td>-5.039***</td>
<td>-4.702*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cut2</td>
<td>-1.598**</td>
<td>-2.332***</td>
<td>-3.907***</td>
<td>-3.531</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cut3</td>
<td>0.924</td>
<td>0.134</td>
<td>-1.176</td>
<td>-1.195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-2LL</td>
<td>958.542</td>
<td>648.144</td>
<td>674.432</td>
<td>244.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LR</td>
<td>310.398b</td>
<td>430.172b</td>
<td>172.034b</td>
<td>693.472b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: LR = likelihood ratio; Mod. = model; Phys. = physician; Teach. = teacher. 'Physicians' coefficient significant different from teachers' in corresponding model (p < 0.05); **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001.
although not in model 2 for teachers. An independent study strategy increases the likelihood of seeking information on the Internet for physicians. The analyses improve significantly from model 1 to model 2 for both groups.

The effects were compared for all independent variables (t test for independent samples). The variables included in model 1 for teachers were compared with the corresponding variables in model 1 for physicians. The same was done for model 2. Physicians differed from teachers on eight independent variables, only two of which are in model 2. This finding implies that when the study variables are included, there are fewer differences between the variables across the two professions than in the model that includes only workplace variables.

4. Discussion

The analyses confirm that the workplace characteristics included in model 1 in the regression analyses provide a limited explanation of teachers’ workplace learning. Some of the findings that are in line with the JDCS model are also easily explained: Those who find that they have supportive co-workers have a greater likelihood of using colleagues and superiors as sources for information. When the model is expanded to include study strategy and total outcome of education, the analyses significantly improve. Hypothesis 1 proposes that students who find that they have achieved a high educational outcome at the end of their studies (teacher or medical education) will be more active knowledge seekers at their later workplace. This hypothesis is only partially supported, as a significant effect of total outcome of education is found only among physicians in the likelihood of consulting professionals outside work. Hypothesis 2, which proposes that those students who have an active and independent study strategy during their education will be more active knowledge seekers in their later workplace, is in general supported. An active and independent study strategy increases the likelihood of consulting professionals outside work and finding information in books and journals for both groups, and finding information on the Internet and seeking advice from superiors and colleagues in the physician group. Including the contribution from professional education thus helps to develop and sensitize the models for workplace learning that have been used in previous research. The total outcome of education, however, seems to be less important than the study strategies used during education.

The importance of improving general models of workplace learning by including individual learning variables is discussed further in the following subsection titled “In Need of Improvement: General Models of Workplace Learning”. A comparison of teachers and physicians in the present study also shows significant differences in the use of various knowledge sources; in a subsequent subsection titled “The Differences between Teachers and Physicians”, it is further substantiated how these differences arise from differences in knowledge traditions and organization of the work. Because the model that is tested and analyzed in this paper has a specific origin, some epistemological issues are discussed in a subsequent subsection titled “Research on Learning at Work”.

4.1. In Need of Improvement: General Models of Workplace Learning

The specific workplace learning model used in the empirical analyses can be seen as an attempt to operationalize more general and comprehensive models such as Eraut’s (1994). At the same time, it replicates the JDCS model, which was developed by Karasek (1979) and Karasek and Theorell (1990) and used in previous research on teachers’ workplace learning. The hypothesis that workers with a high degree of control and high workplace demands have a workplace situation that promotes their learning receives only limited support and, thus, seems to be of limited use across the different work contexts and professions included here. The interaction between decision authority and demands actually has a negative effect on the likelihood of seeking advice from colleagues outside work. This finding is contrary to Karasek’s model.

Mikkelsen et al. (2005) referred to a common critique of the JDCS model when they argued that the scales measuring demands do not distinguish between qualitative and quantitative demands and that the model was made for a rather different working life than that faced by teachers and other professionals today. They mentioned, for instance, the introduction of information and communication technology (ICT) as a marked difference between then and now, which would hold true for both teachers and physicians. Furthermore, the differences between the effects of the individual variables might indicate that different mechanisms operate in different professions and, thus, different professional organizations. Thus, the validity of general models for learning and continuing professional development, such as the JDCS model, is ambiguous, or even dubious, and the implication is that studies of workplace learning must be more specific to each profession so as to grasp the important factors promoting professional learning. However, as previously discussed in the subsection titled “Limita-
tions and Validity”, the individual learning variables (i.e. study strategy and total outcome) are also generic in the analyses. Profession-specific variables should be developed further in future research. Gijbels et al. (2010) referred to common criticisms of the JDCS model when they described it as being inflexible, as focusing on the assumption that the workplace has a determining effect on individual behavior, and as ignoring individual characteristics in both handling stress and learning. Their finding that measures of self-directed learning orientation should be included in the model is supported by the finding of this paper that study strategy during education significantly contributes to workplace learning behavior. Because study strategy is viewed as an educational outcome in the present paper, the importance of elaborating the model goes beyond including individual characteristics. It is also necessary to strive to analyze education and work more in combination. The theoretical discussions of the relationship between education and work, referred to as, for example, theory and practice relations, are plentiful, but the empirical investigations of how these two arenas combine in professional preparation are few and far between.

Initial studies of the JDCS model also featured groups that all involved some type of manual labor with rather specific tasks to perform. In the literature on professions, researchers have often argued that a distinctive feature of a profession is the lack of concrete rules and guidelines for action. The use of discretion with a foundation in professional knowledge is what characterizes the work of both teachers and physicians. Abbott (1988) referred to this as the sequence of diagnosis, inference and treatment. The tasks to be performed are not predefined and must be continually interpreted. In recent years, this opportunity for discretionary decision making has been described by many researchers as being reduced or threatened by the introduction of new control routines and a push for evidence-based practice and standardization in teaching and other professions (see e.g. Aili et al., 2007, for a discussion on this topic). However, a teacher’s workday is still varied (i.e. a teacher performs a variety of tasks during a workday), and this lack of predictability in the work situation is quite different from many of the occupations examined by Karasek (Karasek & Theorell, 1990).

4.2. The Differences between Teachers and Physicians

The present study proposes that physicians are more active than teachers in finding information in scientific books or journals in their daily professional practice (hypothesis 3) and that colleagues are more important for physicians’ workplace learning than for teachers’ workplace learning (hypothesis 4). The results of the analyses support both of these hypotheses. In addition, this study proposes that teachers less frequently contact colleagues outside the workplace than do physicians (hypothesis 5). This hypothesis is also supported, thus suggesting that there are specific characteristics of teaching that make workplace learning difficult. This situation was assumed to make teachers more active in using the Internet for finding information (hypothesis 6), but this hypothesis is not supported because the differences between the groups are small in this matter.

All in all, teachers are far less active in seeking knowledge than physicians. One might argue that this behavior is an obvious result of the differences in work situations and work characteristics between the two professions; that is, physicians may have to find information in scientific books and journals to diagnose their patients, whereas teachers do not face this situation, at least not with the same need for precision. However, this argument cannot explain equally well the rather low number of teachers who report that they interact with their colleagues on a daily basis or the low number of teachers, compared with physicians, who consult professionals outside their work. None of the independent variables has any effect on the likelihood of teachers seeking advice from superiors or colleagues. This finding could be interpreted as a result of the “persistence of privacy” in teaching (Little, 1990), a privacy induced by the way school work is organized.

Several causes for teacher individualism have been identified in previous research. Hargreaves, A. (2000: p. 161) summarized some of these causes as follows:

1) The egg-crate school structure divides teachers from one another.

2) The deep-rootedness of teachers’ habits and routines makes it easier to build on the existing grammar of schooling, which they have known for decades, than to change to more collaborative forms.

3) When faced with unwanted innovations and accelerated educational reform, teachers have a tendency to minimize and economize effort.

4) Self-doubt about competence makes opening up to colleagues threatening because it would mean exposing one’s own flaws and shortcomings.

5) The development of strong emotional bonds with students from whom teachers receive their psychic rewards makes teachers reluctant to share “their” students with other teachers.
More and more tasks have also been put on teachers’ shoulders such as maintaining contact with parents and reporting and documenting work and assessments, thus making it hard for teachers to find the time necessary for building collegial relationships.

In this “emerging age of the collegial professional”, emphasis is being placed on the building of “strong professional cultures of collaboration” (Hargreaves, A., 2000: p. 165). Although a great deal has been done to promote teacher collaboration in schools, international research (Hargreaves, A., 1994; Little, 1990; OECD, 2009) and Norwegian research (Vibe et al., 2009) have found that the more binding forms of collaboration are rare among teachers, despite the emphasis placed on them in school reforms. Teaching in teams and coordinating homework between subjects are activities that, respectively, 50% and 25% of teachers do weekly, but more binding forms of collaboration (developing teaching material together, observing each other’s teaching practices and giving feedback, participating in joint professional development activities) are less common (Vibe et al., 2009: p. 103). The findings of the present study indicate that colleagues represent a more important source for knowledge among physicians than among teachers.

A comparison of teachers and physicians presented in this paper shows that models predicting workplace learning are improved when individual learning variables, such as study strategies, are included. The improvement can be found in medicine, with a strong knowledge tradition, and in teaching, with a weak knowledge tradition. The comparative framework thus indicates that the initial model for workplace learning is weak in both groups, where differences exist not only in the knowledge traditions but also in the organization of the work.

4.3. Research on Learning at Work

Another important question is whether the approach to teacher learning used in the present study and in previous research is theoretically coherent. The epistemological or theoretical starting point is relevant when reviewing previous studies on workplace learning, such as Eraut’s (1994, 2007) work or the JDCS model. Relating back to the two metaphors of learning as acquisition or learning as participation put forth by Sfard (1998), it seems fair to say that the JDCS model emphasizes the acquisition metaphor. Learning is described as “incremental additions to competence” (Karasek & Theorell, 1990: p. 92) as a result of external factors; learning occurs in situations that are demanding but have a good range of latitude in decision making. Mastering these demanding situations provides motivation for taking on new challenging tasks and seeking new knowledge and learning opportunities. Karasek (Karasek & Theorell, 1990) would probably not agree with an understanding of learning as participation. However, previous research examining the learning hypothesis in the JDCS model, as well as research on teachers, has given primacy to an operationalization of learning that best fits the metaphor of learning as participation. Thus, a discrepancy seems to exist between Karasek’s initial understanding of learning and the understanding of learning in the research examining his learning hypothesis. Incremental additions in competence have not been examined, but social behavior in complex organizations has been the research subject. Future research should continue to discuss how epistemological views correspond to methodological procedures.

Future research on teachers’ workplace learning should also endeavor to enhance the models by using better and more profession-specific analytical categories. Greater effort should be put into the operationalization of these categories so as to make them more reflective of a modern working life. Furthermore, approaches and perspectives that allow for individual trajectories across different arenas of professional development with different methodological approaches should be sought. The longitudinal survey approach taken in the present study contributes to mapping and directing the field of future research. However, in-depth studies using different methodologies will surely improve and sharpen the perspectives suggested here.

Fox et al. (2011) showed that beginning teachers’ learning experiences may reach beyond the local workplace and include not only personal but also professional networks. In the present study, this way of seeing professional development is addressed only partially, with the inclusion of the question of whether teachers and physicians seek information from professionals outside the workplace and on the Internet. However, because the differences between teachers and physicians are substantial in this regard, researchers should strive to view workplace learning as something more than learning that happens in the workplace and to include learning outside the workplace that is relevant to work.

5. Conclusion

The primary finding of this study is that the inclusion of individual learning variables, such as the contribution from professional education, in research on teachers’ workplace learning substantially improves the models used
in research emphasizing the balance among control, demands and support at work. Furthermore, the comparison of teachers with physicians supports the idea that because of the differences among professions, the general models often used are inaccurate and insufficient but are nevertheless substantially improved by including individual learning variables. With regard to research on teachers’ workplace learning, a greater effort should be made in future research to include the contribution from professional education and to take into account the idiosyncrasies of teaching as a profession with specific characteristics regarding knowledge and work organization. The scope of future research on workplace learning should be widened by combining methods and approaches of different understandings of workplace learning and by investigating further how teacher education relates to teachers’ workplace learning.

References


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Creativity in Gifted Education: Contributions from Vygotsky and Piaget

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Abstract

This research aims to highlight the importance of developing creativity in the school environment by promoting quality education for gifted students, with contributions from Vygotsky and Piaget. For Vygotsky creativity is inherent in the human condition, and it is the most important activity because it is the expression of consciousness, thought and language. It is the highest expression of subjectivity (Vygotsky, 2010). According to Piagetian theory, Stoltz (2013) points out that although the source of creativity is a mystery to Piaget, it manifests itself doubly: in the construction of knowledge structures and construction of real or structure and cognitive functioning. The method of this research is a bibliographic study of the area of high ability/giftedness, the cultural-historical theory of Vygotsky and Piaget’s genetic epistemology. We conclude that for Vygotsky (2008) as well as for Piaget (1968) the environment has essential importance to the development of creative potential. In the environment the child has his/her experiences that stimulate curiosity, desire to learn, fantasy and imagination. The teacher should enable gifted students to share their high abilities with their couple performing challenging activities in a stimulating and responsive environment.

Keywords

Gifted Students, High Ability

1. Introduction

This study aims to highlight the importance of developing creativity in the school environment by promoting quality education for gifted students, with contributions from Vygotsky and Piaget. Recent studies using different methods and theoretical approaches have indicated that gifted and high ability people are extremely creative
(Alencar, 2001, 2007; Peterson, 2003; Renzulli, 2004; Pérez, 2004; Piske, 2011, 2013; Piske & Stoltz, 2012, 2013; Prieto, Soto, & Fernandez, 2013; Piske, Stoltz, & Machado, 2014a, among others). On the other hand, the literature has indicated that schools have difficulty in working to develop this characteristic (Winner, 1998; Alencar, 2001, 2007, 2009, 2011; Piske & Stoltz, 2013; Piske, Stoltz, & Machado, 2014b, among others). In the view of these authors, schools have shown themselves to be monotonous, using repetitive activities requiring reproduction of knowledge rather than the production of new knowledge. A widespread lack of preparation can be seen among teachers towards developing creativity at school. Development of creativity is essential, especially in a globalized world in which information is available everywhere, and schools urgently need to keep pace with this if they are not to lose their raison d’être.

What do Piaget and Vygotsky have to offer to the discussion in question? Both express the ideational movement of their time, of the modern age, at the same time going beyond their time. The intention is to understand creativity based on these two great theoretical authors, as well as the possibilities, based on these theories, for the education of high ability/gifted people. The theoretical discussion proposed in this study involves the area of high ability/giftedness, Vygotsky’s cultural-historical theory and Piaget’s genetic epistemology and psychology. This is justified based on the understanding that creativity should be the driving force of educational efforts, which in turn implies greater integration of art and its different manifestations in schools (Stoltz & Weger, 2012; Marjanovic-Shane, Connery, & John-Steiner, 2010).

2. Educating for Autonomy as Educating for Creativity in Piaget

Despite Piaget strongly expressing that he did not have a fixed opinion about Pedagogy, the problem of education interested him intensely. Aware of the impossibility of the direct transposition between the data of his Genetic Epistemology and Psychology and education, he calls on pedagogues to develop and adjust techniques for a proposed form of active teaching. Piaget’s proposal aims to offer a series of devices for child experimentation and invention. Children would be guided through this process. In the words of Piaget,

Education, seen from the current viewpoint, consists of attempting to transform children into the kind of adults existing in the society to which they belong. (...) Whereas for me education consists of producing creators, even if there are not many, even if the creations of one are limited in relation to those of the other. But the need exists to produce nonconformist inventors, innovators. (...) In different degrees, of course: but there is always a domain in which it can exist (Piaget in Bringuier, 1978: p. 183)... the great mistake made by some, was to go ahead with formalization before the time was right, with school students who, in no way whatsoever, had a method to assimilate (Piaget in Bringuier: p. 180).

Contribute to the development of creators: that is the translation of education into the development of autonomy in Piaget. Although the origin of creativity remains a mystery for Piaget, or the origin of talent, the most mysterious secret, Piaget understands cognitive development to be an essentially creative process. This form of understanding does not deny reality, but rather indicates that the problem of knowledge lies in the manner in which a person reconstructs reality. “Reality needs to be known, of course, but it needs to be reduced, through deduction and endogenous construction” (Piaget in Bringuier: p. 155). In this interactive and constructive process between the body and the environment, a new organ is created (cognitive structures) which regulates the exchanges between the body and the environment (Piaget, 2003). In order to be built, cognitive structures depend on coordination between the following factors: organic maturation, as a condition of that which the body is capable of; experience with physical objects; social experience and the self-regulating balancing process which coordinates the remaining factors (Piaget, 1936, 1937, 1964; Piaget & Inhelder, 2003).

When Piaget sees the need to pay special attention to spontaneous development, he is not referring to that which is a product of empty verbalism, but to the coordination of social experience, physical experience and maturation through the organismic self-regulating equilibrium process, which is essentially creative but not voluntary. Here we have an impasse: the aim of education is the development of autonomy, which in turn requires its own determination of the routes of its formation (Piaget, 2000).

However, the result of a person’s creations depends, in the final analysis, on the equilibrium process, which is not voluntary. There are, therefore, internal limits in relation to that which is built autonomously through interaction with the environment. Grasps of consciousness, as conceptual reconstitutions of what occurred in actions, represent the very domain of autonomy and creation in Piaget (1974a, 1974b). It represents an autonomous
self-regulated process. In actions, understanding is concentrated on the object and not on the mechanisms that made it possible to reach it, whereas grasp of consciousness involves interpretation and explanation of actions. Where is creativity here? It is in the manner in which a person rebuilds their actions, or in the production of more powerful logical structures “that permit the individual to act upon the world in more flexible and complex ways” (Gruber & Vonèche, 1995: p. xxxix).

Piaget notes that autonomy of thought is only possible with effect from the formal operatory stage. With regard to cognitive structures based on rational logic and which imply new ideas, small children work with very limited possibilities and needs; whereas adolescents can see infinite possibilities which require necessary integrations. Nevertheless, Piaget notes that the period in which human cognition is most created, in terms of rapidness and fecundity, is between birth and eighteen months, prior to language, and takes the form of intelligence in action (Vonèche & Stoltz, 2007). Later, everything will be rebuilt on the level of thought and representation on the conceptual plane. For example, on the plane of representation, symbolic play’s own imagination allows imaginary situations to be invented and which have unconscious affective impulses. In symbolic play, the peak of childhood play, creations are the result of reality’s submission to the needs of self (Piaget, 1978).

Piaget states that finding new ideas depends, first of all, on not reading anything about the subject and letting all ideas flow, however absurd they may appear. Following this, it depends on reading everything about the subject and having a target for exercising critique (“Tête de Turc”) (Bringuier, 1978). Creative imagination can thus be perceived to be at the origin of novelities, but that in order for it to advance, it has to be integrated into rational logical thought. In the construction of the new, creative imagination and rationale maintain a relationship of interdependence in cognitive development and are related to openings (possible) and closings (necessary) (Stoltz & Parrat-Dayan, 2012; Stoltz, 2013).

Affectivity is the driving force of action in Piaget and, with the development of rational logic, moves from undifferentiation to differentiation and later integration of different points of view. A similar movement can be seen in relation to morality which, starting from anomy, goes on to heteronomy and then to autonomy, although this is never completely achieved, which is expressed in ideal or supra-individual values. Piaget sees the creative process of construction in all these dimensions of the human being. Like the physicist Niels Bohr, it is Piaget’s understanding that we are tied and that we start from the description we give to the universe, which is relative to that to which we have access and which through our human and biological constitution we are able to assimilate. This is equivalent to recognizing our position in that which we do. On the other hand, this position puts us in the situation of creators. In this case, the description of human creativity, in Piaget, takes into consideration the agreement between mathematics and reality.

For me, mathematics is in nature—nature including human reason—and the latter, elaborating mathematics with a body and a nervous system, with all the body that is peculiar to it, which forms part of physical nature, in such a way that there is an agreement between mathematics and reality, through the body, and not through physical experience supported by objects (Piaget in Bringuier, 1978: p. 151).

Thus creativity is essentially found imbedded in the precisely human construction of cognition via interaction with the world. Cognition is neither a copy of reality, nor the result of genetic preformism. In this process, construction of intelligence and construction of reality represent the two poles of a single creating unit that structures the universe. People create their structures and reality based on interactive exchanges with the environment and, in this way, get increasingly closer to reality. In this sense, for Piaget, to invent is also to circulate between disciplines. In this way, Piaget indicates the interdisciplinary character of the innovations he dedicated himself to studying: scientific creations. These are basically explained by Piaget’s interaction, construction and logical determinism.

3. Creative Education for the Production of Meaning in Vygotsky

Differently to Piaget, throughout his entire life Vygotsky had personal and scientific interest in the domains of literature, theatre, art and literary criticism. According to Van der Veer and Valsiner (2009), this is the social and personal context related to Vygotsky having turned to Psychology, after 1922. Undoubtedly his “live experience” with the domain of art contributed to art being integrated into scientific actions and into his proposal for education. Vygotsky understands imagination and creativity as being intrinsically related to the development of the superior psychological functions proper to mankind.
Human imagination is seen as a new formation which has become historically viable, forming part of the system of superior psychological functions. It is considered by Vigotski to be a “more complex form of psychic activity”, as “the union of various functions in their peculiar relationships” (Obras escogidas, v. II), and is intrinsically linked to the human capacity of planning and achieving. It is in this sense that Vigotski emphasizes that imagination needs to be completed, i.e., accomplished through an artifact, a word, a work of art; it needs to take on shape, to become a product capable of integrating, in an objective manner, collective production (Smolka in Vigotsky, 2009: p. 30).

According to Vygotsky’s cultural-historical theory, creativity is inherent to the human condition, and it is the most important activity because it is the expression of consciousness, thought and language. This aspect of creativity as an inherent factor of the human condition needs to be understood in its socio-historical dimension. In other words, from Vygotsky’s point of view all psychic activity occurs in the mediation with the social history of human beings. It is this mediation that contributes to aspects such as creativity, subjectivity and the psychic world itself being immanent and inherent to that which is human, revealing all its historical and social potentiality. Creativity is the highest expression of subjectivity (Vygotsky, 2010). Piske (2013) emphasizes that according to Vygotsky creativity can be understood as an innovate psychic process a child develops through its interactions with other subjects in a given social and cultural context. “In focusing on children and adolescents, Vygotsky highlighted the developmental processes that lead to the construction of the new. Play, fantasy, conceptual understanding, and creative imagination are all imbedded in the cultural and social processes that make human life possible” (John-Steiner et al., 2010: p. 14).

According to Vygotsky (2008), a child’s imagination develops very early and it is fundamental to nurture this ability because childhood development depends on it. The origin of generalizing thought lies in the imagination. “The creative activity of the imagination is directly related to the richness and diversity of the experiences lived by the subject, because they offer the material for fantasy. This is not necessarily direct experience with the object; hearing accounts of facts experienced by other people, descriptions of objects seen by other eyes or listening to stories of distant cultures are also rich material for building ideas” (Oliveira & Stoltz, 2010: p. 83).

For Vygotsky (1994, 1996), the development of thought is related to the integration between concrete and abstract. Starting with imagination in games and children’s toys, which inverts action, so that meaning determines action, Vygotsky argues that childhood games later become an adolescent’s fantasy. Visual thinking, which is very important in the development of the intellect, ceases when concepts are formed, but its function continues in the realm of fantasy, where it plays an important role. Visual thinking undergoes important transformations under the influence of concepts, which cannot be excluded from the activity of imagination. It is precisely the intellect and the imagination coming closer to each other that distinguishes the adolescent age. It is in adolescence that thinking aided by metaphors becomes possible. “The movement from the concrete through the abstract to the construction of a new form of a concrete image, is the path which describes imagination in the adolescent age” (Vygotsky, 1994: p. 283).

Fantasy is exemplified by Vygotsky as the creative nature of concrete expression in the construction of a new image. Its high point is the achievement of a concrete form, but this can only be obtained with the help of abstraction. “An adolescent’s fantasy moves from the concrete visual image through a concept to an imaginary image” (p. 283). It is through fantasy, one of the manifestations of mankind’s creative activity, that adolescents find an effective means of finding a direction for their emotional life and dealing with it. Adolescents find in fantasy a means expressing their rich emotional life and their impulses. The unexpressed parts of adolescents’ lives are expressed in creative images.

And now, whilst subjecting imagination to an analysis, we are, once again, able to see how these new forms of behaviour, which have their origins during the time of puberty and the yearnings which are bound up with it, begin to serve the adolescent’s emotional strivings, how the adolescent’s emotional and intellectual aspects of behaviour achieve their synthesis in his creative imagination, and how longings and thinking become combined in a complicated new way, in the activity connected with the creative imagination (Vygotsky, 1994: p. 286).

Vygotsky notes that all inventors, even geniuses, are always the result of their time and milieu. Their creativity originates from needs that were created before they were and rests upon possibilities that exist in the social and cultural environment (Stoltz & Piske, 2012). This indicates the social origin of development. The internali-
zation of shapes mediated by signs constitutes the essential character of superior psychological functions (Vygotsky, 2000). Internalization, as the passage from inter psychic processes to intrapsychic processes, constitutes the essential human data. The passage is accompanied by the production of meanings, fruit of individual activity based on socially shared meanings and involving emotional experience. Creativity lies in this negotiation with culture and production of meaning. Consciousness and subjectivity, as well as the development of concepts are the result of the process of internalization, culminating in live emotional experience which depends on creativity (Stoltz, 2010). In this sense, education, by creating zones of proximal development in a process of relationships, spans the social and the individual, context and experience, enabling new creative syntheses (Stoltz & Piske, 2012). As such, the new psychological functions need the support of the context, beyond intellectualism (Vygotsky, 1994: p. 274), for the negotiation of meanings and the production of senses.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, both for Vygotsky and for Piaget the environment is of fundamental importance for the development of creative potential. For one of them, Piaget, the importance of the environment is expressed in the interactions that enable the processes of thinking and intelligence to be built. For the other, Vygotsky, the environment appears as a condition that enables social influences to be revealed and contributes to the historical construction of the subjective aspects. As such, it could be said that in Piaget creativity is emphasized in the cognitive aspects, while in Vygotsky creativity can be perceived in the variations in historical and social contexts and this, in turn, shows the potential of changes and adaptations present in the processes of human creation and innovation. In the environment a person has experiences and takes on new instruments which provoke curiosity, the desire to learn, and awaken fantasy and the imagination.

This is why it is important for teachers, as the main mediators in schools, to work with emotion and knowledge and to enable gifted students to share their high abilities with their peers, undertaking activities that are both challenging and also develop sensitivity, within a stimulating environment that responds to their special educational needs, which are not only intellectual but also affective and social.

The debate between Piaget and Vygotsky regarding creativity is highly productive given that it brings essential elements for the challenges of current day education, which needs to go beyond its intellectualist nature and integrate scientific creations with artistic creations. This is equivalent to developing sensitive rationale, where cognition and affectivity are integrated and “live emotional experiences” can come to the fore and enable, along with the development of individual consciousness, greater sensitivity regarding serious social and environmental problems. In the words of Vygotsky (1999), art can integrate affectivity and cognition, providing equilibrium between body and environment. There is much to be done in this sense in education.

References


Language as an Instrument of Socialization and a Representation of National Linguistic Personality

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Abstract

Language, as an instrument of socialization, reveals the most important aspects of the relationship between individuals and society, while national linguistic personality reflects the characteristics of national culture and attitude. To understand a certain national personality, one must express its cultural values and specific attributes on the basis of these aforementioned aspects. In this regard, this paper examines the ideological and cultural core of the Russian and Kazakh people by focusing on certain cultural, symbolic, and stereotypical features. Comparative analysis of the Kazakh and Russian linguistic personalities shows that fundamental reforms in ideological, political, and social spheres have transformed the national linguistic personalities of both these regions.

Keywords

Socialization, National Linguistic Personality, Cultural Concepts, Lingua-Cultural Description, National Character

1. Introduction

The process of obtaining knowledge is based on an individual’s need to expand certain aspects such as spiritual orientation, socialization, and national personality. In this regard, language acts as an instrument of socialization that increases the acquisition of knowledge and advocates an anthropocentric approach to national linguistic

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personality. However, the following four definitions regarding the role of knowledge have created certain issues in the course of socialization and national linguistic personality: 1) Knowledge is fundamental to an individual’s development, and all of the consequences to a certain extent are caused by knowledge. 2) The process of an individual’s socialization can be considered as mastering the system of knowledge, thus raising his/her status in society. 3) The primary means of developing, maintaining, and providing knowledge is through language. 4) Finally, knowledge can be regarded as mastering the compulsory language that enables one to adequately interact with others from around the world.

In terms of modern linguistics, linguistic personality is one of the most important aspects that allow an individual to interact with others in society. The term “linguistic personality” was used for the first time by Vinogradov in the book “About Art Prose” (1930) in which his idea of language assumed that a person with linguistic intelligence possesses an inherent gift for words (Vinogradov, 1930). Meanwhile, von Humboldt considered that language is the indicator of both people and a nation’s spirit, and linguistic personality is a representative of Homo sapiens and a concrete nation (Humboldt, 1984). Furthermore, Shakhmatov stated that “language differentiates human beings from other living things…” (Shakhmatov, 1936) and Karaulov distinguished three levels of linguistic personality: verbal and semantic, cognitive, and motivational (Karaulov, 1987).

In general, the term “linguistic personality” in linguistic literature has been interpreted as follows:

- “A person proving himself in speech activity, possessing a set of knowledge and ideas” (Krasnykh, 2000).
- A generalized image as a bearer of cultural and language, communicative and activity values, knowledge, installations and behavioral reactions (Karasik, 2004).
- A person having the ability to create and perceive texts, which differ in: “1) degree of structural and language complexity; 2) profundy and accuracy of reality reflection; 3) certain target orientation” (Karaulov, 1987).

National linguistic personality is a multicomponent concept that includes an individual’s psychophysical properties, verbal behavior features, and communicative abilities. According to Vorobyev, when studying national linguistic personality, it is necessary to consider three overall aspects: 1) spirituality (moral and ethical); 2) material and cultural “context” in its lingua-cultural comprehension (communication with others); and 3) historical development of integrity and invariancy (Vorobev, 2008). Karaulov stated that there was the “necessity for an integrated approach to its analysis, an opportunity for and need of revealing not only its psychological features but also philosophical and world outlook preconditions, ethno-national features, social characteristics, and historical and cultural sources” (Karaulov, 1989).

When mastering the mother tongue, there is a gradual but intensive transformation of genetic language (the basic rules of genetic texts) into an individualized version of a certain ethnic language. Thus, one of the most important aspects of linguistic personality is defining the typical national markers. In our opinion, when forming the list of national markers, it is necessary to begin by focusing on the various stereotypes of national character. For example, such characteristics for Russians include bold, Russian soul, unpredictability, and carelessness, while Kazakhs are represented by hospitality, outspokenness, tolerance, fighting spirit, and leaning toward family relations. Revealing these features of the Russian and Kazakh people supports the following:

- Peaceful co-existence of representatives of different cultures (knowledge leads to comprehension).
- Adequate interpretation of works of art written in the Russian and Kazakh languages.
- Polycultural dialog.
- Maintenance of respect for national traditions and customs.

The aforementioned representation of the Russian national personality is an example of a complex, lingua-cultural description of national personality offered by Vorobyov in his work “Linguaculturology” (2008). The core and group paradigmatic and syntagmatic attitudes of Russian linguistic words represent national and cultural characteristics as well as basic symbols of Russian culture (Vorobev, 2008).

Regarding the Kazakh linguistic personality, there are numerous works in which various concepts in the Russian and Kazakh languages (Dosimova, 2008; Ananina, 2006) as well as bilingualism of Russian-Kazakh art (Kazhigaliyeva, 2001; Girutsky, 2007; Chasanov, 1990; Chenki, 1996; Chafe, 1994) have been compared. However, no lingua-cultural research on the Kazakh linguistic personality exists. Therefore, this study examines the Kazakh linguistic personality and focuses on its pertinent ideological and cultural aspects (Zamilova, 2013; Hachmfova & Makerova, 2010).
2. Materials and Methods

Based on our principal component analysis, lingua-cultural method, and associative experiment, we defined the Kazakh national personality after comparing the features of the Russian and Kazakh linguistic personalities. Component analysis was employed to identify the semantic structure of the considered concepts while the lingua-cultural method helped define the cultural differences and ideological aspects found in the Kazakh and Russian linguistic personalities. Furthermore, through the associative experiment, which is widely utilized in psycholinguistics, basic linguistic words representing national, cultural, and peripheral components of the language group were defined. Finally, conceptual analysis enabled revealing the lingua-cultural concepts of the Russian and Kazakh linguistic personalities and comparing them with national and cultural connotations.

3. Results and Discussion

Table 1 presents the two lingua-cultural groups for comparison: the “Russian linguistic personality” based on Vorobyov and our “Kazakh linguistic personality”. By examining these lingua-cultural groups, one can determine their paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations.

According to Table 1, linguistic words such as *dzhigit* in the “Kazakh linguistic personality” are associated with the following concepts: love of freedom, bravery, strength, courage, dexterity, horse, nobility, honor, and art. In syntagma, the relations are presented by proverbs:

- *Dzhigit* is a well-known name.
- *Dzhigit* is known as trouble in horse racing.
- A long and difficult journey: a test of *Dzhigit*.
- *Dzhigit* is better to die than to promise twice.
- *Dzhigit* is a word told to protect people.
- *Dzhigit* never promises in vain and never goes back on his word.
- The real *Dzhigit* is recognized even in a shepherd’s cloak.
- *Dzhigit* is a mirror of his people.
- A lion will be conquered by the *Dzhigit* with a lion’s heart.
- *Dzhigit* must be a burning fire, if not, he is not a *Dzhigit*.

*Dzhigit*, a linguaculturema (a linguistic word that represents a national or cultural peculiarity), is closely connected with the concept of honor (*намыс*). In the Kazakh and Russian linguistic personalities, this concept is extremely valued. A loss of honor (dishonor) in both Russian and Kazakh cultures is worse than death, which is confirmed by the following proverbs:

Russian proverbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Russian linguistic personality</th>
<th>Kazakh linguistic personality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Russian man, Russian woman, great Russians</td>
<td>Kazakh man, Kazakh woman, nomad</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gist**

- material culture: Kazakh ornament, *yurt*, felt, Kazakh meat, *koumiss*, *chapan*, *dombra*, *shubat*, *kobyz*, etc.

**Center**

- Slavic language, Slavic studies, bolshevik, bolshevism, soviet, muscovite, a native of the Volga region.

**Periphery (classes of linguistic words meaning national, cultural peculiarities, being crossed with closely related groups)**

- Turkic language, turkology, *Alash-orda*, *almuatinets* (resident of Almaty city), *astanchinin* (resident of Astana city), *kazakhstanets* (citizen of Kazakhstan), virgin land.
-The head is perished for honor, honor is preserved by the head.
-Take away my good name, and take away my life.
-A bad wound is cured, not a bad name.
-Honor is appreciated not by words but by awards.
-A good name is better than riches.
-Dishonor is worse than death.
-Give a whipping but don’t deprive honor.
-Death is not as terrible as shame.

Kazakh proverbs:
-Ерді намыс өлтірер, қоянды қамыс өлтірер (Pride apes humility).
-Ер жігітке өлімнен ұят күшті (For Dzhigit, disgrace is worse than death).
-Әлімнен ұят күшті (Shame is greater than death).

In regard to honor and pride, the following Kazakh paremiyas (set expressions) show how Dzhigit is representative of the peoples’ conscience and overall pride:
• Жігіттің құны жұз жылқы, ары мың жылқы. (Dzhigit is worth one hundred horses, so the value of his honor is one thousand horses).
• Ел намысы, ер намысы. (The honor of the people is the honor of Dzhigit).
• Ер жігіт елінің ұлы, намысының құлы. (Dzhigit is the son of his people and the slave of his conscience).
• Атты қамшы айдайды, ерді намыс айдайды. (A horse is lashed with a whip while Dzhigit is lashed with his honor).
• Жақсы аттың жалын сақтағанша, жақсы жігіттің арын сақта. (It’s better to take care of Dzhigit’s honor than a racer’s strength).

The spiritual value of honor and pride for both the Russian and Kazakh people can also be found in following excerpts from literature:

Be reasonable, strengthen the spirit in fight.
Only the ungifted obeys destiny... (Abay)
Respect for the poet is honor for the people.
Poetry enriches life as it is.
Let akinak (iron sword) pierce the chest,
Ennoble your soul while praising to the skies. (Shakarim)
Hide, the clay city!... Die, my mother!...
Grandfather, end the long life, don’t torment, while you are honest, fly in the sky with an arrow.
Wives, wives, throw your children from the wall!
Drink poison! Have a shower bath with boiling pitch! (Suleymenov)
A poet died!—the slave of honor—
He fell slandered by a rumor,
With lead in his chest and a thirst for revenge,
Having hung the proud head! (Lermontov)
Oh, God, alleviate our grief,
Far from anger, pain and revenge,
And tears—silent early morning dew—
for him, murdered in the field of honor.
Is the candle lit by you thawing?
Accept what is there on earth and as to the bride,
Open your lightened fields
To the murdered soul in the field of honor. (Gippius)
One cannot have honor hundred times.
It is alone. And after defeat
You cannot patch it like a jacket,
Or take it to dry—cleaning on Sunday! (Asadov)
The next linguaculturema, Kazakh hospitality, is seen in words such as төр (place of honor), dastarkhan, meat, lamb, ram, head, guest, Kazakh meat, koumiss, bata (blessing), and chapan as well as the following Kazakh proverbs:

-A house where there are no guests is similar to a grave.
-One can say “come in” to a guest, but it is impossible to say “go away”.
-When a guest arrives, the meat should be cooked. If there is no meat, then the host burns with shame.
-The threshold is not a place for the guest of honor.

Kazakh hospitality is also seen in the following expressions:

At mingizin shapan zhabu—An honored guest or respected person is presented with a horse and a shapan. This custom still exists today.

Bata—This blessing, in the form of laconic poetry, is given by elders (aksakals) before a long and arduous journey.

Bel koterer—A custom in which elderly people are regaled with delicious fare made of kasy, butter, zhent, koumiss, cottage cheese, honey, etc. It is usually prepared by children, neighbors, and relatives in respect of their elders.

Erulik—A tradition in which new settlers are presented with certain necessities by their neighbors as an act of kindness and hospitality.

Konakasy (konak (guest); asy (regale))—The act of welcoming a guest with honor by regaling him/her with tasty treats. For Kazakhs, guests are divided into three overall types: arnavy konak (a specially invited guest); kudavy konak (a casual traveler); and kydyrma konak (an unexpected guest). When a person did not give konakasy, he/she was fined (the penalty was usually a horse, camel, or some other livestock).

Konak kade (konak (guest); kade (a gift))—A custom in which a host asks the guest to make konak kade, that is to sing a song, recite a poem, etc. Since early times, Kazakhs have taught their children to play musical instruments, sing, compose verses, etc. Konak kade is both a test of a guest’s talents as a well as a pledge of enjoying a cheerful feast.

Dastarkhan, another linguaculturema, includes an important symbolic value. It not only reflects Kazakh hospitality but also the essence of showing respect to the guest by presenting certain talents (musical, poetic, etc.). This can be seen in the following proverbs:

Ас-адамның арқауы: (Food always gives strength to people).
Дәм тартқан қүдығына түкірме: (Never spit in the same well of which you sometimes drink).
Асы бар аяқтан аттама: (Don’t step over a dish with food. Show respect to the person who prepared it).
Ем-емке, сорна-бөmekе: (Everything is done in its season).
Әкесі тірі адам төрге шықпайды, бас ұстамайды: (The person whose father is alive does not sit in the seat of honor and participate in the carving of the ritual dish).

In regard to Russian linguaculturema, syntagmatic relations are expressed through the following Russian proverbs and sayings:

-Practice makes perfect.
-If spruce and pine are the same firewood, then fritters and pancakes are the same food.
-A drink is shorter than a tale.
-Time is required to cook pancakes.
-As dough rises, a pie is baked; as a pie is baked, a pancake is made; if the pancake is ready, then everyone can eat it (i.e., one action is followed by another).

To reveal the primary differences between the two linguacultural groups, Table 2 compares the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of each language.

According to Table 2, the linguaculturema motherland presents culturological differences. From the Russian perspective, motherland is associated with feminine beginnings (i.e., the motherland is Moscow). Conversely, in the Kazakh language, atameken is associated with the concept or aruakh (ancestors’ spirits) and any aspect of significant importance related to genealogy. In regard to Great Russian, from the Russian perspective, it signifies historical greatness of the nation and its tsar-imperial past. For Kazakh, it is derived from the Turkish khas-sak, which means free, freedom-loving, brave, and courageous. Another version of kazak is translated from
Table 2. Comparison of paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations in Russian and Kazakh linguistic personalities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Russian linguistic personality</th>
<th>Kazakh linguistic personality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Motherland: fatherland, Moscow, first-throned, Kiev Rus, white stoned, motherland • I wish to live and die in Paris if there is no such earth as in Moscow. • For the motherland (a war-call).</td>
<td>1. Atameken: earth of fathers (ancestors), Holy Land, patrimonial cemeteries • It is better to be a slave in the motherland than a sultan on foreign soil. (a man’s home is his castle). • Aruakh (spirits of ancestors—a war-call).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Etnonim Russian: Great Russian.</td>
<td>2. Etnonim Kazakh: free, swan (beauty and grace)—be a Kazakh (strong, courageous—expression-wish at the Georgians).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Spiritual feature (character). Brave, courageous, strong, frank, hospitable, careless. • Bread and salt are the main things for a Russian man. • A Russian man is a kind man. • A Russian man likes to do everything at random.</td>
<td>4. Spiritual feature (character). Brave, freedom-loving, generous, frank, faithful, hospitable, conceited, respecting elderly people. • If a Kazakh is your friend, then you won’t get lost (Uzbek proverb); • Ир жиғіттің екі айтқаны-өлгенмен тең (For Dzhigit, it’s better to die than to promise twice); • Құтты қонаққа-тәтті тамақ (an honorable feast for the guest of honor); Сыйлап берсе суын іш (Water is also food if given with heart and soul); • aksakal (a respected elder) • жарықтық—respectful attitude toward elders; • қаз жибек (a young girl)—respectful attitude for women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Material culture: 1) izba (log hut) (tree); 2) sarafan (sundress) (flax); 3) cuisine (bread, pancakes, pies, porridge)—simplicity.</td>
<td>5. Material culture: 1) yurta (wool); 2) chapan (velvet); 3) cuisine (meat: kazy, zhaya, zhal; milk products: koumiss, ayran, shubat)—caloric content, simplicity, healing properties.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additional examples of the poet’s strength through words include the following:

Are you the khan, given by God?
You are a fierce wolf—
That’s what you are!
You’ll die of a shameful death:
A black demon will stifle you,
Or your mercenary friends
Will split your skull,
So this way you’ll die!
Are you really a khan? Or only a deception.
Your malignant glance—
Snake poison.
There is wailing and groans,
Where you, khan-scorpion
are with a tail. (Alimzhanov)
Your old friend will never be an enemy to you,
As his blood was admixed with yours during an oath...
And an old enemy never becomes a true friend,
Because his blood is spilled by your hand! (Esenberlin)
There, where the power generates only cruelty,
Wisdom is hidden in fear, my khan...
No, not for good you sacrifice batyr
For your feelings... (Esenberlin)

In the 19th and early 20th centuries, there were expressions that protested and criticized those in power, as seen in the following two excerpts taken from poetry and a song:

Allah doesn’t forgive any evil
Who creates strife and hostility in hearts;
The grandfather quarreled with a large clan... (Auezov)
From the Karatau’s tops nomads are going...
Behind every caravan there is a lonely camel...
There is no more serious grief than to lose the family, the native earth
You won’t be able to keep back tears—they flow, flow... (Alimzhanov)

The social importance of personality is of particular interest to linguacultural comparison. From the Kazakh perspective, origin, genealogy, and family are extremely important and considered as obligatory. In addition, service to one’s family is considered a great honor. Therefore, the use of the paradigm shezhire includes concepts such as honor, dignity, courage, force, tamga, aul, collectivism, martial spirit, the earth of a clan, and ak-sakals (elders).

In sum, the most significant symbols for both the Russian and Kazakh cultures include the following:

-Motherland.
-Morality.
-Origin, history of nation.
-Religion.
-Main sphere of economic activity.
-Climate and geography.
-Art.
-Material culture (ethnographic realm (national, folk phenomenon)).

In regard to the Russian culture, the basic symbols include the following:
- Religion: cross—a symbol of Christian religion, suffering, purification.
- Main sphere of economic activity: bread—a symbol of well being, Russian hospitality.
- Main sphere of economic activity: pancake—a symbol of abundance, well being.
- Climate and geography: birch—a symbol of Russia, grief, sufferings.
- Climate and geography: bear—a symbol of Russia, Russian man (big, lazy, clumsy, strong, terrible in anger, but good natured).
- Material culture (ethnographic (national, folk phenomenon): matreshka—a symbol of unexpectedness, surprise.
- Material culture (ethnographic (national, folk phenomenon): samovar—a symbol of home comfort and family well being.

In regard to the Kazakh culture, the basic symbols include the following:
- Main sphere of economic activity, material, and spiritual culture: horse (racer)—nobility, beauty, devotion, freedom.
- Main sphere of economic activity: meat—a symbol of welfare, wealth, hospitality.
- Religion: aruak—symbolizes the belief of Kazakhs and their ancestors’ spirits.
- Main sphere of economic activity: koumiss—symbol of purity (white blessing), health, force, equilibrium of corporeal and mental strength.
- Morality and spiritual culture: batyr—symbol of bravery, courage, nobility, justice, and fortitude.
• Origin and history of the nation: *zheti ata* (clan, *zhuz*)—symbolizes knowledge, one’s history, and family tree.
• Material culture (ethnographic (national, folk phenomenon)): *shanyrak*—being the main part of a *yurta*, its form is reminiscent of a heavenly dome or an arch of heaven (peace and tranquillity). It is the symbol of life—the sun, home, unity, and well being.
• Art: *dombra*—symbolizes the most important part of Kazakhs’ spiritual culture—their love of music and art.

4. Conclusion

This study examined how aspects of the Russian and Kazakh languages were instruments of socialization and valuable representatives of their national linguistic personalities. Through comparative linguacultural analysis, it was determined that the main values, symbols, and stereotypes of Russian and Kazakh linguistic personalities were defined by social and economic organization, culture, and traditions. In addition, fundamental reforms in ideological, political, and social spheres had transformed the national linguistic personality of both these regions.

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Time Management Practices, Character Development and Academic Performance among University Undergraduates: Covenant University Experience

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Abstract

Background: University undergraduates are representative of the Nigerian youth population; and sustainable development in any nation depends on the resourcefulness of her youth. This necessitates the need to drive excellence among Nigerian undergraduates through quality education and advice. Quality education is demonstrated in character and in learning; and characters of discipline, responsibility and diligence serve as the hallmark of excellence among university undergraduates. It is hypothesized that time management practices will be positively related to character development and academic performance among university undergraduates. Method: The case study and ex-post facto research designs were adopted in this study. Questionnaire was administered to 120 Diploma and Certificate students of Leadership Development Programme in Covenant University. Results: The findings revealed a positive relationship between character development and time management practices (r = .44, p < .01) and between character development and academic performance (r = .23, p < .05). The result further revealed that time management practices predicted character development ($R^2 = .241$, F (3,116) = 12.383, p < .01) and character development predicted academic performance ($R^2 = .241$, F (3,116) = 5.412, p < .01). However, no significant relationship was found between time management practice and academic performance (r = .18, p > .05). Conclusion: It was concluded that in the quest for academic excellence, building
performance characters such as discipline, responsibility and diligence among university undergraduates was as important as improving the quality and standard of learning. This study therefore recommended that time management training be incorporated into academic advising and tutoring programs in the Nigerian academia.

**Keywords**

Time Management Practices, Character Development, Academic Advising, Self-Regulation, Youth, Undergraduates, Nigeria

### 1. Introduction

Nigeria has a population of 140 million people (NPC, 2006) with one third of her population between the ages of 10 to 24 years (Second Nigeria National Youth Policy, 2009). According to Nigerian National Youth Policy (2001), persons within the age range of 18 to 35 years belong to the youth population. Most persons in this category are in the tertiary institution. Therefore university undergraduates may be considered as representative of the Nigerian youth population. The youth represent the strength and future of any nation state. They are the drivers of sustainable growth and development in the nation.

Nations depend on tertiary institutions to convert her youth into resourceful and formidable workforce, capable of transforming the economy and taking up the leadership of the nation. This has left Universities with the responsibility of producing “total man” graduates found worthy both in character and in learning. The total man concept is used to describe self-regulated individuals motivated by excellent performance and matchless impact in their immediate and global environment. Despite this enormous task, Nigerian Universities are still struggling with poor academic performance and misconduct among their students. This is partly because most institutions have paid greater attention to fostering learning rather than building those characters needed to facilitate the learning process and to sustain what is learned. Bello and Amali (2012) identified the goals of education to include helping young people become academically sound and to emerge as good citizens of their countries. Furthermore, Oredein (n.d) suggested that a good foundation of self-discipline and moral character is necessary for good conduct and development among the youths. This implies that both performance character and moral character are needed for the progress of the Nigerian youth.

Students need to develop self-regulatory processes in order to maximize the benefits of education and become great assets to the society. In this context, self-regulation was defined by Zimmerman (1998) as self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions directed towards the achievement of set academic goals. It describes the proactive efforts made by students to learn on their own, demonstrate personal initiative, resourcefulness and sense of responsibility (Zimmerman, 1998). These self-regulatory processes are essential for improved academic performance. These processes may be associated with the development of performance characters among students.

Britton and Tesser (1991) noted that time management variables have been implicated in self-regulated learning. Similarly, Zimmerman (1994) as cited in Zimmerman (1998) identified self-regulatory processes to include time management, goal setting, task strategies, imagery, self-monitoring, self-evaluation, self-instruction and self-consequences, environmental structuring and help seeking. Some of these other self-regulatory processes are entwined in effective time management practices and hypothesized to foster the development of performance characters such as discipline, diligence and a sense of responsibility. Davidson, Khmlekov and Baker (2011) defined performance character as consisting of the qualities that allow individuals to regulate their thoughts and actions in ways that support achievement in a particular endeavour. The self-regulatory processes are illustrated in Table 1.

Students have multiple tasks and multiple instructors to satisfy, and grades are determined by the quality of work submitted to these different instructors. Time-management practices have been found to predict college achievement (Britton & Tesser, 1991). However, the development of such skills has not been effectively incorporated into academic advising and tutoring in Nigerian Universities. According to Zimmerman (1998), teachers have neglected the teaching of necessary study skills like time management in their effort to encourage study habits among students. The current study hypothesized that a connection exists between time management
practices, character development and academic performance. The findings of this study will have serious implication for academic advising and tutoring particularly in the higher institutions of learning.

### 1.1. Statement of Objectives

1) To ascertain relationship between time management practices, character development and academic performance.

2) To ascertain the mediating role of character development in the relationship between time management practices and academic performance.

### 1.2. Research Hypotheses

1) Time management practices will significantly predict character development.

2) Time management practices will significantly predict academic performance.

3) Character development will significantly predict academic performance.

4) Character development will mediate the relationship between time management practices and academic performance.

### 2. Literature Review

#### 2.1. Time Management and Academic Performance

Time may be described as a measure of the duration and order of events in the past, the present and the future. Although every individual has 24 hours of time at his/her disposal each day, it is the effective use of time that distinguishes achievers from non-achievers in all spheres of life. Students’ time management practices and personal development have been the research interests of educational researchers (Britton & Tesser, 1991; Zimmerman, 1998) in time past. Although time management have been empirically linked with academic performance (Britton & Tesser, 1991; Sevari & Kandy, 2011; Yilmaz, Yoncalik, & Bektaş, 2010), there is a dearth of empirical literature on the impact of time management practices on character development and the link between such characters and academic performance.

Al Khatib (2014) asserted that past researchers have found time management as one of the predictors of students’ academic performance and achievement. In his study of 352 college students from Al Ain University of Science and Technology, UAE, he found that time management skill level explained 26 percent of total variance in the grade point average. Similarly, Misra and McKean (2000) reported a relation between time management, stress reduction and academic success. Also, Balduf, (2009) associated students’ poor time management with academic underachievement.

Pehlivan (2013) reported a positive significant relation between students’ grade point averages and the time

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**Table 1. Students’ self-regulating processes.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Self-regulatory processes</th>
<th>Example of student behaviour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Goal setting</td>
<td>Making lists of tasks to accomplish during studying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Task strategies</td>
<td>Creating mnemonics to remember facts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Imagery</td>
<td>Imagining the consequences of failing to study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Self-instruction</td>
<td>Rehearsing steps in solving a math problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>Scheduling daily study and homework time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Self-monitoring</td>
<td>Keeping records of completed assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Self-evaluation</td>
<td>Checking work before handing it to the teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Self-consequences</td>
<td>Making TV or telephone calls contingent on homework completion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Environmental structuring</td>
<td>Studying in a secluded place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Help seeking</td>
<td>Using a study partner</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Source: Adapted from Zimmerman (1998).
attitudes and long-range planning sub-dimensions of time management questionnaire. Talib (2012) found academic competence, test competence, time management and test anxiety to be significantly related to student’s academic performance in a sample of 199 university students from Rawalpindi and Islamabad Universities.

2.2. Time Management, Character Development and Academic Performance

Although there is a dearth of empirical literature on the relationship between time management, character development and academic performance, Davidson and Lickona (2007) conceptualized character to include moral character and performance character. In their definition, moral character involves values that enable persons to be of good and ethical behaviours such as integrity, justice, caring, respect, and cooperation. These characters foster interpersonal relationship and harmony among groups of persons.

Durlak, Weissberg and Pachan (2010) in their meta-analysis of 69 different after-school programs aimed at enhancing personal and social skills of children and adolescents found that skills-building program impacted upon positive social behaviours and academic achievement. Similarly, Berkowitz and Bier (2007) reviewed literature on 33 effective character education programs and found that character education programs to exert significant influence on improved school behaviour and academic achievement and grades. Furthermore, Benninga, Berkowitz, Kuehn and Smith (2003) studied the impact of character education on academic performance among schools. They found schools implementing character education to record higher academic performance than their counterparts.

Performance characters on the other hand refer to values that promote excellence in individuals’ fields of endeavours such as academics, sports, occupation across lifespan. Examples of performance character include diligence, discipline and responsibility among others. Davidson and Lickona (2007) also noted that secondary school teachers identified performance characters that impact upon academic excellence to include diligence, perseverance, dependability, responsibility, orderliness, setting goals and monitoring progress toward those goals. Likewise, Berkowitz and Bier (2004) as cited in Silay (2013) associated character education with academic motivation and objectives, academic success, self-efficacy, self-control, responsibility and self-respect among others. Wolfe and Johnson (1995) also found self-discipline to predict college students’ grade point averages more accurately than SAT scores. The efficient demonstration of these performance characters may be associated with effective time management. By implication, the specific character that is related to time management and academic performance is the performance character which involves the pursuit of excellence. The proposed relationship is illustrated in the in Figure 1:

This conceptual model was based on the Stimulus-Organism-Response (S-O-R) model proposed by Woodworth (1928) as cited in Baron and Kenny (1986). The model suggests that the stimulus (time management

![Figure 1. Conceptual framework.](image-url)
practices) elicits the response (academic performance) through influence of certain characteristics within the organism (character development). This type of relationship is referred to as meditation, in which character development is proposed to mediate the relationship between time management practices and academic performance. However, according to Baron and Kenny (1986), the three conditions that must be fulfilled before the proposed mediation relationship can occur include:

1) Time management practices must be significantly related to character development;
2) Character development must be significantly related to academic performance;
3) Time management practices must not be significantly related academic performance when character development is included.

Mediation can be complete or partial. Complete mediation occurs in a situation where the relationship between the independent variable (time management practices) and the dependent variable (academic performance) becomes zero when the mediator (character development) was controlled; but in situation where such relationship merely reduces, partial correlation has occurred.

3. Method

The research design employed in this study is a case study and ex-post facto design. It is a case study design because it focused on students of the Leadership Development, Covenant University. On the other hand, the ex-post facto design was also employed because the proposed relationship between the variables of interest had occurred prior to this study.

The participants were 120 Diploma and Certificate students of Leadership Development between the ages of 16 and 24 years old, with 29.8% being males and 70.2% being females. These include students from all levels except sophomores who were yet to have a CGPA at the time this study was conducted.

The instruments used in this study include 18-item Time Management Questionnaire (TMQ) developed by Britton and Tesser (1991) and the Character Development Questionnaire (CDQ) developed by the researcher for the purpose of this study. The TMQ from the current study has a Cronbach alpha of .79. A five point Likert format with responses ranging from Always (4), Often (3), Occasionally (2), Rarely (1) and Never (0) was used to capture participants responses on this scale.

The CDQ is a 10 item measure of dimensions performance character which includes Diligence, Discipline and Responsibility. The Diligence dimension has a Cronbach alpha of .68, Discipline has a Cronbach alpha of .62 and Responsibility dimension has a Cronbach alpha of .76. However, the complete CDQ has a Cronbach alpha of .83. The item ratings was obtained from a five point likert format with responses ranging from Always (4), Often (3), Occasionally (2), Rarely (1) and Never (0).

Students’ academic performance was measured using self-reported CGPA of the last semester. The questionnaire was administered individually to consenting students after their lecture period and retrieved immediately for analysis. Participants were encouraged to seek clarification where necessary and respond to questionnaire items with all candour.

4. Analyses and Results

The correlations among variables are reported in Table 2. All the dimensions of time management practices were found to be positively related with all the dimensions of character development. Likewise, total character development and the diligence dimension were found to be positively related to academic performance (CGPA), while the dimensions of discipline and responsibility had no significant relationship with academic performance (CGPA). Finally no significant relationship was found between the dimensions of time management practices and academic performance (CGPA). See Table 2.

The result of the relationship among variables provides the clue into further associations among the variables. It is on this premise that the research hypotheses are tested, and the results are as follows:

H1: Time management practices will significantly predict character development.

This hypothesis was tested and confirmed using multiple regression analysis. The result of multiple regression analysis in Table 3 showed that time management predicted character development \[ F(3,116) = 12.383, p < .01 \]. The result revealed that time management explained 24.1% variance in character development \( R^2 = .241, p < .01 \); specifically, long range planning had the greatest impact on character development \( \beta = .339, p < .01 \) followed by time attitude \( \beta = .171, p = .05 \). However, short range planning had no significant impact on character
Table 2. Correlations among variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tym mgt total</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRP</td>
<td>.68**</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA</td>
<td>.60**</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRP</td>
<td>.86**</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cht total</td>
<td>.44**</td>
<td>.44**</td>
<td>.33**</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dili</td>
<td>.34**</td>
<td>.33**</td>
<td>.21*</td>
<td>.25**</td>
<td>.82**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disi</td>
<td>.49**</td>
<td>.46**</td>
<td>.40**</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>.73**</td>
<td>.48**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resp</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.22*</td>
<td>.19*</td>
<td>.83**</td>
<td>.57**</td>
<td>.47**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>CGPA</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td>.33**</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Correlation is significant at *p < .05 and **p < .01.

Table 3. Coefficient of multiple regressions (dimensions of time management practices and character development).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Long range planning</td>
<td>.491</td>
<td>.241</td>
<td>12.383</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
<td>.339</td>
<td>3.754</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time attitude</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>2.176</td>
<td>.176</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short range planning</td>
<td>.119</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>1.628</td>
<td>.176</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

H2: Time management practices will significantly predict academic performance.

This hypothesis was tested using multiple regression analysis but result as shown in Table 4 revealed no significant impact of time management practices on academic performance [F (3,116) = 1.628, p > .05]. The different dimensions of time management practices had no significant impact on academic performance. The result of the multiple regression analysis confirmed the results of Pearson correlation coefficients among these variables (long range planning, r = .17, p > .05; short range planning, r = .15, p > .05; and time attitude, r = .04, p > .05). See Table 4.

H3: Character development will significantly predict academic performance.

This hypothesis was tested and confirmed using multiple regression analysis. The result as shown in Table 5 revealed that total character development predicted academic performance [F (3,116) = 5.412, p < .01]. However, only the dimension of diligence had significant impact on character development (β = .409, p < .01). See Table 5.

H4: Character development will mediate the relationship between time management practices and academic performance.

This hypothesis was not confirmed since the result in Table 2 showed that no relationship existed between time management practices and academic performance (r = .18, p > .05). There was no need to test for mediation since the result showed no significant relationship between the independent variable (time management practices) and the dependent variable (academic performance).

5. Discussion, Recommendation and Conclusion

The results of this study revealed that students’ long range planning, short range planning and time attitude did not separately and jointly predict their academic performance in terms of CGPA. There was no significant relationship between time management practices and students’ CGPA. This result was supported by the findings of Yilmaz et al. (2010) who found no significant relationship between the time management behaviour and GPA among 271 students attending sports management programs at Gazi, Muğla and Atatürk Universities. This result suggests that other variables (such as anxiety, IQ and stress) may mediate or moderate the relationship between time management practices and academic performance.
Table 4. R square and ANOVA results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>R and ANOVA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>.201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R square</td>
<td>.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R square</td>
<td>.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. error of estimate</td>
<td>.957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>1.628</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.187</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Coefficient of multiple regressions (dimensions of character development and academic performance).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R^2</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>.350</td>
<td>.123</td>
<td>5.412</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
<td>-.043</td>
<td>-.396</td>
<td>.693</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discipline</td>
<td>-.109</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diligence</td>
<td>.409</td>
<td>.3704</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.291</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings of this study also revealed a significant positive relationship between time management practices and character development. The three dimensions of time management practices were found to predict overall character development and the specific dimensions of this construct (diligence, discipline and responsibility). One unifying factor may be the fact that both time management practices and performance characters are dependent on individuals’ self-regulating processes and motivation. This implies that effective time management practices and the demonstration of performance characters are inspired by the same motivational mechanisms and drive. Over time, students develop performance characters from engaging in time management practices in their quest for academic excellence.

Interestingly, the findings of this study further revealed a significant positive relationship between character development and academic performance. The result showed that the diligence dimension of character development predicted academic performance, whereas the dimensions of discipline and responsibility did not have significant relationship with students’ academic performance. This is contrary to the findings of Wolfe and Johnson (1995) who reported that self-discipline predicted college students’ grade point averages more accurately than did their SAT scores. Similarly, Duckworth and Seligman (2006) found self-discipline to be a stronger predictor than IQ of students’ academic grades, school attendance, hours spent doing homework, and acceptance into highly competitive high schools. One would expect that all the dimensions of character development would predict academic performance, particularly because these dimensions significantly correlate with one another in this study. However, this result goes to show that certain other variables may mediate the relationship between performance characters and academic performance.

In conclusion, since time management practices and character development are correlates, both are important for academic excellence among students. Through academic advising and tutoring, students can be trained on effective time management practices which will also impact upon the development of performance characters needed for excellent academic performance. It is therefore recommended that time management training be incorporated into academic advising and tutoring among university undergraduates. This will enable Universities to better achieve their goal of producing graduates who are worthy in character and in learning. Since time management practices impacts on the development of performance character without necessarily affecting their ethical behaviours, it is imperative that future researches investigate the relationship between performance character and moral character since both are indispensable in the development of the total man.

References


The Tunisians Cooperative Teachers and Student Teachers’ Conceptions about Class Management Skill

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Abstract

The first teaching year is a crucial time for professional growth and teacher development requiring pedagogical and emotional support from a qualified mentor. According to Ingersoll (2003), 46% of all teachers in public schools will leave the profession within their first five years of teaching. Until 1990, there was a considerable discussion about how the novice teachers can develop more competence. There has been limited empirical research on the effectiveness of physical education student teacher (PESTT), particularly as they relate to teaching. The aim of this research is to study the conceptions of Authority of Tunisian High School Physical Education Cooperative teachers and student teachers. The method used in the quoted investigation is based on directing a semi-directive interview with 10 mentors and their PESTT (24) in the initiation of practical pedagogy, at the Higher Institute of Sport and Physical Education (ISSEP) Ksar Saïd Tunis. The PESTT were teaching at a school in Tunis with mixed classes (aged 12 - 14). Data were collected from monitor interviews, PESTT interviews, observations and analysis of the PESTT teaching. Data analysis occurred, through the efforts of the teacher-researcher to meet the “on the spot” learning needs of his students; the systematic collection, organisation and analysis of the gathered data; and the peer debriefing, which occurred throughout the collection and writing processes. Two tendencies of unequal importance were constructed from analysis of data sources according to mentor reflections: a majority teacher-centred pedagogy (77%) and a minority student-centred pedagogy (22%). A number of themes emerged from the analysis of each case. These themes are discussed within the data resources from PESTT of how their perceptions of authority. This study shows that the commonly perception of mentors about their PESTT is negative. However, the findings of this study support the idea that PESTT can not well manage the indiscipline behaviour of their pupils and are not able to think about real reason of this problem.
1. Introduction

Management class in high school is a complex, dynamic and multidimensional nature (Duke, 1982; Good & Brophy, 1987). Because of this complexity, it is seen firstly as one of the biggest problems of new and experienced teachers (Cruickshank, Kennedy, & Meyers, 1974; Veenman, 1984), which has led many scholars to propose that it be formally included in the initial training programs (Ministry of Education of Quebec, 1992; Pigge, 1978). Because of the need for an improvement of the quality of the school and its efficiency (Creemers et al., 1989), there is a demand for more teachers efficient and better “management” classes (Brophy & Good, 1986). This phenomenon has been accentuated, by the results of research in science education that confirmed the hypothesis that “the efficiency” of school depend on the teachers’ activity efficiency in their classrooms (Mullens, 1996; Turner & Meyer, 2000). Teachers’ confidence in their capacity to achieve the actions that lead to student learning is one of the few individual characteristics that consistently predict the practice of teachers and students learning (Ross, 1994; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). Therefore, student teaching has been regarded as the most influential factor in teacher education programmes (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1989; Wilson, 2006). The core activities of teaching occur in real time, involve social and intellectual interactions, and are shaped by the students in the environment, thus increasing the complexity of the task (Leinhardt, 2001). The theoretical framework for this study draws from research establishing the complex nature of teaching and, consequently, the challenges of mentoring teaching practices. According to MacKinnon (1987); based on the work of Fuller and Brown (1975); four types of concerns affecting successively beginning teachers during their initial training and early career. Firstly, before their first teaching experience, they have difficulties in identifying the role of teacher. Later, their first contact with students affects their immediate survival as professionals. Then confronted with the limits of their intervention, beginning teachers tend to focus primarily on issues of approaches and methods. Finally, having overcome the initial hurdles, they arrive gradually became interested in their practice, the quality of learning and social and emotional needs of their students.

Regarding discipline, two contradictory objectives perceived concern beginning teachers: properly control their class and be appreciated by their students (Fuller & Brown, 1975). That is why they will try to solve this dilemma is by using a freind-freind approach or by adopting an authoritarian attitude, rather than adopting a preventive management based on rules (Johnson, 1993).

In contrast to process-product research in which effective teaching could be attributed to discrete, observable teaching, the mentor who supervises the student teacher has the most essential and influential role in this process. A successful student teaching experience often requires a series of facilitating attitudes and behaviours on the part of the mentoring teacher (Kim & Danforth, 2012). Thus, cooperating teachers’ beliefs of effective supervision of student teachers may play an important role in mentoring practices. Unconsciously expressed in the discourse of cooperating teachers concerning supervision of student teachers, these beliefs could be made explicit (Kim & Danforth, 2012). If mentoring is to function as a strategy of reform, it must be linked to a vision of good teaching, guided by an understanding of teacher learning, and supported by a professional culture that favours collaboration and inquiry. So, the assessment of teaching practice continues to be a significant issue for teacher education programs. One specific relationship that has gained attention in school supervision literature is the benefit of an assigned and effective mentor (e.g., Herbert & Ramsey, 2004; McCormack et al., 2006; Odell & Ferraro, 1992).

Integration of Novice Teacher in Physical Education (PE)

Several studies focused on the professional socialization of teachers showed that the beginning of the career is a determinant internship (Zeichner & Gore, 1990). Because of his status, the physical educational student teacher training (PESTT) is in a paradoxical situation where he must build an adequate and functional representation about his work environment and this, not from a student’s conception (because he is yet) but from that of a teacher (that he is currently becoming). In this way, professional insertion is a veritable identity transformation.
process (Martineau & Corriveau, 2000). However, the entry into the teachers’ career represents generally a “choc reality” (Martineau, 2003). The PESTT is face to a double challenge. First, he must adjust or increase rapidly several knowledges (Tardif & Lessard, 1999) and many skills to increase the real situation of intervention in which he is. On the other side, he must assimilate his trainer advices, who ensure his accompaniment during the internship period. This double challenge can easily bring him to behave a traditional and somewhat innovative conduct, and submit him to the conformity pressure coming from the world of work (Martineau, 2003). Situated in the particular field of teaching physical education and sports, where the competence of knowledge transmission joins the absolute responsibility of maintaining students’ safety, as well as the control of the different types of working groups, authority occupies a predominant topic in the relationship unifying the teacher to his class (Dussaussois, 1997). Indeed, Hubert said that “pedagogy is a mixture of art and science” (Hubert, 1952). He puts forward that there are two complementary aspects: 1) A personal aspect: personal charisma, attention and listening capacity, enthusiasm… 2) A scientific and technical aspect: mastery of the discipline, didactic of the discipline, teaching organisation… However, the class management in secondary education is a complex, dynamic and multidimensional activity (Duke, 1982; Good & Brophy, 1987). Because of this complexity, it is perceived on the one hand as one of the biggest problems of beginning teachers and even experienced (Cruickshank, Kennedy, & Meyers, 1974; Veenman, 1984) and present a professional teaching obstacle, on the other hand (Michaud & Alin, 2009). Several studies have shown that beginning teachers met more discipline problems than the most experienced (Martineau, 2003). And if there is no discipline or attention during a Physical Education Session (PES), not only teaching can not be provided but learning becomes problematic. So, in a session of physical education, there are all the acts favouring the order and the organization ensuring the optimum conditions for teaching and learning: rules, sanctions, values, learning climate… are found preoccupations in the technical acts. The symbolic challenge reside in the ability to obtain an order perceived as necessary and legitimate by all the actors of the teaching situation. More concretely, teacher authority is the result of students’ recognition of the skills he displays in action. Such skills pass inevitably trough the operationalization of its disciplinary, pedagogical and relational knowledge’s. According to Robbes (2006) authority results from construction of knowledge during teaching practice. However, novice teacher is confronted to resolve the problem how to mange indiscipline and what knowledge helping him to do it “Teacher authority is not natural but (....) results from a knowledge construction in action. The teacher is faced to the nagging question of ‘how to do?’ that is to say to the actions knowledge’s that it engages in the practice of educational authority” (Robbes, 2006).

Furthermore, because of the discipline’s originality, in a PES, different actors (Robbes, 2006) act and are engaged in ongoing local interactions such as: laying out of the field, displacement on the field, help a pupil in difficulty, perform parades, manipulate a student, give instructions to a small working group, speak to the entire class, (while some students work in sub-groups organized on their way, others are in the process of discussing an extra-school subject), the teacher’s mission becomes more difficult, especially when it’s about the beginners. Do not forget that these situations present a freedom opportunity for some students (Robbes, 2006), Piot (2008) and Vanderstaa & All (2009) believe that the authority was strongly based in the teacher’s professionalism as a skill more than his bureaucratic or charismatic influence.

In Tunisia, the university education aims to help PE-STs into internship working (Bali et al., 2014). For this reason the trainee is the central actor in his own training; it is not isolated to the master of the course but surrounded by cooperative teachers.

The role of the master course is the hold of the student, but a large number of actors involved, formally or informally, with his training. The difficult that PE-STs faced was how to mange authority into the course by acting as a teacher and comply with its status as a student (Bali, 2013).

However, in Tunisia no study was reported this paradigm. Until now, no study examined the insufficiency and the increasing complexity of the subject matter of authority research coupled with the relevance and timeliness of this topic. For purely practical reasons, we argue and we encourage working on the authority physical activity teachers and especially on Tunisian physical education teachers.

2. Method and Data Collection

2.1. Procedure

Permission to conduct the current study by the University was Granted Institutional Review Board, the Tunisian
Ministry of sports, the Principal of Higher Institute of sports and physical education (ISSEP) of Ksar Said in Tunis (Tunisia) (Manouba University). The researchers visited the cooperative teachers CT and PE-STs dyads in their respective schools in order to present the purpose and design of the research and obtain written informed approval.

This study presents an exploratory study in which were analyzed the perceptions that mentors and PESTT have about authority and to characterize the intervention and the advices enunciated by the mentors to help their PESTT in report with the indiscipline of their pupils.

The PESTT perceptions’ about conduct problems encountered in the PES during the first training in education were identified. If the initial perceptions of future teachers interested many researchers (Calderhead & Robson, 1991; Weinstein, 1990) and if the problems of beginning teachers during their first years of practice has been the subject of an important recession of fifteen years ago (Veenman, 1984), those experienced by students (those faced by students, those that students lives) during their first internship teaching.

2.2. Participants

- **Mentors:** 10 CT mentoring the PESTT had been freely accepted to participate in this study throughout the one scholar year training period. These CT had more than five years of experience in mentoring. All mentors having more than 5 years experience were men and had between 35 and 45 old years aged.
- **PESTT:** 24 PESTT in the initiation of practical pedagogy, at the Higher Institute of Sport and Physical Education (ISSEP) Ksar Saïd Tunis and supervised by the mentors participating at this study had been freely accepted to participate at this research. They were enrolled in the same training program as part of the preparation course to professional life in the last year of study for the graduation of Fundamental License of Physical Education in Tunisia (Bac +3). They were men and average age of 21 years ± 1 year old. This course is organized in colleges at the rate of four teaching hours per week for each PESTT, and this, on a school year. They were teaching at a school in Tunis with mixed classes (aged 12 - 14). In this intership, PESTT attended 4 hours of teaching every week during one scholar year. Hence the term “Physical Educational Student Teacher” that we adopted in this study.

2.3. Method

The method used is based on an “*in situ*” observation and taking notes about the case of indiscipline of 24 Physical Education Sessions (PES) supervised by 10 mentors participating in this study, and semi-structured individually interview made with all participants in this study (10 mentors and 24 PESTT) in initiation to teaching practice, practicing at the ISSEP Ksar Saïd Tunis, Manouba University, Tunisia. After the sessions observing teaching practices of PESTT 60mn duration (step 1), semi-structured interviews were conducted with each of these PESTT observed and recorded. These interviews were conducted with ten mentors working at the ISSEP (step 2). Given the nature of the research, all the interviews conducted with PESTT were semi-structured interviews. Accordance with the principles of the semi-directive interview (Mucchielli, 1976), the interview guide may slightly change due to data collected by the observations of teaching practices in these subjects interviewed but without deviating from the main thesis. The duration was scheduled for 40 minutes, according to the same considerations, the duration varied slightly from one subject to another.

We used a Dictaphone to record the responses of mentors interviewed. The questions focus on specific teaching practices previously recorded subjects interviewed. PESTT are interviewed while leaving freedom of speech they can express themselves at their ease.

We then proceeded to the transcription (step 3) of audio recordings of semi-structured interviews individually established after the observation of each teacher to create the corpus and we reported in the grid (Table 1) developed by the researcher (step 4). This grid allowed us to categorize (step 5) the mentors’ perception of PESTT authorities.

2.4. Data Collection

Data were collected in three phases during 2 months. The first is a pre-interview with 15 mentors to constitute their biography data, such as the number of years of experience in mentoring and we asked them if they will accept to participate at this research. Twelve of them had freely accepted to participate at this study. At this meeting we presented to the mentors the various stages of this research such as a semi-directive interview related ses-
Table 1. The cooperative teachers conceptions’ about student teachers’ authority.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observation: What the PESTT do?</th>
<th>A teacher-centered pedagogy 77.31%</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N = 194</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screaming, panicking</td>
<td>25.33%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expel from the course</td>
<td>19.33%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firmness pedagogical attitude</td>
<td>4.66%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punishing last recourse</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s personality</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excessive authority</td>
<td>18.66%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonchalance, shyness</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stressed and afraid</td>
<td>9.33%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A pupil-centered pedagogy 22.69%</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identify leaders</td>
<td>18.18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paying attention to pupils</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify their pupils</td>
<td>9.09%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowing their names</td>
<td>13.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dealing with them Individually</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of concentration</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting pupils</td>
<td>22.72%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

sion recorded representing three phases of the data collection. They gave PESTT and their mentors an opportunity to share their perspectives on broad topics such as education, teaching, and society, and also on more succinct topics such as individual students and situations that had occurred in previous lessons. Our data were analyzed using constant comparison (Berelson, 1952; Buron, 2000). Two themes were emerged to show how PESTT manage authority and how there are helped by their didactic and pedagogical manoeuvring during lessons.

3. Result

In the following sections, we present the results for each research question and summarize the variety and accuracies. We then discuss the findings and consider implications for teacher education program. Analyses of the interviews with 12CT showed that their assessment centered on the issues of interpersonal relationships, power sharing, and tension and conflict. The central concept of a non-authoritative approach to supervision of student teachers that embraces relationship issues rose by the participants and provides successful learning experiences for PESTT.

Table 1 shows the correlations, percentage of accurate predictions for each category. As summarized earlier in Table 1, the data collected is grouped into two categories: a teacher-centred pedagogy (77.31%) and a pupil-centred pedagogy (22.69%).

The results presented in this paper about PEST encourages interrogating their ability to manage their PES effectively. The answers that we have identified in the question “How mentors proceed spontaneously with their students?” had showed that mentors conceptions’ of the PEST’s intervention is centred on the teacher (77.31%). They adopt spontaneously a teacher-centred pedagogy: they screaming and panicking (25.33%). One CT interviewed reports that:

“Thereafter, the student does not care about the child and does not take into account that the child is the centre of pedagogy, there is no use of his own psychomotor responses” (CT6).

One CT said:

“The students’ problem is that they are struggling to move from the student status to the teacher status with all the responsibility behind! For me, the most fundamental thing is the organization before, during and after the course” (CT9).
Table 2. CT advices to learn class management skill.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Remediation: how to learn class management?</th>
<th>A teacher-centred pedagogy 49.15%</th>
<th>N 87</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-Authority-Respect</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Getting started</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Attitude</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>11.49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Didactic attitude lack</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td>22.98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Develop the personality of PESTT</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>11.49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Mastery of the discipline</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Well preparing the lesson, explaining well (content)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Taken the right decision</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td>34.48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Know how to communicate with them</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Evaluation of pupils</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.29%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| A student-centered pedagogy 50.84%                           |                                   |      |      |
| -Searching for the cause                                     |                                   |      | 16.66%|
| -Keep pupils busy                                             |                                   |      | 10%  |
| -Motivate pupils                                              |                                   |      | 10%  |
| -Empower pupils/give them responsibility                      |                                   |      | 31.11%|
| -Landscaping                                                 |                                   |      | 1.11%|
| -Questioning of their own didactic teaching practices         |                                   |      | 0%   |
| -Adapt teaching to pupils’ level                              |                                   |      | 7.77%|
| -Clear tasks                                                  |                                   |      | 0%   |
| -Organisation                                                 |                                   |      | 22.22%|
| -Balance between authority and care                           |                                   |      | 0%   |
| -Respiratory movements                                        |                                   |      | 0%   |
| -Enhance pupils                                               |                                   |      | 1.11%|

There are also severe even quarrelsome with their students, exclude them from the field (19.33%) when they exaggerate.

“The session beginning the first place: the success criteria. The students should be careful but how? For example, the respiratory movement: the fact to breathe relaxes and it enables students to concentrate better. It is a pedagogical tool! So the getting started is very important” (CT9).

These seem to use in their majority, the excessive authority (18.66%) to manage the discipline in the classroom.

“The students must adopt a pedagogical approach allowing to them to master the class voice placement in relation to their students…” (CT4).

Robbes (2004) explains that this authority occupies a considerable place in the educational process: “… the authority is essentially educational. The authority is synonymous with education”. By the verbs “to be”, “have” and “do” Robbes (2004) defines three reports to the authority “to be the authority”, “have authority” and “do authority” that alternate during the teacher’s action in the classroom. Thus, he considers that the authority plays a fundamental role in the educational process, and says: “mutual, negotiated, the recognition constitutes the key element of the process of authority legitimating” Robbes (2004).

Some PEST, panic and lose control of the situation (25.33%) when the discipline degenerates and will seek the help and the intervention of their mentors. One of CT had said:
“For example, a student came to ask me how to act face a student who says rude words” (CT8).
“This is a lack of authority on the part of students because these beginners, unless if the student is really has a strong character and has a very strong personality. But it is a rare quality among the beginners! So I had to call the student and I reprimand him!” (CT7).

They generally use excessive authority (19.33%). This is explained as much by their lack of experience (this is the first time they load instruction), by the example that they hold from their own teachers (Bali, 2005).

“Generally and unfortunately, students use excessive authority on the field” (CT5).
“The sanction is the last resort after changing mind (the sanction exists but it must be used as a last resort” (CT8).

Several authors argue that higher education physical education initial teacher training in England fails to recognise and accommodate the needs of disturb students’ behaviour, creating barriers to the profession and perpetuating the cycle of exclusion from the teaching profession. One CT had revealed to us:

“Because unfortunately, the majority of students in the next generation or the beginners in general use the excessive authority in the field: it is the teaching by commandment! Why? Because they:

• do not master the knowledge.
• Think that being authoritarian, students will apply.
• Present the task, correct and try to find solutions to the problems” (CT10).

CT report also that some PEST adopt a teaching-centred pedagogy (22.69%): they pay attention to their pupils (25%), call them by their name, identify leaders (18.18%) and occupy rewarding tasks interesting pupils (22.72%).

“The Cognitive axis: because we live in a society where we respect his superior, his father, his teacher… and we should not act at the same way with everyone!” (CT3).

To the question: “How do the mentors think helping their PEST to better manage the discipliner’s situation? We have identified two categories that can be classified as action centred on the teacher and action focused on pupils in almost equal proportions.

Indeed, 49.15% of the advices given by CT to PEST teachers suggest remedial pedagogy centred on the teacher:

• Prepare his lessons (17%):

“The students must adopt a pedagogical approach allowing to them to master the class: voice, placement in relation to their students, landscaping, and lesson content” (CT10).

“… They must well present the task, well explain it…” (CT3).

• Require teacher’s respect (15%):

“The trainee must be heard by his students without a power it is a relationship of respect” (CT9).
“The student must be respected by his pupils” (CT10).
“He must avoid nonchalance; otherwise he will not happen to be respected” (CT1).
“The trainee must be heard by the students” (CT3).

• And make appropriate decisions (13%):

“First I present to them the qualities of a teacher such as radiation, ease, authority, presence…” (CT3).
“… As against a hesitant student or teacher, who gropes, who can not make a decision, who did not prepare his lesson, all these elements could be disruptive elements of the course! (Students will not be concentrated)” (CT2).

Additional issues reported in the physical education literature cite the low status of physical education and the lack of respect given to the profession by members of the school community (McCormack & Thomas, 2003b; Schempp, Sparkes, & Templin, 1993), physical isolation within the school setting, fewer colleagues available for support, and a lack of appropriate resources or teaching space (McCormack & Thomas, 2003b). However, 50.78% of other advices given to the PEST suggest remedial pedagogy centred on the students that we are regrouped in different items:
• Locate the cause of the discipline (14%):

“For example, I have a lackadaisical student, who even if it overflows with accident risk, she makes even not count and it’s up to me to intervene and restore the order in the class!” (CT4).

• Valorising his students (12%):

“So the discipline in the classroom depends on the trainee attitude, that’s why the session started and authority are very important” (CT2).

“If there is indiscipline, it is the pupil who is not well educated. The indiscipline does not depend on the teacher or his content. For ST, it is because the pupils are not well educated” (CT1).

• Motivate them and (15%), occupy them throughout the session (12%):

“he panics and continues to scream but without doing nothing to solve the problem” (CT3).

“Thus, so long as he did not seek the reason of the indiscipline problem, she will never solve this problem” (CT4).

• Organizing his teaching by adjusting material, adapt his teachings, clarity of the instruction… (20%):

“But the student never thinks that it’s the content which does not attract the pupil attention or that the pupil is bored or he is into a risked pedagogical situation which is not adapted to his level…” (CT2).

“The trainee must assume responsibility. He is the responsible: he must search the error cause, that’s to say why the pupil did this or that? Because ST were too firm or too cool!” (CT6).

“It is the origin of the organization and not authority” (CT3).

“If you want to change their frame of mind and get them to understand why the indiscipline indexes occur, he should think on his lesson content, his pedagogical attitude, his behavior, the class organization… Transfer the reflection from the student to the teacher” (CT7).

It is in this case, as said this French pedagogue of the 20th century “to organize the teachings for that the discipline is respected” (Freinet, 1952).

Cooperative Teachers and PEST Conceptions’ about Indiscipline

Data of Table 3 have revealed the mentors authority conceptions that refer to what they qualify themselves of “natural authority”. The natural authority is considered as an authority not exercised, it is felt and perceived by students without that the teacher is able to recall it or exercise it. The majority of PEST returns the responsibility of these cases of indiscipline on the field to students during their didactic interventions. They said that indiscipline is because three main reasons: 1) Students are not well educated (42%); 2) Students are not interested (35%); 3) Students are not concentrated (23%) (Bali, 2012). Indeed, the first researches that have focused on the question of managing discipline in classroom were conducted in a linear fashion; the rupture of this order is the fault of the student (Jones & Jones, 1981). Then, the researches that have been conducted return the responsibility both to the student in his report to the rule (Latz, 1992; Méard et al., 1996; Bertone et al., 2002) or students’ incivility. The authority constitute a pedagogical preoccupation for the novice teacher (Dussaussois, 1997), in his capacity to ensure this requirement at the beginning of the scholar year, the authority represents an professionalization issue which pass necessarily through skills development, and is observed through professional actions

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3. Comparative pedagogy intervention.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogy centered on teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Remediation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Global</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Decision</td>
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4. Discussion

Our findings indicate that in the majority of cases (63.5%), supervisors’ predictions were within 5 points of the candidate’s total score on the PACT teaching event. However, in some cases, predictions and scores were within 5 points but differed on other dimensions such as pass/fail designation.

Darling-Hammond et al. (2002) also studied the relationship between teacher feelings and perceptions and teacher retention. Assessments of a teachers’ effectiveness can be used to judge teachers’ instructional ability (Sindelar, Daunic, & Rennells, 2004) and can lead a school leader to fire the teacher. However, most teacher turnover is voluntary (Thin, 2002; Marvel et al., 2007). Increasingly, teachers’ subjective assessments of their impact on student learning, such as whether they feel a sense of success (Johnson & Birkeland, 2003), their sense of self-efficacy (Yost, 2006), and their sense of personal power (Moscovici, 2009), have been found to influence teacher career decisions. The results presented in this article about PEST encourages interrogating their ability to manage their PES effectively. The answers that we have identified in the question “How mentors proceed spontaneously with their students?” had showed that mentors conceptions’ of the PEST’s intervention is centred on the teacher (77.31%). They adopt spontaneously a teacher-centred pedagogy: they screaming and panicking (25.33%). There are also severe even quarrelsome with their students, exclude them from the field (19.33%) when they exaggerate. These seem to use in their majority, the excessive authority (18.66%) to manage the discipline in the classroom. Robbes (2004) attest that authority is necessary in the educational process. According to him authority and education are equal.

Also, Robbes (2004) says that authority is fundamental and it’s common and it’s permanent during the teaching process in a practical session. Thus, he considers that the authority plays a major part in the educational process.

Some PEST, panic and lose control of the situation (25.33%) when the discipline degenerates and will seek the help and the intervention of their mentors. They generally use excessive authority (19.33%). This is explained as much by their lack of experience, (this is the first time they load instruction), by the example that they hold from their own teachers (Bali, 2005; Bali, 2013). Several authors argue that higher education physical education initial teacher training in England fails to recognize and accommodate the needs of disturb students’ behaviour, creating barriers to the profession and perpetuating the cycle of exclusion from the teaching profession (Fernandez-Balboa, 1990; Dussaussois, 1997; Flavier, 2002).

The mentors report also that some PESTT adopt a student-centred pedagogy (22.69%): they pay attention to their pupils (25%), call them by their name, identify leaders (18.18%) and occupy rewarding tasks interesting pupils (22.72%). To the question: How do the mentors think helping their PESTT to better manage the disciplinary situation? We have identified two categories that can be classified as action centred on the teacher and action focused on pupils in almost equal proportions. Indeed, 49.15% of the advices given by the monitors to the PESTT teachers suggest remedial pedagogy centered on the teacher: prepare his lessons (17%), require teacher’s respect (15%) and make appropriate decisions (13%). Additional issues reported in the physical education literature cite the low status of physical education and the lack of respect given to the profession by members of the school community (McCormack & Thomas, 2003b; Schempp, Sparkes, & Templin, 1993), physical isolation within the school setting, fewer colleagues available for support, and a lack of appropriate resources or teaching space (McCormack & Thomas, 2003b). However, 50.78% of the advices given to the PEST suggest remedial pedagogy centered on the students: locate the cause of the discipline (14%), valorising his students (12%), motivate them (15%), occupy them throughout the session (12%), organizing his teaching by adjusting material, adapt his teachings, clarity of the instruction… (20%). It is in this case, as repeated this French pedagogue of the 20th century “to organize the teachings for that the discipline is respected (Freinet, 1952). In the continuity of analyze, we have revealed among the mentors authority conceptions that refer to what they qualify themselves of “natural authority”. The natural authority is considered as an authority not exercised, it is felt and perceived by students without that the teacher is able to recall it or exercise it. However, in their interventions, the majority of the PEST returns the responsibility of these cases of indiscipline on the field to students. They explain indiscipline on the practical session of PE as follows: 1) Students are not well educated (42%), 2) Students are not interested (35%); 3) Students are not concentrated (23%). Indeed, the first researches that have focused on the question of managing discipline in classroom were conducted in a linear fashion; the rupture of this order is the
fault of the student (Jones & Jones, 1981). Then, the researches that have been conducted return the responsibility both to the student in his report to the rule (Méard & Bretone, 1996) or students’ incivility. The authority constitute a pedagogical preoccupation for the novice teacher (Dussaussois, 1997), in his capacity to ensure this requirement at the beginning of the scholar year, the authority represents an professionalism issue which pass necessarily through skills development, and is observed through professional actions (Jorro, 2002) that organize the teacher’s action. Fernand Oury (1995) said that “the authoritative is not authoritarian”. The skill of the master does the authority and this one results in actions, observable by students”. Making authority is probably the most important dimension in authority, because it gives shape to the other two dimensions, the status and subject author (who has enough confidence in himself to grow another). The educational authority is daring relationship to the other, goes after the resolution of a conflict, and does not drop its mission with students.

What psycho-pedagogic researchers say about the use of authority in the classroom?

In his book “Education in search of a new authority”, Imbert (1989) warns that any abuse of authority inhibits learning, by preventing the creation of a classroom climate friendly and serene, in which everyone can learn at ease. Indeed, an authoritarian teacher can scare students, but does not favor their learning, because learning new skills is a cognitive activity that needs serenity, freedom… Imbert (1996) also points out that the real authority is not an authority based on violence or fear, but rather an authority that derives its legitimacy from the scientific and pedagogical competence of the teacher and his ability to motivate students and occupy them. To be respected, a teacher must be perceived by students as a credible professional (scientifically, educationally and morally). However, because of its status and its early entry into professional life, a trainee teacher is vulnerable and finds many difficulties in his speech (Martineau, 2003).

Roger Cousinet. Former teacher became primary; Inspector is one of the first partisans of the experimental approach, related to a learning pedagogy. The child learns best when his attention will be motivated each time by a concrete goal that we have proposed to him. We need to build the knowledge; the master must not expose his knowledge, but must work with the child. “We can no longer teach, but learn” This is what the inspector advises. Similarly, it favours the group work, so that a community life is organized in his students, and that they join by themselves in a socialization process. Related to the other international pedagogical experience, Cousinet has made an innovation that constitute a kind of crucible for Freinet pedagogy. Only two elements oppose them, and make Freinet pedagogy the original: unlike Cousinet, who thinks that it is not the game that encourages the child to learn, if teaching knows to be attractive. Freinet rejects the game as a learning form. The Work that knows arouse the child's interest is at the heart of Freinet pedagogy. One thinks that it is easier to learn for a child if the acquisition passes through the game and the organization of recreational activities. The other argues that it is not the game that is natural in children, but the work, and that it must therefore be organized. The game should not lead to learn, but the work must reach be a game. What differentiates them is also the way how they approach the pedagogy: Cousinet, as an inspector can only theorize about the new school, Freinet can experience his method in his classroom.

The results “as shown in Table 3” of the empirical survey conducted among the mentors of the PEST show that these seem to use in their majority, the excessive authority during their teaching session to manage discipline in the classroom. Accordingly to Robbes (2004), this authority occupies a considerable place in the educational process: “… the authority is essentially educative. The authority is synonymous with education” By the verbs “to be”, “have” and “do” Robbes (2004) defines three reports to the authority “to be the authority”, “have authority” and “do authority” that alternate during the teacher’s action in the classroom. Thus, he considers that the authority plays a fundamental role in the educational process, and says: “mutual, negotiated, the recognition constitutes the key element of the process of authority legitimating” (Robbes, 2004). Teaching is a profession that requires flexibility, a practice exercised in the uncertainty. However, according to the statements of these mentors, the majority of the PEST seems to manage the discipline in the practical session using a teacher-centered pedagogy. This is explained as much by their lack of experience, (this is the first time they load instruction) and by the example that they hold from their own teachers (Bali, 2005; Bali, 2013; Bali et al., 2013). How the PEST may be able to develop professional skills that will lead him to identify and solve the problems in such complex area that is education in general and physical education in particular. Indeed, this is what (Allec & Jorro, 2008) qualifies by “being authoritarian” that is traduced the social and psychological affirmation of the individual toward the others or take again (in case of breakage) the control of the situation and put an end to the drifts. Thus, authors were interested to the concept of authority in order to formalize to make it accessible to the
field of the professional training. Therefore, this exceeds the narrow limits of the discipline to reach the whole training of these PEST. While in the theoretical courses we remind them of the need to put the learner at the center of the teaching learning process, it seems that the pedagogy practiced by their teachers, show them models centered on the teacher. Again, it is to reconcile the theoretical training with practical training (Bali, 2005; Bali, 2013). This is that (Allec & Jorro, 2008) qualifies by “being authoritarian” that is traduced by the social and psychological affirmation of the individual toward the others or take again the control of the situation. More concretely, teacher authority is the result of students’ recognition of the skills he displays in action. Such skills pass inevitably trough the operationalization of its disciplinary, pedagogical and relational knowledge’s. “Teacher authority is not natural but (...) results from a knowledge construction in action. The teacher is faced to the question of ‘how to do?’ that is to say to the actions knowledge’s that it engages in the practice of educational authority” (Allec, 2008).

Comparison between CT Conceptions and PEST Conceptions about Indiscipline

The result of CT and PEST conceptions about indiscipline revealed that they thought that excessive authority is natural. In fact, the natural authority is an authority witch we not perceive and that the teacher enforced without realizing that he is authoritative.

However, in their didactic practices, most of PEST argued that the pupils are the only responsible of these cases of indiscipline on physical education session. They said also and that the problem comes from their families. Dussaussois (1997) showed that managing class is the pedagogical priority of the novice teacher in his first year teaching. While some of the CT confirm that indiscipline in practical session is the fault of PEST. They don’t well prepared their course and are not attentifs to their people. The other CTs, said that it’s natural that ST can not be authoritarian because they are novice teacher and have no experience.

In fact, the education authority of the teacher is a bold relationship to another, just after the resolution of a conflict, and does not change his role with his students.

Also, Imbert (1996) puts forward that learning is promoted in a friendly and peaceful atmosphere, where everyone can learn at ease while abuse of authority can affect negatively learning. He argues that the natural authority is not an authority based on violence or fear, but rather an authority that derives its legitimacy from the scientific and pedagogical competence of the teacher and his ability to motivate students and to occupy them. To be respected, a teacher should be seen by students as credible professionally. However, Martineau (2003) confirms that, because of its status and its entry into the early job as a teacher, a student teacher is vulnerable and found many difficulties in his classroom management. By Roger Cousinet, Children learn best when attention is driven each time by a concrete target the teacher wants him. Likewise, it promotes the working group, so that students join themselves in a process of socialization. Unlike Cousinet who think this is not the game that encourages children to learn, work who knows arouse the child’s interest is at the heart of the Freinet pedagogy. We think it is easier for a child to learn if the acquisition goes through the game and the organization of leisure activities. The other argues that this is not the game that is natural in children, but the work, and must therefore be organized. The game should not lead to learn, but the work must reach to be a play. What differentiates them is how they approach teaching.

5. Conclusion

Therefore, in this study we examined the role of the mentors to help their PEST to manage authority. In summary, the issue is complex, because some PEST say that it is still too soon or too late. This reaction is explained by the fact that during the initial training, as the PEST was not confronted with a problem on the practical session, it is not yet in the intellectual dispositions to integrate the contributions of the monitors who could help them. This does not exclude, thereafter, theoretical contributions or the study of teaching and learning situations more “consistent”, encouraging the exercise of an educational authority. This occupation comes next, because it is “inaudible” for beginners, “stressed” by the management of the class everyday. According to my research, PESTT have fewer types of education coursework and shorter field experiences and feel less well prepared. Thus, new teacher career decisions are often driven by their perceptions of their effectiveness and other factors that relate directly to the quality of their preparation programs (Cohen et al., 1982; Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Moscovici, 2009; Yost, 2006; Bali et al., 2014).
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Comparative Study of Physical Education Students Teachers Style Interventions Teaching Styles Skill

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Abstract

The first classroom experiences are essential to learn how to teach. Anxiety and doubts related to their abilities to teach are the main characteristics that define the novice teachers (Scott, 1995). The aim of the research is to study the educational intervention of the physical education student teachers (PEST) and their evolution in the period of the preparation training for the professional life from the perspective of teaching styles that they used. Participants who had accepted to participate in this study were physical education students registered at high institute of sports and physical education in Tunisia (ISSEP). All were young males (21 ± 1 years old) enrolled in an introductory course to professional life, what we call in Tunisia introductory course to pedagogy (introductory practicum applied to pedagogy), where share of the curriculum was of the last year of the fundamental of physical education license. This professional learning activity was held in three high schools with mixed age classes (12 - 14 years old pupils) of a rural area in Tunis. The activity lasted two semesters, four hours per week on Tuesday or Thursday for a cumulative total time of 116 hours of teaching. A macro analysis of the results showed that the preferred styles by PEST were command style, practical style and reciprocal style (Table 1). The micro analysis of each of these styles indicated that ten sessions (62.5%) had been conducted with the command style of teaching, four (25%) with the practical teaching style, and only two (12.5 %) with the reciprocal teaching style. Finally, this study shows that the plurality teachers prefer teaching with the style of command that represents the lower limit of individualization; autonomy and creativity as the teacher centers his intervention on its own activities and not on the activity of the student.

Keywords

Teaching Style, Evolution, Student Teacher, Internship, Physical Education

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1. Introduction

“What distinguishes man as a species is not only his ability to learn, but also that of teaching”.
(Bruner, 1984)

One of the fundamental issues of education is to know what is teaching and what is best way of teaching (Willingham, 2007). The first classroom experiences are essential to learn how to teach. Anxiety and doubts related to their abilities to teach are the main characteristics that define the novice teachers (Scott, 1995). Situations where beginners are having dilemmas reflect a mismatch between the skills acquired in training, their plans or predictions of what will be their actions in the classroom, and knowledge built during the actions in the classroom. Concerning the study of activity, we can not neglect the essential theme regarding the relationship between theory and practice (Bali, 2005).

Thus, the training course shows that a great professional of physical education is distinguished by the quality of his practical application, through his understanding of didactics and methodology used to transmit contents (Carlier & Fox, 2007; Bali, 2013; Bali et al., 2014).

However, preparing quality practices also requires prior consideration at a theoretical level that involves the selection of activities to do, the best temporizing and its justification in the session. Without this preliminary theoretical reflection, and based on the design of human individuality of each trainer, the practice does not transmit all his educational power; the same way that the practical application continues to be a source of reflection of our beliefs as a teacher, no misinterpretation of the social progress of the physical education teacher can spoil the only observatory of human event which arise during the motor practice (Bali, 2005; Mead & Fox, 2007).

In this perspective and according to Wilfred Carr & Stephen Kemmis (1988) “Teaching can not be understood only by the reference framework during which assistants find meaning in what they do. The teachers could not even begin to ‘practice’ if they had not any theoretical knowledge about the situation in which they operate and some ideas on what should be done. In this sense, the teachers who relate to the practice of education must have prior theory which structures their activities and which guides their decisions” (Carri & Kemmis, 1988).

However, we can not talk about teaching without referring to the notion of teaching style. Each discipline corresponds to a dominant teaching style. This style will be authoritarian in mathematics, in French or in history and geography, and in a more laxed way in physical education, music education and drawing (Roiné, 2009). Or, can we say that each discipline is correlated to a particular style of teaching, or shall we think that there is a gap between the designs of today, and the teaching styles of a novice teacher of “yesterday”, who refers to the models he lived and that proved to be effective. This idea is similar to that of Yelnik (2005), a school model prevailing in the representations and the practices of teachers. This model is mainly characterized by a tension on the “lecture” mode for the transmission of knowledge, exclusion of the psychic dimensions, and a difficulty in re-thinking the group dimensions in the educational situations, three characteristics that appear to be linked (Mendel, 2002).

But for many, the so-called traditional teaching approaches are no longer adapted to today’s youth. If it is evident that educational innovation can positively influence the motivation and enjoyment of students, this innovation should not overshadow the existing and effective teaching processes. Knowing and taking into consideration the representations, the likes and dislikes of our students seems also to be as educationally important as the need to develop them, to go beyond them, to appreciate again or to recognize the former ones (Beunard, 1999).

Moreover, the period practical training in immersion in a school setting, expected in most training programs initial to teaching, for many students is a critical stage of their pre-professional development (Altet et al, 2002; Molina & Gervais, 2008; Bali et al., 2014).

Consistent with the foregoing, Serres et al. (2006) confirm that this moment of training is often perceived by the student as the one where he is really learning.

2. Conceptual Framework

The Teaching Style

To start, Altet (1994) defines the teaching style as the dominant way of being, making relations and teaching. In addition, he defines the style of teaching as a personal way to establish the relationship with students, to manage a classroom or a learning group, without prejudice of methods or techniques used. The teaching style is, according to Altet (1997), a combination, an interaction between three dimensions: personal style, relational style and
the teaching style. Similarly, Legendre (2005a) defines the style of teaching as the configuration of behaviors and attitudes that characterize a teacher in terms of components and various relationships of the educational situation. In another vision, Mosston and Ashworth (2002b) defined the style of teaching as a structure of the teacher’s behavior or the whole of decisions taken during the teacher-student meeting that produce a particular way of learning. Finally, Sara Ashworth (2010) described the style of teaching as an action plan that defines the interaction of specific decision between the teacher and the learner in order to develop specific goals associated with subjects and behaviors.

According to Raynal and Rieunier (2009) teaching aims to organize learning situations and to increase the opportunities to learn in a stimulating environment. Each individual in a teaching situation naturally develops a style of his own and brings him into a limited space-time to establish interpersonal relationships conducive to student development and to learning (Raynal & Rieunier, 2009). Indeed, several theoretical models have been developed to date to try to identify the different styles used by teachers (Banville, Richard, & Raîche, 2004). One of the models that have had a significant impact in the field of teaching physical education is that of Therer, and Willemart (1983).

By freely drawing on the work of Robert Blake and Jane Mouton (1964) in management, Therer and Willemart (1982) attempted to identify and describe four representative teaching styles observable teaching practices. These styles are defined from a two-dimensional model that combines two attitudes of the teacher: attitude regarding the material and attitude regarding the learners. Each of these attitudes is expressed in varying degrees, weak or strong, disinterest or interest. The combination of these two attitudes is used to identify the four basic styles such as:

We are still within the different teaching styles, the environment in which the SPE sessions can take place (stadium, gymnasium, outdoor, etc.) hardly lends itself to certain models of teaching where the motor dimension is absent, for example that of the role play or that of the class meeting (Joyce et al., 2004). Physical Education is defined as a discipline which requires the implementation of bodily practices in various physical activities (Legendre. 2005a; MEQ, 2005). In this sense, a selection of educational models for the SPE is necessary for the study of the act of teaching of this discipline. Mosston and Ashworth (2002a) highlight eleven teaching styles that apply specifically to the act of teaching physical education (Banville, Richard, & Raîche, 2004). However, unlike the work of Jean and Claude Therer Willemart (1983), the model of Mosston and Ashworth (2002b) does not group the styles (or models) of instruction into four families; it classifies them rather a continuum according to their reproductive orientation (teacher-centered learning) or productive (student-centered learning).

The range of teaching styles Mosston and Ashworth gives researchers a framework for the systematic analysis of teaching and learning in the field of physical education. “The range of teaching styles” that defines the different options and styles available depending on the chosen decision structure includes 11 styles: Command (A), Practice (B) Reciprocal (C), Auto-verification (D) inclusion (E) guided tour (F), convergent Discovery (G), divergent production (H), Individual Program (I), student Initiative (J) Self-education (K).

The eleven styles are distributed along a continuum according to the importance of responsibility in decision making; style “Command (A)” leaving the teacher (E) all decisions while the style “Auto Learning (K)” leave it to the student to decide for him/herself. Styles can be divided into two subgroups, the “reproductive styles” (A to D) and “productive styles” (E K). The “reproductive styles” have common characteristics to present content to teach the student using, for example, a demonstration or an image. The student can then attempt to reproduce in as few mistakes as possible. The main requirement at the cognitive level is memorization of the model to reproduce the technical elements, rules, etc.

“Productive styles” in turn encourage students to produce and discover for themselves the content and the necessary skills (Mosston & Ashworth, 2002a).

Teaching styles are made from different levels of decision-categories. Mosston and Ashworth (2002a) propose a gradation of teaching styles depending on the division of responsibilities: those granted to the teacher and those granted to the student (Bélanger, 2008).

The purpose of this research, which falls within the scope of the teaching of the physical activity and sports (APS), is the analyze of the educational intervention of the student teachers and their evolution in the period of the preparation training for the professional life from the perspective of teaching styles which they used. According to Mackinnon (1987), who relies on the work of Fuller and Brown (1975), four types of concerns successively affecting the trainee teachers during their initial internship. First, before their first teaching experience, their concerns would relate to difficulties in identifying the role of teacher. Later, their first contacts with students often
lead them to experience hard times and worries affecting their immediate survival as professionals (Bali et al., 2014). Then, confronted with the limits of their work, the young teachers tend to focus mainly on issues of approaches, styles and teaching methods. Finally, having overcome the first obstacles, they would gradually become interested in their practices, the quality of learning and social and emotional needs of their students. If one relies on this developmental model, we can assume that these are mainly the first types of concerns that affect students during their induction training.

Thus, we wonder about the impact of these concerns which are characterizing the student teachers during their initial training on the teaching style used.

- What are the most preferred teaching styles of the S/T?
- Is there any evolution in the teaching style used by the S/T?
- This evolution is-it intra or inter style?

3. Method and Data Collection

3.1. Study Protocol

This qualitative study explored the PE STs’ teaching style and their evolution over time. It identified and describes the styles used by the PE STs. In this section, we present the different steps of our methodological approach.

3.2. Procedure

Permission to conduct the current study by the University was Granted Institutional Review Board, the Tunisian Ministry of sports.

The researchers visited the PESTs in their respective schools in order to present the purpose and design of the research and obtain written informed approval.

3.3. Participants

The participants in this empirical study were 8 PESTs. All participated in this study were voluntarily.

The PESTs had accepted to participate to this study were registered at ISSEP. All were young males (21 ± 1 years old) enrolled in an introductory course to professional life, what we call in Tunisia introductory course to practice pedagogy (introductory practicum applied to pedagogy), that share of the curriculum is of the last year of the fundamental of physical education license. This professional learning activity was held in three high schools with mixed age classes (12 - 14 years old pupils) of a rural area in Tunis. The activity lasted two semesters, four hours per week on Tuesday or Thursday for a cumulative total time of 116 hours of teaching.

Participants were not remunerated for participating in the research. They were not informed of the purpose and design of the research and written informed consent obtained from Each of Them. The research proposal approved by the ethics was board of Sports Ministry.

In this study, we will attempt to verify through semi-structured interviews and video recordings of student teachers (E/S) of the main issues. In addition, the analysis of its questions, allow us to understand the different styles used teachings and developments over the period of the course.

The purpose of this research is to determine the evolution of the most used by eight student teachers lessons styles during a physical education session, while highlighting the complex and non-predictable the development of the activity of trainees teachers.

Two categories of data will be used: In a first, the video recording data of trainee teachers in the various contexts of physical education session. In a second instead of verbalizing data during semi-structured interviews to capture the sense of the activity and the style used by the player (which he referred, felt, learned in life situation).

To achieve these catch data, a special technical device was developed. It allows not only to record the verbal and non-verbal trainee but also to gather together during the session, comments “live” from the teacher.

The verbatim from the transcript of the speech of trainee teachers at the two catch data (first and second observation observation) was treated by analysis of categorical content type. The procedure for this assay is described by two points: 1) the cutting of the sense transcript in units; 2) the categorization process.

The counting of speech trainee teachers allowed us to prepare the grid for identifying teaching styles I/O and the statistical tool “Kh 2” used to analyze the evolution of different teaching styles.
For each participant, two sessions constituting a full teaching-learning situation (beginning and end) were observed. The third parameter to the duration of the session since according to Banville et al. (2004), it may affect the use of teaching styles by teachers. It was therefore determined that this study would focus on the observation of more than 40 minutes teaching sessions. Finally, the fourth parameter refers to postulate Mosston and Ashworth, (2002a) that there is a change in teaching style based on the number of students per class. In this regard, the number of students making up the classes observed is fixed in a range of (25 to 32).

3.4. Data Collection Process

3.4.1. Procedure
First to start this work, the permission was granted by the Director of ISSEP Tunis and teachers to realize the current study. Then, the researcher collected the PESTs to explain them the stages of the study.

3.4.2. Participants
Participants in our qualitative study were 8 PESTs requested the Higher Institute of Sport and Physical Education (ISSEP) Tunis (there are only 3 ISSEP Tunisia each of which has its own modality of teaching practice). All PESTs who participated in this study, taught in different academic institutions and studied in ISSEP is a public Higher Institute of Sport and Physical Education in Tunisia. Participants were selected taking into account the location of the land relative to the school and the level taught. They were recruited from a single Higher Institute of Sport (Tunis). The sample of participants consisted of the PESTs (third year, BAC +3) who taught Level 1 and 2 (first year of secondary school and second year). (Bali et al., 2014)

The choice of these criteria was because the PESTs had a compulsory internship in the third year of study and teaching the same level. All participants agreed to start during an informational meeting. Participants were not informed of the purpose and design of the research and the choice of each. The research project was approved by the ethics committee of the Ministry of Sports.

3.4.3. Video Recording
The collected data related to the practice of PEST’s style teaching, was constituted by a double video recording. The class and the teacher were filmed in a fixed plan. Concerning the second mobile camera allowed to follow closely the teacher and to collected the totality of the teacher and the students’ interactive behaviour. The note-taking of the teacher of the verbal intervention as and when his location does not allow the video recording closely.

About the gymnastics teachers coaching practices giving wide shot to see all the events that take place in the classroom, we retained: All the situations where the teacher talks to the class with a didactic purpose, when it comes to knowledge and learning. It is in these moments that are exchanged in part the basis of implicit and explicit didactic contract.

We collected all the verbal speeches, the manipulations, the mimics and the motor actions of the gymnastic teachers.

3.4.4. Analysis Data Processing of the Observation Sessions
For this step is proposed to categorize the intervention through the analysis of the video data of each session. It is therefore based on the observation of tasks constructed by the teachers, the teacher and the students’ behaviours, and the collection of collective interactions and those localized to a student or group of students. We started in a first step: by the video recording of the practical gymnastic sessions and their transcripts. To evade being overwhelmed by the data, we made a transcription as and when recording to situate the notes taken by the researcher during the video recording sessions. The gymnastic sessions are filmed in their entirety by the researcher who does not intervene during the session. It is to film all the didactic interventions of the gymnastics teacher. The camera is directed on the teachers and the students to enable an optimal observation of the interactions between the three poles of the triangle, which constitutes the didactic system (Chevallard, 1988) namely the teacher pole, the knowledge pole and the learning pole.

Finally, the topic of this study has not been announced to the teachers before the observation of the practical gymnastics sessions in order not to manipulate their teaching practices.

This first level of transcript gives grow to a first macro-analysis which allows regrouping data related to prac-
tical sessions according to the study moments which were therefore able to be identified: the first encounter with the knowledge, the work of the technical and the evaluation. This first step is essential for the elaboration of a grid in order to categorize the didactical interventions of participants.

The results will be presented in a grid elaborated by the researchers and presented in Table 1.

“A posteriori” analysis of the recorded PE sessions is another step which is based on the whole data collected during the observation of the recorded gymnastics practical sessions: the observation of the behaviour of the teacher interacting with his students during the session. We elaborated the grid observations of the PESTs’ didactic practices through the observation of the teacher behaviours to characterize the didactic practices of Tunisian PEST (Postic & De Ketele, 1980) which led to a corpus of 180 pages. This grid was constructed respecting two essential elements of this research namely: i) a corpus of 180 pages of the transcript obtained from the observations (exactly of 16 gymnastics sessions observed by the researcher); ii) The hypothesis of this research.

4. Result

Following the results obtained in Table 1 for the variable of Instructional styles frequency of use, we see that the eight student teachers conducted at the first observation (OBS1) a total of 2178 repetitions of which 835 refer the style of teaching per order, which gives us a percentage equal to 38.34% compared to the sum of the frequencies of repetitions of all styles, 728 practical teaching style which brings the percentage of 33.42% and 615% in reciprocal teaching style with a percentage of 28.24%. Whereas at the second observation (OBS2), they realized a total of 2108 repetitions of which 834 belong to the order by teaching style, which gives us a percentage equal to 39.75%, 756 repetition of the practical teaching style wearing the percentage of 35.55% and 518 to the reciprocal teaching style that contains a percentage equal to 24.70%.

Figure 1 shows that the teaching style of command was the most used style by PEST (835 repetition) in the first observation. Then, we find the practical teaching style (728 repetitions) followed by the reciprocal teaching style with 615 repetitions. Regarding the second point, there is always the teaching style per order on top of teaching styles with a slight decrease in the frequency of repetitions from the first one. This allows us to move the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style</th>
<th>Total = Σ(E1 + E2 + E3···E8)</th>
<th>OBS1</th>
<th>OBS2</th>
<th>X²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Command</td>
<td>835 (38.34%)</td>
<td>834</td>
<td>39.75%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical</td>
<td>728 (33.42%)</td>
<td>756</td>
<td>35.55%</td>
<td>7.692</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reciprocal</td>
<td>615 (28.24%)</td>
<td>518</td>
<td>24.70%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAUX</td>
<td>2178</td>
<td>2108</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
majority of trainee teachers (E/S1, E/S2, E/S3, E/S4 and E/S6) adopt a leadership attitude and have some authority, so they chose to teach with a control style for fear of losing control and mastery of the class. The teacher adopting the style of teaching per order therefore seeks to shape student behavior by tracing his own experiences.

Looking at Figure 2 showing the items of the command teaching style, we see that the control of exercises (257 repetitions) and orders (172 repetitions) are the most items used by the PEST at the first observation. This allows us to say that the teacher takes all the decisions alone as orders for fear of losing control and mastery of the class. They seek to maintain a certain order during the session for the purpose of booking a certain distance between the “young” teacher and the students, so that they see it as a real teacher, not as a “friend”.

Figure 3 shows the items of command teaching style. It is found that the control of the exercises (217 repetitions) and the orders (188 repetitions) are the most used items by student teachers at the second observation.
These two items are present more frequently than other items with a decrease in the frequency of repetitions on the control of exercises and increase the frequency of repetitions from the orders in the second observation. This allows the teacher to say that adopting the command style of teaching considered rather as an expert in the field of theoretical knowledge, shall adopt a leadership attitude and has some authority in the classroom.

As shown in Figure 4, the most used items of practical teaching style, used by student teachers at the first observation were the control of exercises with 255 repetitions followed by activities (109 repetitions). This allows saying that the student teacher gives more autonomy and more students liberties. It encourages them to live their own experiences and he abandoned the activity and the objective elements to greater interest in student learning.

Looking at Figure 5, which shows the items of the style of teaching practice during the second observation, we find that the exercises control with (227 repetitions) and choice of activities (107 repetitions) are the most used.

---

**Figure 4.** Practical teaching style “first observation”.

**Figure 5.** Practical teaching style “second observation”.

items from PEST at the second observation. Compared with the results of the first observation, these two items showed a decrease in the frequency of repetitions from the control exercises also by the choice of activities during the second observation. This allows us to say that this style is to facilitate the exploration of specific actions and reactions of students by promoting their personal initiatives.

Looking at Figure 6 which represents the items of reciprocal teaching style, we see that the choice of activities (109 repetitions), the teacher’s stimulation (105 repetitions) and the organization of work (94 repetitions) are the most items used by the student teacher at the first observation. This allows saying that the teacher gives more autonomy and more students liberties. It encourages them to live their own experiences and likes facilitate exploration of own actions and reactions of students.

Figure 7 shows items representing the reciprocal teaching style during the second observation. We find that the explanation of the exercises (102 repetitions), choice of activities (107 repetitions) and work organization (79 repetitions) are the most used items from PEST at the second observation. This allows us to say that this style allows the PEST to manifest feelings of insecurity and doubt that any beginner can try, too, this style is to facilitate the exploration of own actions and reactions of students and encourages personal initiative.

Figure 6. Teaching style reciprocal “first observation”.

Figure 7. Teaching style reciprocal “second observation”.
Following the results obtained at Figure 8 for changes in frequency repetitions of items of different teaching styles during the first and second observations of all of all teachers, we see that the integration teacher with the group (25 repetitions) and the disposal of material by the teacher (18 repetitions) are the least used items for different teaching styles, while the control exercises (427 repetitions) and orders (263 repetitions) are the most popular items from the student teachers during the first and second observation. They have completed over number of repetitions than other items in the two observations with an increase in the frequency of repetitions in the control exercises also from orders in the second observation, which allows us to say that trainee teacher takes all the decisions alone as fear of losing control orders and mastery of the class.

As shown in Figure 9, we see that the control of exercises (200 repetitions) and orders (117 repetitions) are the most used items in the first observation for the styles of the teachings of all PEST, which means, in relation to these results, that the majority of teachers seeking to maintain a certain order during the session for the purpose of booking a certain distance between the “young” teacher and students in order they take for a true teacher and not as a “friend”.

![Figure 8](image_url)

**Figure 8.** Frequency of items repetitions of different teaching styles during the first and second observations of all teachers.

![Figure 9](image_url)

**Figure 9.** Changing Items styles teachings of all the trainee teachers.
As shown in “Figure 10”, we see that the control exercises (23%) and orders (14%) are the most used items in the first observation for the styles of the teachings of all trainee teachers, while the teacher’s integration is virtually absent (0%), which means, in relation to these results, the majority of teachers seeking to maintain a certain order during the session with the aim to reserve a certain distance between the trainee teacher and students in order they take for a true teacher and not as a “friend”.

Figure 11 shows the frequencies of teaching style items in the second observation. We see that the control of exercises has the most repetitions (204) and orders (120 repetitions) are the most used items in the second observation for the styles of the teachings of all PEST. It confirms that almost of PEST look for maintaining order during the physical practical session.

Looking at Figure 12, there is still that control exercises (26%) and orders represent (17%) most popular items at the second observation for the styles of the teachings of all PEST which means, in relation to these results, the majority of teachers to adopt an attitude of leadership and exert some authority in the classroom. The teacher adopting teaching style items per order therefore seeks to shape student behavior by tracing his own experiences.

**Figure 10.** First observation of teaching style.

**Figure 11.** Frequencies of teaching style in second observation.
5. Discussion

Before analysis it is important to remember the parameters of the study. Each of the eight PESTs has been observed in a teaching-learning situation involving two sessions on two different physical activities. The data presented relate to the observation of 16 sessions on individual physical activities. During these 16 sessions, the teachers presented students with a total of 65 learning activities. The individual activities are racing speed, shot put, MCP (fitness test), Jump langour and gymnastics.

The directory studies on the model of Mosston and Ashworth (2002a), which has eleven teaching styles located on a continuum ranging from the reproductive style “command” to the most productive style “self-education” reveals and at the level of the school environment, physical education teachers are characterized by a fairly prescriptive teaching style in which learners are encouraged to apply guidelines rather than actively participate in the development of their learning (Wallonia Frederick, Gribomont, & Cloes, 2009; Kulimna et al., 2003).

However, the results of this study demonstrate a change in teaching styles from the student teachers “command, practical and reciprocal” always with the dominance of command style.

This research aimed to study the use of teaching styles and trends in physical education student teachers with the model of teaching styles Mosston & Ashworth (2002a). This theoretical model offers eleven teaching styles cue points on a continuum ranging from the reproductive style to the most productive style. The most reproductive style does not leave any decision to the student so that the most productive style leaves him all the decisions at a learning activity. Two research hypotheses were formulated: 1) dealing with the most used style by trainee teachers during the internship period; 2) that concerning the verification of degrees of changing styles of teaching trainee teachers.

A macro analysis of the results showed that the preferred styles by PEST are “command teaching style” as shown in Table 1 “practical teaching style” and “reciprocal teaching style”. Table 1 shows the frequency of use of each of these teaching styles in the teaching-learning situations.

Following the results in Table 1 for the variable teachings of styles frequency of use, it is found that the sum of the trainee teachers have realized at the OBS1 a total of 2178 repetitions of which 835 refer to the teaching style in order to give us a percentage equal to 38.34% compared to the sums of the frequencies of all styles rehearsals 728 practical teaching style which brings the percentage of 33.42% and 615 to the reciprocal teaching style with a percentage of 28.24%.

Following the results obtained in Table 1 and Figure 1 for the variable of learning styles using frequency is found that the sum of ST achieved at the OBS1 a total of 2178 repetitions of which 835 refer to the style “command teaching style” (38.34%), 728 to the “practical teaching” style (33.42%) and 615 of the “reciprocal teaching” style (28.24%).

Whereas at the OBS2, they realized a total of 2108 repetitions of which 834 belong to the command teaching
style is 39.75%, 756 repetitions practical teaching style to be 35.55% and 518 repetitions the reciprocal teaching style is a percentage of 24.70% as shown in Figure 1.

The results obtained by the chi-square test indicate that there is a significant difference between the two points with \( P < 0.05 \) (calculated chi-square is equal to 7.692 > \( X^2 \text{th} 5.991 \); DF = 2).

The micro analysis of each of these styles, has led us to a very detailed reading. The observations data were collected from two teaching sessions for each PEST. The results of this study indicate that sixteen sessions (62.5%) have been conducted with the style of teaching per order, while four (25%) with the practical teaching style, and only two (12.5%) with the reciprocal teaching style. According to this result, predominance in the use of control style that includes a pedagogical strategy for reproductive kind is observed.

From Figure 1 and the statistical analysis of data of Table 1, we see that the teaching style of command was the most used style in the first observation, and then there is the style of teaching practice followed by the reciprocal teaching style with 835.728 and 615 repetitions, respectively. Regarding the second point, there is always the teaching style per order on top of teaching styles with a slight decrease in the frequency of repetitions from the first one. This allows us to suggest that the plurality of PEST as shown in Figures 2-4 at the first observation for major of PEST (PEST1, PEST2, PEST3, PEST4 and PEST6) prefer to focus their work on the business, not the student and as shown in Figures 5-7 at the second observation. They adopt an attitude of leadership and positions of power, and eventually they chose to teach with a control style for fear of losing control and mastery of the class. The teacher adopting the style of teaching per order therefore seeks to model the behavior of students.

As shown in Figure 9 and Figure 10, the control of exercises and orders are the most used items in the first and second observation for the styles of the teachings of all PEST. It confirms that almost of PEST look for maintaining order during the physical practical session and tries to be respected by their students by keeping a distance from them. They hope being looked as real teachers

Moreover, the results allow seeing several forms of the act of teaching based on the model Mosston and Ashworth (2002b). First, there is the use of three teaching styles from the model of Mosston and Ashworth (2002b). The three styles of lessons observed are reproductive-type (A—command, B—practical and C—reciprocal) as shown in Figure 1 that do not allow the student to be the learning center. The results of the study, we validate two research hypotheses that the theoretical model of teaching styles easily allows to study the act of teaching natural context.

Furthermore, although the results of Figure 8, Figure 10 and Figure 12 allow such a conclusion, it is necessary to mention some limitations of PEST training. It would be interesting to replicate these results to a larger number of subjects and to assess the impact of personal characteristics of teachers on their teaching styles.

### 6. Conclusion

This study shows that the most of PEST prefer teaching with the style of command that represents the lower limit of individualization; autonomy and creativity as the teacher centers his intervention on its own activities and not on the activity of the student. It seems necessary to us to determine the ideal teaching style to encourage student involvement and hence their learning.

Finally, it is desirable that the results of this study, although reduced in number of topics can serve as a basis for future investigations.

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