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LIFELONG LEARNING
SE FORMER TOUT AU LONG DE SA VIE PROFESSIONNELLE

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Introduction

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In 2017 a group of educators gathered at the École Internationale de Genève (Ecolint) to discuss the organisation of a conference to promote Research Informed Practice in Education. Our first conference was held in 2018 with 39 participants from schools and universities in Switzerland, France, the UK, and China, all of whom presented ongoing action research projects. Faced with the challenges posed by the Covid-19 pandemic, the 2020 RIPE conference was held online with the aim of further developing an imagined if virtual community of learner educators. This time the conference involved nearly 80 participants from five continents, twenty-two research projects, and five virtual round-table discussions. Since then, the number of both school-based and university-based educators who have expressed interest in RIPE has grown. These diverse educators share with us a desire to develop further rich, critically reflective and ethically grounded environments for learning and teaching.

Ensemble, nous cherchons à favoriser un espace d'échange visant à approfondir notre compréhension de l'éducation dialogique dans un monde plurilingue et pluriculturel. Avec les autres membres du comité exécutif de RIPE - Catherine Montgomery (Durham University), Abdeljalil Akkari (Université de Genève), Ahmed Hussain (Harrow AISL) et Kevin House (Dulwich International), je vous invite à nous rejoindre pour explorer et mettre en perspective des sujets clés du discours contemporain sur l'éducation, bâtir de solides mécanismes d'échange et renforcer la relation symbiotique qui existe idéalement entre la théorie et la pratique.

Many thanks to the authors who have contributed to this edition of the newly entitled and peer-reviewed *Research Journal: International Education Theory and Practice.* I hope you will enjoy this rich and thought-provoking reading.

Knowledge is not an equal or a level playing field.

Catherine Montgomery's study of doctoral theses produced by international students in the UK offers a unique window into the ways in which the dominance of methodologies and theories of the Global North in educational research suppresses alternative voices in academia and reflects the dynamics of power relations associated with neoliberal systems of education and governance. Montgomery compellingly argues that the crisis/es engendered by the Covid-19 pandemic and other global issues reveal the need to acknowledge and draw from alternative ways of knowing.

The transformative potential of multiculturality

Montgomery's underlying theme of the social construction of knowledge is echoed in Akkari and Maleq's article on the need to rethink the pedagogical approaches that we bring to global citizenship education in order to harness "the transformative potential of multiculturality". Acknowledgment of global citizenship as a contested space that has long undervalued diversity and indigeneity could lead us towards a pedagogy that nourishes multiperspectivity, cognitive flexibility, and a tolerance for ambiguity.

Faisons entendre d'autres voix…

Fortier, Privat et Turan proposent un moyen d'étoffer la position théorique d'Akkari et Maleq en suggérant de modifier l'enseignement des littératures francophones dans le contexte des théories postcoloniales. Faisant écho à Akkari et Maleq, les auteurs interrogent la nature des identités et la tension inhérente entre l'universel et le particulier traverse le texte. Puisant dans leur riche expérience de l'enseignement de la langue A dans le programme du Baccalauréat International à Genève, les auteurs fournissent des principes pratiques et concrets pour nous guider dans la décolonisation du curriculum et l'ouverture aux élèves d'une gamme de littératures qui parlent de la diversité de la condition humaine.

It is the experience and reflection combined, where deeper learning - or even transformation - can take place.

Magnuson, Cosgrove, Porter and Ott take us into several classrooms in a Swiss boarding school as they experiment with the potential for teacherless observations to alter the culture of a school and to support student self-directed learning and personal agency. Their pilot participatory action research project radically decentres the traditional teaching dynamic and reminds us to question the stance we take as classroom practitioners and the assumptions we may make about individual students' autonomy and agency.

Your hexagons look like honeycomb…

Wang, Truscott and Dawson take us from the Swiss Alps to the north of England. Their study demonstrates the importance of language and mathematical literacy for lower primary students to understand the role that mathematics plays in the world. Their research equally reveals the powerful connection between visual representations and the understanding of complex mathematical concepts in young children. The impact on emotion and classroom environment is a significant implication for future research and contributes to deeper understanding of the conditions necessary to promote teaching for creative and productive thought.

This was when I learned most as a teacher.

The final article by Hussain and Anderson takes us to China for a study aimed at revealing optimal conditions for professional learning that promotes collective teacher efficacy while contributing to an enhanced learning experience for students. Their comparative analysis of the impact of action research, lesson study and a traditional approach to professional learning is testimony to the power of collaboration for all learners. This initial pilot study serves as an exceptional example of high-quality research methods used in school-based research and opens the way for further developments in the study of effective models for professional learning in a pluricultural context.

If you would like to submit an article to the next edition of the Research Journal: International Education Theory and Practice, we invite you to submit your work to karen.taylor@ecolint.ch by October 15th, 2021.

Knowledge, curriculum and dialogue in a pluricultural context: surfacing marginalised voices in internationalised schools and universities

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Some forms of knowledge are marginalised and excluded from international education in schools and universities. Western knowledge or the knowledge of the Global North usually dominates and this is particularly significant in a pluri-cultural pedagogic context. In elite contexts Western knowledge systems are prone to dominate and therefore we need ways of teaching in these contexts that allow alternative voices to be heard. Dialogic education provides us with an opportunity to rethink curriculum and pedagogy and could enable a more equal, polyphonic environment to emerge. This article considers how we can achieve a pluri-cultural educational context where many forms of knowledge and learning are valued.

Introduction

In Westernised education there is a tendency to devalue non-Western knowledge and alternative ways of thinking are often marginalised or excluded by the dominance of a Western canon of privileged monocultural and monolingual voices whose interpretation and reinterpretation constructs a field (Connell, 2007, p. 4). Connell notes that social, cultural and linguistic marginalisation does not only happen within the geographic binaries of the North and South but it is embedded in 'the centre relations in the realm of knowledge' (Connell, 2007, p. viii). It is important to consider this in the context of international education in schools and universities, where cultures meet and intercultural communities construct ideas. In this article the case of knowledge generated by international doctoral students studying in Western universities is presented as an example of marginalised knowledge (Singh & Meng, 2013; Montgomery, 2019, 2020).

This article argues that if 'dominant neo-essentialist theories of culture' (Holliday, 2010, p. 259) are cast aside, there are ways in which knowledge can be co-constructed across cultural boundaries. This is particularly needed in the context of international education, where there are stated aims to surface a repertoire of pluri-cultural student voices. In the past, school curriculum was strongly related to the culture of the society in which the school was geographically situated (Lawton, 1989, cited in Hayden 2011), but developments in technology and communications and intensifying global interdependence mean that school and university curriculum is no longer limited within a nation state (Hayden, 2011). Support for curriculum and teacher development in a globalised world comes partly through supranational initiatives such as Oxfam or the education programmes of the UN and UNICEF and international testing systems such as the OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). This should lead to school curriculum becoming more internationalised (Hayden, 2011). There are also systems of schools globally which resist being anchored to their national roots through developing supranational institutions. International schools (which are an integral part of 'international education') have been growing in size and influence outside the direct control of national education systems and policy (ibid). They cater to the 'aspirations of global knowledge workers for their children' and

are examples of the 'transnational spaces created by the globalisation process' (Hayden, 2011, 212). In these spaces pluri-culturalism and plural forms of knowledge need to be valued.

In this article I will examine the ways in which certain forms and sources of knowledge either dominate or are marginalised. As mentioned above, this is important if we are teaching in a pluri-cultural context where students and teachers come from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds, bringing knowledge but also assumptions which underpin their own world-views. How can we ensure that alternative or marginalised forms of knowledge are valued in international education? After all, international education aims to bring together diverse ideas and views into an intercultural context. How can we ensure that international education creates a dialogic space where all voices can be heard?

Firstly, I consider the idea of 'Southern theory' and consider how certain voices have been and continue to be marginalised. Here I refer to the work of Raewyn Connell who has innovated and published widely in this field (Connell, 2007; 2017). Connell considers the importance of the histories which have led to the hegemony of a Eurocentric curriculum, which, she notes, dominates globally. Connell (2007; 2017) talks about our modern systems of knowledge and the inequalities that surround them, focusing on the dominance of the 'Global North' or the 'metropole' in deciding what counts as legitimate knowledge. I use these terms in this article with the awareness that they are blunt instruments and mask a world of diversity. The Global North and South are not just geographic binaries but denote divisions of disadvantage and poverty within as well as across nations and continents (Müller, 2020; Montgomery 2020).

Secondly, in order to illustrate the ideas outlined above, I introduce the case of the international doctoral student, travelling to study in the UK. Of 84,630 postgraduate research students studying full time in the United Kingdom in 2016/2017, half of them, 42,325, were non-U.K. students, with 29,875 students being from beyond the European Union (HESA, 2018), yet there is little literature which values international students' doctoral research as knowledge which could be significant in the academy. I explain a research project I carried out using the EThOS digital repository of doctoral theses.

Finally, I come to the idea of dialogic education and plurality. Dialogue involves acknowledging other mind sets and listening to other voices. How can we bring plurality into international education and focus on co-constructing knowledge across cultural boundaries in universities and schools?

Southern theory and education

Knowledge and the (un)equal playing field

Knowledge and ways of knowing are culturally embedded and because of this they are influenced by histories, geographies and politics. How knowledge has developed within the context of education and particularly in the context of international education, has had a huge influence on the development of curriculum in both schools and in universities. If we agree that history is written by the victors or by those who have had the power to write it, then knowledge and consequently curriculum is written by those who are 'in power'. Michael Young wrote a seminal text in 1971 called 'Knowledge and Control' in which he talked about 'powerful knowledge' and 'knowledge of the powerful'. Young examines who decides what counts as knowledge and who decides what is included in and excluded from the curriculum. Young concludes that those who have the power to decide, decide what curriculum is (Young, 1971).

Therefore, knowledge is not an equal or a level playing field. The history and geopolitics of how knowledge has developed means that ways of knowing have a colonial past and because they have a colonial past, they also have a colonial present. Colonialism is embedded in the global education project and is very much present in the international educational context in both schools and universities. Connell notes:

> 'A Eurocentric curriculum prevails almost everywhere' (Connell 2017, 5).

The colonial legacy of the histories and geographies of international education also exert a strong influence on research, since research is about knowledge and ways of knowing. Traditionally, the vast majority of the world's resources for research are concentrated in the North (although China is reversing this trend to a certain extent: see Fry et al 2020).

> 'Despite the growth of universities beyond the metropole, the bulk of the world's resources for research sit in the global North' (Connell 2017, 5).

Connell (2017) notes that the most prestigious and influential centres are located in elite universities and research institutes in the Global North: in Europe and the United States. This influences how research develops, how it is done and who it is done by and therefore it influences how knowledge is constructed.

Dominant ways of thinking

It is important to point out that knowledge histories have an influence on the present. The African philosopher Paulin Hountondji coined the term 'extraversion' which refers to the fact that researchers in the 'periphery', or the 'Global South' or marginalised researchers, tend to lean towards the institutions, the ideas, the concepts and the methodologies of the Global North (Hountondji 1983). In the context of higher education, Collyer et al note:

> 'Knowledge workers in the periphery are oriented to, and become dependent on, the institutions, concepts and techniques of the metropole' (Collyer et al. 2019, 10).

As a result of this, some knowledge is excluded. Despite the power and originality of thinkers in the Global South such as Hountondji and countless others, researchers tend to turn to Europe and the USA as 'the site of key ideas, accepted methods, and the most advanced knowledge' (Collyer et al. 2019, 81). This threatens the construction of a pluri-cultural educational context because if there are only singular lines of thinking and singular forms of knowledge, then this constructs a mono-cultural education environment. If only some forms of knowledge and some forms of learning are valued then a pluri-cultural education will remain out of reach.

Knowledge and patterns of travel

Before moving on to an example, it is important to point out that the dominance of knowledge and the dominance of certain ways of thinking are reinforced by a range of institutions and many dominating systems. Patterns of travel or 'mobilities' are part and parcel of globalisation and the frequent and free forms of mobility that we have become accustomed to are an integral part of a globalised world. These patterns of travel and mobility around research and knowledge transfer are one of the reinforcing factors around the dominance of the Global North and the dominance of Eurocentric knowledge (Brooks and Waters, 2017). Interestingly, these patterns of research and mobile international collaboration are changing in the context of Covid19, with recent research indicating that research teams are becoming smaller and more nationally-based in a post-Covid19 scientific world (Fry et al 2020).

In terms of patterns of mobilities and immobilities of international students, directions of travel tend to be from the Global South to the Global North, or from the 'East' to the 'West' (Xu and Montgomery, 2019). As academics and researchers move around the globe, these patterns are repeated with academics from the global South tending to visit the global North in order to 'develop' their knowledge and academics from the Global North tending to travel to the Global South to collect data or to deliver keynotes or attend conferences (Connell 2017). These patterns of travel are reinforced by competition in universities and the way in which universities compete globally and this is supported by the global league tables of universities (Marginson, 2014). Thus, directions of travel and patterns of dominance are reinforced by the neoliberal governance of universities (Connell, 2017) and schools (Montgomery and Brown, forthcoming) and systems and patterns in institutions ensure that certain forms of knowledge remain dominant. These patterns of competition and neoliberal governance are also seen in elite schooling (Hayden, 2011).

In summary, Southern theory (Connell, 2007; 2017) aims to illuminate the ways in which certain forms of knowledge dominate and how they exclude plural ways of thinking.

> 'Knowledge generated in the colonial encounter, and in the postcolonial experience of the colonised societies, is central to the idea of Southern theory' (Connell, 2017, 9).

What we refer to as 'Western' knowledge, or the Global North or European knowledge are dominant forms of colonial knowledge which exclude significant ideas, concepts and methodologies which originate from the colonised world (Tuhiwai Smith 2012). Powerful ideas and concepts that come from the colonised world and are largely ignored by mainstream knowledge hold much more than just localised interest (de Sousa Santos 2014).

Now more than ever we need plural ways of thinking to solve the world's great crises. The global pandemic of Covid19 has highlighted this acutely for us and climate change will also reinforce this. We need pluri-cultural knowledge and a pluricultural curriculum in schools and universities. Research must be able to draw on different and alternative ways of thinking to solve the world's most pressing challenges and the knowledge of the Global South is crucial to us being able to solve these global issues. Querejazu (2016) uses the concept of 'the pluriverse' to argue that introducing different ontological positions, such as relational visions of the Andean worldview, can enable alternative ideas and outcomes to emerge.

The case of international doctoral knowledge

I will now consider the case of the international doctoral student and the knowledge produced by international doctorates as an example of marginalised knowledge. This illustrates the ways in which some forms of knowledge can be marginalised but where there is potential for pluralistic knowledge to emerge. Despite the fact that many doctoral students, particularly international students, research a range of important topics in education and the social sciences, this knowledge is rarely recognised as a coherent body of knowledge from which the international education community can learn (Montgomery, 2019; 2020). Since 2018, I have been working with EThOS, the digital collection of the doctorates completed in UK universities, held by the British Library. This is a collection of around half a million doctoral theses completed by students across the UK and encompassing all disciplines from social sciences and literature to hard sciences. The research aims to surface some of the ways in which the knowledge generated by doctoral students could illustrate new perspectives, particularly in terms of knowledge building for students' own country contexts. I have focused in particular on how these doctoral theses could inform international education and offer new lines of thinking.

This research has been reported on and published elsewhere so extensive details will not be repeated here (see Montgomery, 2019; 2020). The research relied upon a systematic search

of the UK doctoral theses in the EThOS repository of the British Library, focusing on the theses which concentrated on student engagement with internationalization. The research was carried out in three phases. First, there was a thematic search for theses written in the decade 2008 to 2018 around particular themes in international education, using specific search strings including “student engagement in higher education” which generated 58 items and “internationalis(z)ation in higher education” which generated 322 theses. Second, the data set was narrowed by excluding irrelevant items from the analysis. The final data set consisted of 94 doctoral theses. Third, the data was analysed using a categorisation and coding approach. There was also a closer analysis of particular theses’ titles and abstracts, and the main sections of some theses were considered in more detail (Montgomery, 2019). The doctoral theses were constructed as secondary data and the aim was to demonstrate that doctoral theses could be consulted as a coherent data set and interpreted as ‘powerful knowledge’.

The analysis of the theses held out many of the issues raised above around Southern theory and education and about marginalisation of some forms of knowledge. The findings indicated that students’ research was limited by issues of geographies and their choices in terms of theory and methodology. The theses explored international higher education in 38 different countries including African countries, the Americas, and Australia, across the Asian continent and Europe. Despite this, very few students analysed international education systems beyond their own country and/or the UK, showing that there was a narrow interpretation of the idea of ‘international’, and demonstrating what Connell terms a ‘pattern of quasi-globalisation’ (Connell, 2007). The limitations in the analysis of geographical contexts were further evidence of the unequal circulation of ideas and knowledge and seemed to hint at the limits of international education (Montgomery, 2019).

In addition to this a narrow set of methodologies were used, with the methodologies being mostly qualitative or mixed methods approaches, supporting Tuhiwai Smith’s (2012) suggestions that Western methodology is also a dominating factor. The theory adopted by international students was almost exclusively ‘Western’ theory, with frequent use of theorists such as Bourdieu or Foucault and Western ideas such as Communities of Practice and Global Citizenship being commonplace. The international students tended to use predominantly Western concepts and ideas to explore their non-Western educational contexts. This was also evident for those exploring the UK context (Montgomery, 2019). This echoed Hountondji’s ideas around ‘extraversion’, where the tendency for researchers of the Global South to refer to knowledge of the North (Hountondji, 1983). It is important to note that these delineations of ‘Western’ and Eastern thinkers are not clear cut but blurred. Bourdieu and Foucault both worked for long periods in the Global South and were influenced by theories and thinkers of ‘the South’. As ideas from ‘the West’ are increasingly applied in non-Western contexts their interpretation becomes more plural. Despite this, the dominance of the knowledge, concepts and methodologies of the Global North persist (Tuhiwai Smith, 2012).

I concluded from the research that doctoral students’ research was bound and limited in its research imagination (Appadurai, 2001) by the institutions, the social, cultural and political practices of that institution and by the academic traditions and pedagogies of the institution. Connell notes:

> ‘Contemporary universities are powerful institutions, interlinked on a global scale; but they embed a narrow knowledge system that reflects and reproduces social inequalities on a global scale’
> (Connell, 2017, 10).

Student research and ways of thinking are thus limited by what the institution and its systems allow (Carey, 2018). Research and knowledge are highly institutionalised and set in

the fields of knowledge and the communities of the academy (Tuhiwai Smith, 2012; Montgomery 2019), making it challenging for doctoral students, particularly, international doctoral students, to contribute new ways of thinking.

Pedagogic encounters could, however, play a role in addressing this and in this research, I highlighted the importance of the supervisory relationship between the doctoral supervisor and the international student. Some key literature on doctoral student engagement considers principles and power relations in supervisory pedagogies (Singh, 2009). Given that doctoral supervisors are predominantly white middle-class males and at least half of doctoral students in the United Kingdom are international, it is crucial to address these cultural power relations in this predominantly colonial encounter. There are also intersectional issues at work in this pedagogic environment, around gender and other aspects of diversity (Crenshaw 1991). There are dominances in the social and cultural relationship as well as in the forms of knowledge and this is the intersection where pedagogy can exert an influence. Space must be constructed for alternative forms of knowledge to emerge and I argue in the next section of this article that dialogic forms of education can provide a means of addressing this.

Towards a dialogic education?

Identifying the dominance of Western theory and practices is significant but it is also important to consider what can be done to address these inequalities, particularly in the case of international education. This section will consider the role of pedagogic encounters in addressing inequalities of knowledge and curriculum in international education. Here the concepts and ideas associated with dialogic theory and dialogic thinking and teaching will be considered.

Much research has been carried out in the field of dialogic education and the work of the 'Bakhtin Circle' (Bakhtin, Volosinov and Medvedev) is particularly influential in this field (Fernández-Cárdenas, 2015). Whilst the Bakhtin Circle are, in many ways, also theorists of the Global North, their work on dialogism has had global influence. Fernández-Cárdenas draws closely on the work of Bakhtin and he underlines the importance of language positioning in pedagogic relationships, in addition to the ethics involved in building a dialogic space 'in which two or more voices can express themselves without trying to silence each other' (Fernández-Cárdenas, 2015, 3). This is particularly pertinent in the contexts of international education, and particularly international schools which tend to be pluri-lingual environments. In these complex environments there are issues of language positioning in the pedagogic relationship and there are ethics involved in the dialogic space (Fernández-Cárdenas, 2015). A study carried out by Song (2021) using in-depth interviews and ethnographic classroom observations showed that in an English Medium of Instruction (EMI) curriculum there was a hidden dominance and hierarchy among students based on their pre-existing linguistic capital of English and cultural capital relating to 'Western' or Americanised academic norms and discipline-specific knowledge. The questions around the dominance of the English language poses another set of power interrelationships in the pluri-cultural context and dominance of a particular language adds another layer of dominance. All of these complex interrelationships of language and ethics exert an influence on whether two or more voices can express themselves without silencing each other (Fernández-Cárdenas, 2015).

Fernández-Cárdenas (2015) notes that dialogic practices require interventions that 'allow for the elaboration of knowledge previously presented by students as well as favouring the construction of disciplinary knowledge in the classroom' (2015, 3), ensuring a focus that closely relates to students' interests (ibid; Fernández-Cárdenas & Silveyra-De la Garza, 2010; Rojas-Drummond, 2000). So, based on Fernández-Cárdenas' suggestions, here I want to emphasise the significance of students elaborating their own knowledge and

highlighting the knowledge that students bring to the curriculum. Also, the work in dialogic education underlines the importance of the disciplines having space for the interests of students. So, these sorts of interventions could be borne in mind when setting up our classrooms and establishing patterns of delivery. There needs to be a dialogic relationship between students, their knowledge and interests and the curriculum.

In dialogic theory for education, the research indicates that there are mechanisms that can create the conditions for plurality in the classroom and can enable the co-existence of various voices (Fernández-Cárdenas 2015). The theory in this field also tells us that dialogic interaction breaks down hierarchies (sometimes through humour or satire) and this is important in the context of schools and universities where there are strong hierarchies. These hierarchies may include the hierarchical relationship between teachers and students or between supervisors and their doctoral student, as in the example given above. In strongly structured or hierarchical environments it is difficult for knowledge exchange to be on an equal footing. Dialogic education can sometimes break these hierarchies down and create a freer environment (Montgomery and Fernández-Cárdenas 2019). In a dialogic context:

> … 'all distance between people is suspended, and a special carnival category goes into effect: free and familiar contact among people' (Bakhtin, 1984, p. 123, italics in original cited in Fernández-Cárdenas, 2015).

Bakhtin talks about 'carnival' in his work and this is about the free and familiar contact between people which denotes an informality of interaction in education. This can provide spaces for alternative voices to come through. These informal dialogic spaces could also be applied to the colonial encounter of the doctoral student with their supervisor, as raised above. The potential for opening dialogic space in doctoral education will be contingent on the ability of students and supervisors to be open to what De Sousa Santos describes as "intercultural translation" and the capacity for "mediation and negotiation" (De Sousa Santos, 2014, p. 222). This involves a collective intellectual endeavour going beyond individuals to engage the structures of the whole academy in embracing the potential of the doctoral knowledge (Montgomery, 2019).

The theory around dialogism also considers dialogue to be a thinking device. Dialogic education is not just an instrumental technique in the classroom but it also acts as a thinking device. Keys and Bryan note:

'Those teachers and students engaged in dialogic discourse treat utterances as thinking devices to generate and extend knowledge and the dialogic discursive style is considered to be necessary for the social construction of knowledge' (Keys and Bryan, 2000, p.634). Thus, I suggest here that in terms of finding a solution to the dominance of Western forms of knowledge, dialogic education might provide some answers. These socially constructive and co-constructive approaches to education can make spaces for alternative voices to come in and new ways of thinking to be heard. This may enable opportunities for marginalised knowledge and ways of thinking to enter the academy and make their way to the curriculum.

Dialogue in practice in education, however, will need to be embedded into a range of social and cultural initiatives if it is to adapt the curriculum. There may be some momentum for curriculum change in grassroots protests and movements for decolonising curriculum in both higher education and schools. There has been a surge in activism relating to decolonisation of curriculum, pedagogies, classrooms and knowledge production (Moosavi 2020) and these are community movements which have global support such as Black Lives Matter, Why is my Curriculum White? or movements emanating from South African student protests, such as Rhodes Must Fall and Fees Must Fall (Political Studies Association, 2020). These movements could interact with dialogic education in an interesting way, breaking down

power relationships in education, enabling equal participation and changing patterns of knowledge production (Tuhiwai Smith, 2012; Montgomery and Brown, forthcoming). Initiatives around a more dialogic and equal participation are needed in the modern world and we need to enable the development of spaces in the curriculum which promote a better understanding of pluri-cultural societies. In 21st century international education both in schools and universities we need a pluri-cultural way of thinking; we need pluri-cultural ideas, knowledge and curriculum which do not only favour Western knowledge and ways of thinking but that allow space for knowledge and ideas from the Global South to be valued.

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Global Citizenship Education: re-envisioning multicultural education in a time of globalization

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Abstract
As societies face unprecedented challenges that are global in scope, educational policy makers emphasize the importance of fostering active citizens capable of resolving complex global issues. In this paper, we explore how Global Citizenship Education (GCE) frameworks could open up new perspectives to rethink dominant approaches to multicultural education by expanding pupils' understanding of cultural and ecological relationships. Furthermore, we argue that while dominant approaches to multicultural education are well-intentioned, they are often limited to essentialist visions of cultures and therefore fail to develop a critical understanding of inequality and power relations. To address this question, we first examine the different conceptualizations of GCE and the role of international organizations in the increasing attention given to the concept of global citizenship. Second, we discuss the current crisis of multiculturalism and multicultural education. Third, we consider different theoretical frameworks for GCE. Finally, we conclude by arguing that GCE may represent an opportunity to overcome the crisis of multiculturalism, unifying students around a set of democratic values while valuing multiple identities and cultural diversity, deepening knowledge about the root causes of global issues and promoting a fairer and more just global society. GCE may indeed provide a framework to carefully balance universalism and diversity in multicultural societies and tie values of diversity with overarching values of unity, justice and equality.

Keywords: Global Citizenship Education, multiculturalism, diversity, justice, equality

1. Introduction

In the light of increased globalization, migration and the crisis of multiculturalism[1], scholars today recognize citizenship as more complex and nuanced than simply being a member of a nation-state. For instance, one can be a member of several cultural communities, a resident of a nation state, and may perceive membership of a diasporic or global society. Furthermore, many individuals are transnational citizens. In this context, refugees, migrant workers, immigrants, or people employed by transnational companies requiring their frequent relocation often with their children, maintain attachments to multiple communities (Abu El-Haj, 2009). In this respect, Bagnall (2015) proposes considering the "concept of affiliation and belonging from a global rather than a national perspective" (p.2).

Indeed, increasingly diverse societies are reshaping traditional models of citizenship which imply a natural affiliation to the nation-state and a shared sense of belonging (Akkari & Maleq, 2020a). These transformations in societies are leading to a new conception of citizenship that accommodates multiple identities and a sense of belonging to one human family as described by Maalouf (1998). Indeed, shared humanity is at the heart of global citizenship.

[1] The multiculturalism crisis has two dimensions: political and educational. (1) Alongside the rise of far fight, leaders from the political mainstream (Sarkozy, Merkel, Cameron …) have expressed skepticism towards multiculturalism. (2) Many scholars deplore that a majority of multicultural approaches in education remain essentialist and folkloric.

Banks (2009) speaks about identity as multiple, changing, overlapping and contextual, and asserts that a major problem facing nation-states throughout the world is how to accept, recognize and legitimize differences and yet construct an overarching national identity that incorporates the voices, experiences, and hopes of the diverse groups that compose it.

As well as accommodating multiple identities and reinforcing a feeling of belonging to a global community, global citizenship generally extends the idea of rights and responsibilities beyond the limits of the nation-state and involves components of empathy and intercultural knowledge, sustainable development, human rights, and shared values.

Multicultural education for its part has been a prominent concern for educators and policy makers since the 1980s. Although it has increased in importance since the beginning of the 21st century, dissenting voices are can be heard regarding the hegemonic vision of intercultural competency (Asmer, Kerr & Andreotti, 2020) and the essentialized and static way of presenting culture (Dervin, 2015) that reinforce the process of "othering".
In this respect, even if the acquisition of intercultural competences is an essential step to enable groups to co-exist peacefully, the transformative potential of multiculturality can only be realized by addressing the root causes of social divisions, inequalities and injustices.

For this reason, we question whether GCE frameworks could open new perspectives to rethink dominant approaches to multicultural education in an era of globalization and growing inequalities. To do so, we will first examine the different conceptualizations of GCE and the role of international organizations in the increasing attention given to the concept of global citizenship. Next, we attempt to understand the current crisis of multiculturalism and multicultural education. We then present theoretical frameworks for GCE and conclude by arguing that GCE may represent an opportunity to rethink dominant approaches to multiculturalism and promote peaceful co-existence and global social justice.

2. Conceptualizations of GCE and the Role of International Organizations

Although global citizenship is not a new concept, the acceleration of globalization in the last few decades and the influence of international organizations have resulted in widespread scholarly interest in the term, leading to a considerable range of theorizing regarding its application (Gaudelli, 2016). Global citizenship and related terms such as "cosmopolitanism", "global mindedness", "global consciousness", "global competencies" and "world citizenship", have been in use for decades in educational and political discourses. Although the earliest manifestations of these ideas were abstract and generally limited to well-educated elites, today scholars and educators worldwide use global citizenship to define or mediate identities in the age of globalization (Myers, 2016; Oxley & Morris, 2013; White, 2019).

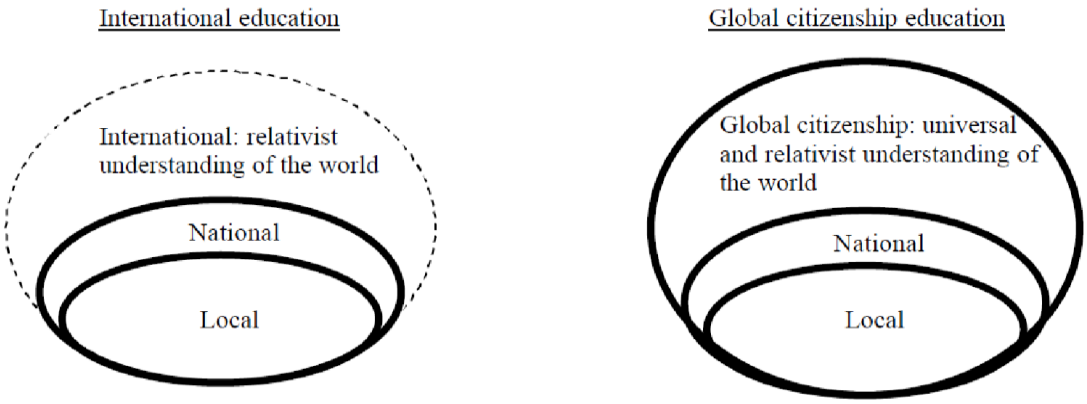
The focus on GCE is relatively new in educational systems in comparison to traditional nation-centric approaches to citizenship education which, in the second half of the 20th century, gradually replaced civic and moral education present in compulsory schooling from the end of the 19th century in many Western countries.

Although citizenship education was historically rooted at a national level, global education and world studies have also been promoted in schools over the last decades. Although not directly referred to as citizenship education or GCE, these programs were designed to teach about global interdependence and cultural diversity through participatory learning and experimentation of values (Davies, 2006).

To refer to the general construct of GCE, the literature uses various terms such as "learning about the world", "education for world citizenship", "global education", "global competencies" "intercultural competence", and "international education". Although these concepts are related, Mahlstedt (2003) pointed out a key difference between "global citizenship education"

and “international education”. “Global citizenship education” refers to education that seeks to push students to expand their understanding of and personal identification with a geopolitical paradigm beyond the nation-state. In doing so, it necessarily encourages some level of engagement with normative universal values, while simultaneously engaging relativistic differences. “International education” etymologically deals more with education “between nations,” and as such does not traditionally push students to move beyond the historical limit of the nation-state in terms of self-identification. International education creates an understanding of humanity’s relativistic differences, but fails to engage our more universalistic commonalities. International education differs from “national education” offering students declarative knowledge of nations and cultures other than their own. The figure below compares how international and global citizenship education play different roles in student identity formation. The bold circles represent the extent to which each type of education pushes students to identify, whereas the dotted line represents awareness of a level without identity connection. As the figure shows, international education creates in students’ identities local and national citizenship, while creating awareness about international differences and similarities. The emphasis, however, is always on the nation-state as the highest level of connection, and so international education fails to project student identities towards a universal humanist global connection. Global citizenship education differs in that, while not replacing local or national citizenship, it adds yet another layer to students’ identities by encouraging them to understand their individual universal humanistic connections in addition to differences. Diversity and multiculturalism are hence considered within a larger understanding of a global identity.

Figure 1: Student Identity Formation in International and Global Citizenship Education



Source: Mahlstedt (2003)

In an effort to map the existing approaches to global citizenship, Veugelers (2011, p.476) distinguishes between three categories of global citizenship: “open global citizenship”, which recognizes the interdependence between nation states in the global age and opportunities for cultural diversification; “moral global citizenship”, based on equality and human rights, which emphasizes global responsibility; and “socio-political global citizenship”, which is meant to shift the balance of political power to promote equality and cultural diversity worldwide. These categories are hierarchical, with “open global citizenship” representing a shallow form of Global citizenship and “socio-political global citizenship” representing a profound form with the integration of postcolonial and Global South perspectives. Nevertheless, the aim of developing a global form of citizenship contrasts with the realities of vast numbers of marginalized citizens across the globe, to the extent that marginality appears to be the “hidden other” of global citizenship (Balarin, 2011).

Global citizenship is the target of much theoretical criticism and can be viewed as serving the Western world (Howard, Dickert, Owusu & Riley, 2018). Several scholars addressed strong critiques to GCE which they consider to be Eurocentric, neo-colonial and unsuitable for the Global South (Abdi, 2015; Sharma, 2018; Dreamson, 2018; Misiaszek & Misiaszek, 2016; Lauwerier, 2020). Critics of the term often refer to its ambiguity and Western assumptions that are considered to be embedded in its very core (Andreotti, 2006). In the global South, global citizenship is considered to be a tool for student empowerment and the creation of economic opportunities; sometimes, however, its meaning is reduced to knowledge of the English language thought to enable students to exercise the opportunities for mobility that economic globalization offers (Quaynor, 2015).

Global citizenship could also become an instrument of oppression whenever it turns into a normative ideal in opposition to 'backward' forms of national or regional belonging and more 'traditional' communities. In other words, there is a pressing need to enhance understanding of local perspectives, ideologies, conceptions and issues related to citizenship education on a local, national and global level in order to open global citizenship agendas to diversity and indigeneity. This may, however, only be achieved by rethinking the Eurocentric paradigm of modernity reflected in conceptualizations of global citizenship and promoting national, cultural and local ownership (Akkari & Maleq, 2020b). In the global South, the possible relevance of GCE is thus linked to its openness to a non-Western view of global citizenship (Quaynor, 2018).

To respond to the critique of the concept of GCE being essentially developed within a Western paradigm, UNESCO (2018) has sought to identify national concepts that convey similar meanings. In Bhutan, the concept of "Gross National Happiness" plays a part in national policy, asserting the primacy of societal good over economic growth. In Ecuador, the concept of "Shared Humanity" is at the root of *Sumak Kawsay*, an Indigenous Andean concept, which places humanity as an integral part of the natural and social environment.

One of the challenges associated with global citizenship is the possibility that, like globalization, it would mostly benefit members of elite groups, thereby deepening societal inequality (Gardner-McTaggart, 2016). Moreover, some critics argue that, as an identity model, the concept could weaken nation-states and national social cohesion by providing citizens with an alternative global identity (Bowden, 2003); or, rather, that the notion itself is moot since no global governmental body exists to assume responsibility for the global society we aim to create or to foster. Indeed, the failure of international organizations to settle most violent international conflicts may stifle the idea of world governance.

Furthermore, global citizenship has been impacted by the anti-globalization discourse that has flourished across a broad political spectrum in recent decades. In Europe, the far right presents globalization as the enemy of national interests and accuses the European Union and multiculturalism of being the accomplices of predatory globalism (Salvatore et al., 2019). The radical left criticizes the standardization of economic and social policies in the world and the hegemonic role of neoliberal international organizations such as the World Bank, the IMF and the WTO, where the losers are the working classes (Tilly, 1995).

Despite being a highly contested subject, international organizations, particularly UNESCO, have played a key role in promoting global citizenship and lobbying governments to include it in educational institutions' curricula and from an early age up to university.

> Global Citizenship Education aims to empower learners to engage and assume active roles, both locally and globally, to face and resolve global challenges and ultimately to become proactive contributors to a more just, peaceful, tolerant, inclusive, secure and sustainable world (UNESCO, 2014, p. 15).

It could be argued that UNESCO's approach to GCE is not easily classified within Veugelers (2011) categorization since its learning objectives may be interpreted in various ways; some of which can be associated with "open global citizenship" whereas others relate more to "moral global citizenship" or "socio-political global citizenship".

The adoption by the international community of the Sustainable Development goals (SDG) in 2015 offered a new dimension to Global citizenship. SDG 4.7 aims "by 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture's contribution to sustainable development." (UNESCO, 2020)

International organizations prioritizing economic development are also interested in global competencies related to global citizenship. Global competence was added as a new domain to the main PISA instruments in 2018 with the aim of evaluating young people's understanding of global issues and their attitudes towards cultural diversity and tolerance. However, it is not yet clear if it will be part of the regular PISA instruments in the future. Viewed as an increasingly important competency in today's society, this recent addition to the PISA assessment tools reflects young people need to be able to leave school with the competencies, knowledge, skills and attitudes to be able to learn, live and work in a global and interconnected world. We can however question the existence of a universal global competence that could be accurately measured by a standardized test.

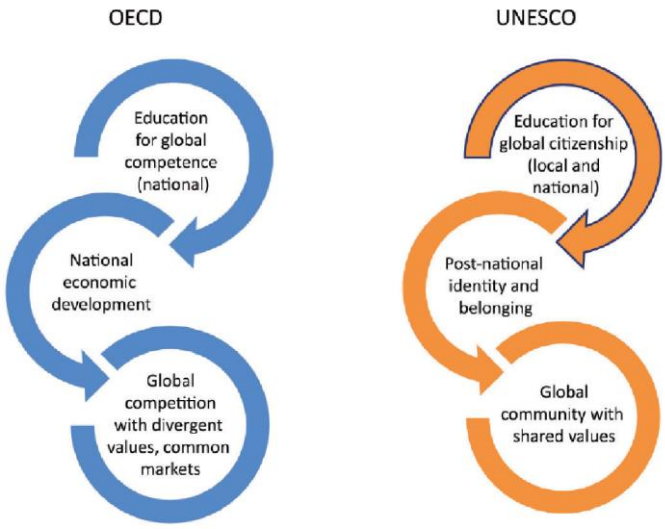
The working definition so far is that global competence means the, "capacity and disposition to act and interact appropriately and effectively both individually and collaboratively when participating in an interconnected, interdependent and diverse world" (OECD, 2015, p. 46). The framework of global competencies has four dimensions:

- Communication and relationship management.
- Knowledge of and interest in global development.
- Challenges and trends concerning openness and flexibility.
- Emotional strength and resilience.

Each of these dimensions contains knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviors that interact in a dynamic and interconnected way OECD (2015). Knowledge is viewed as contextual, aiming to better prepare students to navigate diverse contexts such as work environments and local communities.

Vaccari and Gardinier (2019) point out that UNESCO and the OECD are pursuing similar orientations envisioning the world of the future, through to 2030, but with different theoretical orientations and frameworks. As demonstrated in Figure 1, although both stress knowledge, skills and attitudes, they place significantly different emphases on each area. The OECD's main focus is on marketable skills and global competencies that will help students integrate into a global labor market, whereas for UNESCO, the values and attitudes of global citizenship play a much stronger role. These differences reflect the ideological tensions that underlie GCE's different approaches; as well as convergence between the two organizations (Lauwerier, 2018).

Figure 2: Comparison between OECD and UNESCO orientations on GCE



Source: Vaccari & Gardinier (2019)

Overall, we can see that GCE has taken a pride place in the 2030 Agenda for sustainable development and has progressively become the new buzzword in educational systems. However, despite its apparent relevance and potential to mobilize international cooperation and international communities, it is often described as a fuzz-word due to its lack of conceptual clarity and consistency, which makes its operationalization challenging for policy makers, teachers and educators (Akkari & Maleq, 2019).

It could however be said that being and becoming a global citizen is more than a technical efficiency; it is a "fluid" concept that involves a process of thinking differently" (Lilley et al., 2017, p. 18). It represents an ethical being, an ability, a disposition, and a commitment. However, in practice, the ontology of being a global citizen presents a challenge to research and pedagogy (Rhoads & Szelenyi, 2011; Sklad, Friedman & Oomen, 2016; Richardson, De Fabrizio & Ansu-Kyeremeh, 2011; Hammond & Keating, 2018).

2. Crisis of Multiculturalism

Scepticism and sometimes even outright hostility towards multiculturalism is growing in many countries experiencing immigration. Coulby (2019) claims that progressive education and particularly multicultural education has failed in many national contexts. The evidence according to his analysis comes from the worldwide rise of populism as well as the theoretical weakness of dominant approaches to multicultural education. He also points out that this failure of multicultural education is linked to a set of theoretical weaknesses associated with the nature of globalization and populism, and their impact on states, cities and regions (Coulby, 2019). Indeed, we believe that dominant multicultural approaches in education suffer from empirical and conceptual flaws, partly due to a narrow understanding of culture, generally reduced to national boundaries, and a resistance to view culture as dynamic and complex. A critical framework of GCE could therefore provide a more comprehensive understanding of settlement, immigration and multiple identities by acknowledging and addressing the power dynamics between marginalized and dominant cultures (Eidoo et al. 2011).

Theoretical weakness of multiculturalism:

Anthropologists argue that the concept of culture used in multiculturalism is theoretically imprecise. Furthermore Wax (1993) asserts that the major conceptual weakness of multiculturalism resides in the assumption that “cultural deficit” or “distance from school culture” need to be compensated. “It should not assume that because the child is unfamiliar with some aspects of the dominant culture, its psyche is a vacuum, and the child is ignorant. Rather, the curriculum should be designed to deal with the child at the point of entry into formal education” (Wax, 1993, p. 105).

Another theoretical weakness of multiculturalism is linked to the treatment of inequality in education. Indeed, oppression may also be the result of diversity without equality (Weinberg, 1994). As confirmed by Ogbu (1992), multiculturalism works only for some individuals and some minorities (Ogbu, 1992), failing to achieve equal opportunity for all.

Multicultural education:

From a wider perspective, the relative failure of multicultural approaches in schools is also associated with the tenet of the central role played by educational systems in building national identity. Both through civil rights movements and international migration, schools started in the 60s and 70s to hear the voices of cultural and ethnic differences (Akkari & Radhouane, 2019). However, the changes made to promote a more open space for cultural diversity in schools have resulted in only limited impact, especially in relation to ethnic segregation and low learning outcomes for minority and migrant students (Connor & Ferri, 2018; Lauwerier & Akkari, 2020). Indeed, there is abundant evidence that race, racism and culture affect educational opportunities and outcomes (Howard, 2019).

Crisis of multiculturalism:

On a broader level, various OECD countries are experiencing what could be described as a multilevel crisis of multiculturalism (Chin, 2019). First, on the political level, many politicians, not only those from the far right of the political spectrum, strongly express doubts regarding the efficiency, validity or the added value of multicultural policies. Second, many countries still experience school segregation linked to residential segregation of ethnic minorities and migrants, resulting in ethnic tensions and aggravated inequalities. Third, the fight against Islamic extremism is often evoked to challenge multiculturalist and immigration policies.

As an example of this crises, Black (2016) argues that in Great Britain, feelings oscillated between the nostalgia of the past where England/Britain were presented as a ‘safe’ and legitimate source of belonging and a present that, while being portrayed as both confident and progressive, is overwhelmed by latent anxieties and feelings of discontent. In the British context, here is a strong pervasive political thesis that multiculturalism is in 'crisis' or has even 'failed' in the country (Miah and al., 2020) and religious identity, especially Islamic identity, has become central to debates British multiculturalism (Haynes, 2017). Furthermore, Harris and Johnston (2020) point out that high levels of ethnic segregation exist between the majority white British and other ethnic groups such as British Pakistanis and British Bangladeshis, especially in primary than secondary level of schooling.

Recent surveys in France also show an increasing socio-spatial segregation, which means that pupils attend different schools according to their ethnic and social origin (Audren & Baby-Collin, 2017; Ichou, M., & van Zanten, 2019).

In the French context, the crisis of multiculturalism is often associated with the general feeling that multiculturalism, as a public policy, is a threat to the French Republican integration (James & Janmaat, 2019). The idea of recognizing diversity and considering

minority identities in France runs up against historical values and principles such as the traditional universalist and emancipatory dimension of French citizenship, secularism, the fear of communitarianism and the will to maintain a direct relationship between the State and its citizens.

In the United States, Sleeter (2018) suggested that multiculturalism is also under permanent struggles. It is indeed at the center of the tense majority-minority relations within society and schools (Montalvo-Barbot, 2019). Although racial segregation in public education has been illegal for almost 65 years in the United States, public schools remain largely separate and unequal with profound consequences for families and students, especially for students of color. Coincidentally, white students have low exposure to students of minority groups as the typical white student attends a school that is 69% white. This is considerably higher than white students' national share of the enrollment (48,4 %) (Orfield and al., 2019). Recent surveys pointed out a process of re-segregation and separation between students by ethnic lines (Fuller and al., 2019; Logan & Burdick-Will, 2017).

3. Theoretical Frameworks for GCE

As the concept of global citizenship is gaining popularity among researchers and international organizations, diverse and sometimes contradictory theoretical frameworks have been developed. The growing interest and ongoing debates surrounding global citizenship are evidence of its increasing relevance to contemporary educational systems. Despite its popularity, its many interpretations, definitions and frameworks have resulted in a "highly diverse conceptual arena" (Torres & Bosio, 2020, p.2). Consequently, GCE has become a controversial concept (Gacel-Avila, 2017), torn between the spirit of solidarity and global competitiveness (Torres, 2002).

In an attempt to build on the legacy of multicultural education, but also take further the debate on how to re-envision approaches to multicultural education in a time of globalization, we will successively present two main theoretical frameworks for approaching global citizenship in education within multicultural and critical perspectives. The first area of research is related to the Council of Europe's concept of intercultural competency (Barrett, Huber & Reynolds, 2014). The second area of research is linked to the typology of global citizenship by Andreotti (2014) and will help us to understand from a critical perspective global citizenship as a contested space.

As defined by Barrett et al. (2014), the components of intercultural competence may be broken down into attitudes, knowledge and understanding, skills and actions. The attitudes involved include:

- Valuing cultural diversity and pluralism of views and practices;
- Respecting people who have different cultural affiliations from one's own;
- Being open to, curious about and willing to learn from and about people who have different cultural orientations and perspectives from one's own;
- Being willing to empathize with people who have different cultural affiliations from one's own;
- Being willing to question what is usually taken for granted as 'normal' according to one's previously acquired knowledge and experience;
- Being willing to tolerate ambiguity and uncertainty;
- Being willing to seek out opportunities to engage and co-operate with individuals who have different cultural orientations and perspectives from one's own (Berrett et al., 2014, p.9).

The knowledge and understanding, which contribute to intercultural competence, includes understanding (1) the internal diversity and heterogeneity of all cultural groups; (2) the influence of one's own language and cultural affiliations on one's experience of the world and of other people; (3) the processes of cultural, societal and individual interaction; and (4) the socially constructed nature of knowledge (Barrett et al., 2014). Furthermore, it includes an awareness and understanding of one's own and other people's assumptions, preconceptions, stereotypes, prejudices, and discrimination. Finally, it requires us to build knowledge of the beliefs, values, practices and discourses that may be used by people who have particular cultural orientations. Intercultural competence also includes a set of skills such as multiperspectivity (the ability to decenter from one's own perspective and to consider other people's perspectives in addition to one's own); empathy; cognitive flexibility (the ability to change and adapt one's way of thinking according to the situation or context); adaptation; and linguistic, sociolinguistic and plurilingual skills (Barrett *et al*., 2014).

In line with the Council of Europe's framework, the approach of Barrett et al. (2014) can be seen as both pragmatic and proactive as well as applicable to educational actions. Intercultural competence has strong active, interactive and participative dimensions, and it requires individuals to develop their capacity to build common projects, to assume shared responsibilities and to create common ground to live together in peace. For this reason, intercultural competence is a core competence, which is required for democratic citizenship within a culturally diverse world and provides a foundation for being a global citizen. It is however important to emphasize that building students' intercultural competences and educational strategies that focus on celebrating culture run the risk of de-politicizing racism discourse and reinforcing an "us" versus "them" binary. While GCE may be susceptible to similar critiques, critical frameworks of GCE could contribute to a stronger multicultural approach by acknowledging and addressing the dynamics between marginalized and dominant cultures.

In the field of education, Andreotti (2006) suggested a broad conception of GCE, breaking it down into 'soft' and 'critical' GCE. Whilst soft GCE could be equated to education about global citizenship that provides students with an understanding of the world and cultural tolerance, critical global citizenship however requires a deeper engagement. Critical GCE, which Andreotti later developed into post-critical and postcolonial GCE, provides students with the skills to reflect upon and engage with global issues involving conflict, power, and opposing views; to understand the nature of assumptions; and to strive for change.

> Despite claims of globality and inclusion, the lack of analyses of power relations and knowledge construction in this area often results in educational practices that unintentionally reproduce ethnocentric, ahistorical, depoliticized, paternalistic, salvationist and triumphalist approaches that tend to deficit theorize, pathologize or trivialize difference (Andreotti & De Souza, 2012, p. 13).

Indeed, global citizenship education cannot solely promote human values and overlook the "conditions that create the inequities faced by marginalized groups, specifically by migrants who are perpetually deported to the site of non-humanity and global non-citizenship" (Chapman, Ruiz-Chapman & Eglin, 2018, p. 155).

Whilst publications on global citizenship and GCE are growing, empirical studies remain scarce. Goren and Yemini (2017) and provided a mapping of the current research landscape and highlights both the dominant themes and potential lacuna in the existing body of research. The two main findings of this study are the identification of an apparent gap between the growing call from the scientific community for more critical approaches to GCE and a deficiency of critical discourse within educational policy and empirical studies, and a lack of acknowledgement of heterogeneity.

4. Global Citizenship Education: Opening new Horizons for Multicultural Education

In practice, schools often limit multicultural education to activities aimed at celebrating cultural diversity and recognizing the ethnic and cultural heritage of students and their families. Watkins & Noble (2019) point out that, despite being portrayed as a vehicle for cultural inclusion, these activities often fail to develop a deeper understanding of cultural complexities and dominance relationships. Described by the authors as "lazy multiculturalism", these approaches not only put forward superficial understandings and essentialized representations of cultures, they "rest on a kind of simple moralism that resists intellectual scrutiny: a moralism that suggests the primary lesson is to be nice" (p.297). It should be said that these "feel good" approaches to ethnic and cultural diversity seem to prevail over other educational aspects of multicultural education and a critical understanding of multicultural issues. Walking and Nobel (2019) further argue that:

> A multiculturalism that emphasizes feeling good is primarily concerned with moral rules of engagement, of doing and saying what is culturally appropriate, as if one could arrive at a checklist of 'dos and don'ts' for each group. Of course, multiculturalism has operated in this way and it is an approach that has influenced multicultural education (p. 299).

In schools, cultural diversity is generally celebrated as a "demographic fact" and advertised in the style of the United Colors of Benetton. This "Benetton multiculturalism" is solely based on the premise that ethnic diversity is in itself an added value, without building an understanding of power relationships.

Furthermore, we believe that in today's globalized and interconnected world, the greatest limitation of multicultural approaches in education is their national framework. Whilst it is important to work with students and teachers on cultural diversity, it is also important encourage them to reflect on their responsibilities, rights and privileges in a global interconnected world, beyond their national belongings/borders.

In this context, citizenship education approaches in multicultural societies face the challenge of striking a balance between local, national and global belonging that ensure both national social cohesion and global responsibility.

We argue that linking the fields of multicultural education, citizenship education and sustainable development under the umbrella of GCE could help students understand cultural and ecological relationships and the interconnections between issues related to citizenship, democracy, participation, multiple and fluid identity, ambiguity, diversity, social justice, global issues and sustainability (Hughes, 2019). Current challenges can no longer be met exclusively by individual states and national educational policy frameworks. We need to educate youth to imagine creative solutions to existing global issues and future challenges. In this sense, global citizenship may provide an opportunity to value multiple identities and cultural diversity, build understanding of root causes of global issues of inequality and discrimination and help create a fairer, more sustainable and just global society.

Overall, we argue that the multicultural paradigm must be revised and improved on five conceptual levels:

- Open new perspectives and provide a definition of culture that transcends national, ethnic and religious boundaries
- Seek to go beyond the demographics of cultural diversity and a display of how many minority groups are represented in schools
- Value hybrid, cross-border and fluid forms of cultural identify

- Consider tolerance to ambiguity and the ability to cross cultural boundaries as key aspects of multi/intercultural education
- Develop a critical understanding of global power dynamics and roots of global inequality resulting from colonialism, neo-imperialism and neoliberalism.

In this respect, teaching Global Citizenship within a Community of Inquiry method based on P4C (Philosophy for Children) may constitute a pedagogical approach worth exploring. Known to help develop cooperative and peer learning, P4C uses a dialogical approach to learning, looking at issues from different viewpoints and encouraging critical thinking.

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Du singulier au pluriel : de la littérature française aux littératures en français

Réflexions pour un nouvel enseignement des littératures en français dans les écoles internationales du Secondaire

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Résumé

Professeures de langue et littératures à l'Ecole Internationale de Genève, nous nous proposons dans cet article de repenser notre enseignement de la littérature à l'aune des théories postcoloniales. Notre approche, qui se veut interculturelle et interdisciplinaire, se déclinera en une introduction de nos quatre principes puis explorera les enjeux de deux d'entre eux, d'abord à travers une présentation théorique, puis par des propositions d'activités de classe. Cette réflexion se veut être le premier jalon d'un changement de paradigme que l'enseignement des littératures en français doit opérer pour s'adapter aux enjeux de la mondialisation auxquels sont confrontés les apprenants de l'école secondaire.

Mots clés : Enseignement, littérature, décolonisation, diversité, secondaire, international, interculturel, programme

Introduction

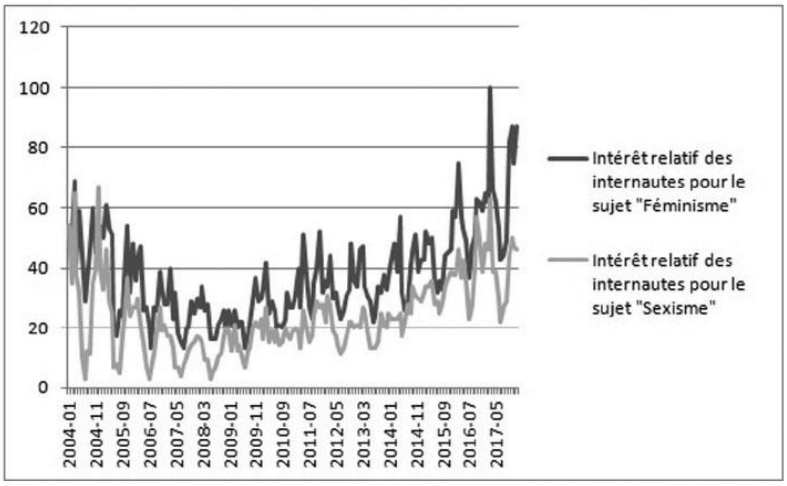
« Aujourd'hui, au lendemain de la décolonisation, la littérature est un des moyens pour les hommes et les femmes de notre temps d'exprimer leur identité, de revendiquer leur droit à la parole et d'être entendus dans leur diversité. Sans leur voix, sans leur appel, nous vivrions dans un monde silencieux. »

Conférence lors de la remise du Prix Nobel de Littérature, J.M.G. Le Clézio

Il est des débats qui secouent la société de manière plus profonde que d'autres et qui s'imposent avec force. Il n'aura échappé à personne que la question toujours plus pressante de la décolonisation traverse aujourd'hui les espaces et s'est immiscée dans les débats publics au même titre que les mouvements féministes, intersectionnels ou antiracistes. Bien plus que de simples "moments"[1], ces mouvements ont rendu incontournable la prise en compte de revendications souvent minorées par le passé. L'intérêt grandissant pour les féminismes suite au succès des hashtags #metoo et #Balancetonporc, lancés après l'affaire Weinstein en est une des illustrations.

[1] Comme l'écrivaient A. Célestine et N. Martin-Breteau (2016) en parlant de Black Lives matter

Évolution de l'intérêt relatif des internautes pour les sujets « Féminisme » et « Sexisme » (France) au 31 janvier 2018



Source des données : Google Trends, https://trends.google.fr/trends/ [2]

Ces mouvements ont également accompagné une réflexion plus large autour des identités multiples et ont permis à certaines populations, autrefois discrètes, d'exprimer la singularité de leur expérience. La spécialiste de la transidentité, Karine Espinera (2008) considère que cette nouvelle visibilité des questions identitaires témoigne de l'« esprit du temps »[3].

Tous ces combats ont en commun de poser la même question de la place de l'Autre, de la reconnaissance de la diversité dans nos sociétés, en somme, d'interroger l'articulation entre universalisme (de certaines valeurs) et particularismes (des cultures et des identités). Précisément, ces questions sont au cœur de l'enseignement de la littérature.

Dans cet article, nous proposons de contribuer, en tant que praticiennes, au débat collectif et de nous interroger sur le rôle de notre cours dans cet effort visant à accorder toute sa place à la diversité. Au-delà du contexte de ces dernières années, cette réflexion nous paraît d'autant plus urgente qu'elle est déjà bien documentée dans la recherche universitaire , particulièrement en didactique du français langue étrangère (Abdallah-Pretceille, M. et Porcher L., 2001, Byram, M., *et alii* 2002, Collès, 2008), sans toutefois faire l'objet d'une transposition didactique satisfaisante. Dans notre pratique, nous constatons qu'un très grand nombre de manuels et de ressources disponibles pour les enseignants témoignent encore de lacunes en la matière. A cela s'ajoute la question du milieu international qui est le nôtre, où si la multiculturalité est une réalité, les pratiques interculturelles (Verbunt, 2011) restent marginales.

« Décolonisons notre curriculum ! ». Cette injonction a-t-elle un sens pour nous ? Avons-nous déjà fait ce travail ? Rien n'est moins sûr. Posons-nous la question : quelle.s représentation.s de la littérature contribuons-nous à construire chez nos apprenant.e.s ? Comment leur présentons-nous la littérature ? Quel.le.s auteur.rice.s enseignons-nous *réellement* ? Faisons-nous entendre plusieurs voix dans nos cours ? Et quelles voix ?

Nous avons recueilli des témoignages d'élèves auxquels nous avons demandé ce qu'était pour eux *la littérature française*. Sans prétendre à une totale représentativité, le sondage

[2] https://www.cairn.info/revue-reseaux-2018-2-page-232.htm?contenu=article
[3] Expression qu'elle emprunte à Edgar Morin

révèle une cohérence dans les réponses articulée autour d'enjeux méthodologiques et techniques :

« *Un ensemble d'œuvres qui se répartit sur plusieurs siècles ».*

« la littérature française est un ensemble d'œuvres écrites d'origine française ; du point de vue de la France, généralement du XVIIème siècle ».

« Pour moi, la littérature française, ce sont des auteurs français qui s'appellent Jean, Marc ou Jean-Paul ».

La vision patrimoniale qui sous-tend ces réponses exprime des représentations stéréotypées qui suggèrent que la dimension plurielle et mouvante de la littérature n'est pas comprise. A l'évidence, aucun renouvellement de l'approche de la littérature ne semble avoir véritablement imprégné les salles de classe. Sans faire *tabula rasa* du passé, un changement de perspective qui rend mieux compte de la réalité de l'espace littéraire français nous paraît la meilleure réponse à apporter. Nous postulons que le changement de perspective que nous proposons, qui veut mettre l'accent sur le respect du divers comme disent les écrivains-penseurs Chamoiseau *et alii* contribuera à faire évoluer les représentations de nos élèves et par là même bénéficiera, aussi modestement soit-il, à une société plus consciente de la valeur des métissages culturels.

Les objectifs du cours

Avant d'aller plus avant dans notre réflexion, rappelons tout d'abord nos objectifs. Ils recoupent ceux qui sont énoncés par le Baccalauréat International et résonnent avec ceux des programmes nationaux de plusieurs pays européens (France, Royaume-Uni, Suisse *a minima*).

Enseigner la littérature, c'est avant tout former des lecteur.rice.s qui verront dans les œuvres diverses représentations du monde (Compagnon, 2007) ; encourager le développement d'une lecture qui, si elle n'exclut pas la lecture plaisir, se veut ici critique. La diversité de ces représentations interrogée par les corpus proposés doit renvoyer au rôle de la littérature comme un lieu privilégié de l'apprentissage de l'altérité (Byram, 2003), un « espace de distanciation sur soi » et « un mode d'accès à la compréhension du monde » selon les mots de Pretceille et Porcher dans *Education et communication interculturelles* (2001). Pour ce faire, le cours de littérature à l'école secondaire s'appuie sur trois approches complémentaires du *fait littéraire* (Fraisse et Mouralis, 2001) : stylistique car tout texte est une mise en œuvre du langage, contextuelle en s'appuyant sur l'histoire littéraire (conditions de production — figure de l'auteur.rice) et réceptive (critique — point de vue du lectorat). Le texte est donc compris comme un tout au carrefour de relations entre texte et contexte, instance auctoriale et lectorat et ne doit pas être prisonnier d'une vision simplement articulée autour d'un axe diachronique (du Moyen Âge au XXIème) et un axe générique (poésie, théâtre, roman). Pour conduire à cette ouverture raisonnée et pertinente, c'est donc bien un renouvellement de nos discours et de nos corpus qui s'impose, en d'autres termes, un passage du singulier au pluriel.

De cette conception du cours, découlent **quatre principes** qui soutiennent la progression curriculaire telle que nous l'envisageons :

1. **Rendre visible la complexité de l'espace littéraire de langue française**
   Faire comprendre aux élèves que ce qui relève des littératures en français appartient à plusieurs territoires, excède le seul pays de la France et a évolué à la faveur d'événements historiques majeurs.

2. **Multiplier les voix littéraires**
   Assurer une alternance auteur.rice — intégrer une réflexion sur l'écriture féminine — s'appuyer sur les apports des théories postcoloniales en littérature (Moura, 2019) — faire entendre la réception d'une œuvre à travers le temps et interroger cette (éventuelle) évolution.
3. **Développer une démarche comparatiste et les pratiques de lecteur.rice.s**
   Développer l'interdisciplinarité et les échanges interculturels (Beacco, 2018) en s'appuyant sur les expériences des élèves, la diversité des profils enseignants, proposer une initiation à la littérature comparée, intégrer une approche du travail de la traduction (Heilbron & Sapiro, 2002). Développer un habitus de lecteur.rice.s (Bourdieu,1992).
4. **Renouveler notre approche de l'histoire littéraire**
   Développer une véritable lecture contextualisante (Vaillant, 2017).

La mise en œuvre de ces quatre principes n'a de véritable sens que si nous renouvelons la dénomination de notre cours.

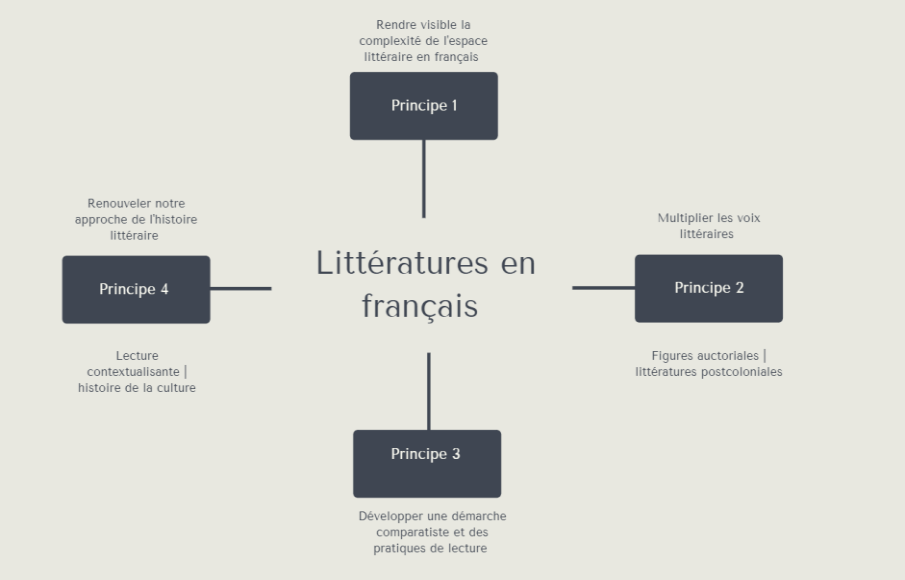
Du singulier au pluriel : changeons de nom !

Aujourd'hui, nous donnons des cours de *français* dans le cadre desquels nous proposons un enseignement dit de *littérature française*. Cette acception nourrit une vision amphibologique (pour ne pas dire fallacieuse) de la littérature en français qui, de fait, passe sous silence toutes les littératures francophones.

L'usage veut que l'on distingue *littérature française* (ou *littérature francophone* qui inclut la littérature française) et *littératures francophones*. Ce distinguo qui se justifie, « au plan de la recherche, où une analyse serrée impose de cerner les spécificités de l'objet d'étude » (Moura, 2019) ne nous satisfait pas pleinement. Car l'expression, si elle rend bien compte de la diversité de la production littéraire en langue française, établit une hiérarchie symbolique entre la littérature de France et les autres. En suggérant que les littératures produites hors de France sont *différentes* donc qualifiées autrement, elle parasite ce qui nous semble le plus important — la pluralité — au bénéfice d'une hiérarchisation. De plus, nul n'ignore la polysémie voire la dimension parfois polémique de l'adjectif *francophone*[4] De notre point de vue, il ne s'agit pas, évidemment, d'ignorer les tensions symboliques qui ont accompagné l'émergence des littératures francophones. C'est un point fondamental pour comprendre la constitution du champ littéraire en français d'aujourd'hui et les phénomènes d'autonomisation de ces littératures. Mais nous suggérons que l'enjeu terminologique est fort et que le mot peut parfois incarner la chose (ici une nouvelle perspective). Aussi, bien que nous ayons conscience que la formule n'est pas parfaite, nous opterons, sur le modèle du département de l'université de Montréal notamment, pour la dénomination ***Les LittératureS en français***. Dans le contexte d'un enseignement généraliste comme le nôtre, l'expression présente l'intérêt d'être fort intelligible tout en lissant les effets de domination culturelle. Par ailleurs, dans un milieu international, c'est également une expression aisée à décliner dans toutes les langues.

[4]Pour un aperçu des enjeux liés au terme *francophone* voir Porra, V. (2018). Des littératures francophones à la « littérature monde » aspiration créatrice et reproduction systémique. Nordic Journal of Francophone Studies / Revue Nordique Des Études Francophones, 1(1), 7–17. http://doi.org/10.16993/rnef.8

Notre démarche en un coup d'œil :



MISE EN ŒUVRE DES DEUX PREMIERS PRINCIPES DE NOTRE APPROCHE

Principe 1 : Rendre visible la complexité de l'espace littéraire de langue française

Ancrage théorique

« Le monde revient. Et c'est la meilleure des nouvelles. N'aura-t-il pas été longtemps le grand absent de la littérature française ? »

« Pour une littérature-monde en français », Le Monde, 2007

Le rôle complice qu'a joué la géographie dans l'élaboration de cultures coloniales impériales nous impose cette réflexion cruciale : dans quelle mesure notre cartographie littéraire contribue-t-elle à ouvrir ou à cloisonner les représentations que nos élèves se font de la littérature en français ? Force est de déplorer que notre enseignement, s'il ne construit pas une représentation plus fidèle du paysage littéraire francophone, continuera de perpétuer une représentation ethnocentrée et hégémonique de la culture francophone et de rejeter dans l'abstraction toute une part de notre identité collective.

La diversité de l'espace littéraire français ainsi que la manière dont il s'est étendu ne peut être autrement étudié au secondaire qu'à la lumière du rôle majeur des deux colonisations françaises dans cette expansion. Il s'agit de comprendre comment s'est agencé géographiquement et diachroniquement cet espace, pourquoi il s'est développé, et quelles peuvent en être les conséquences sur la création littéraire. L'exercice, s'il est indispensable, n'en est pas moins difficile tant « l'homogénéité d'un espace littéraire allant de la Polynésie aux Antilles, de l'Afrique subsaharienne à l'Europe en passant par le Maghreb ou l'océan Indien est loin d'être évidente » (Moura, 2019).

Pour nous aider à construire un outil pertinent, nous proposons de considérer tout d'abord l'implantation de la langue française et de suivre une cartographie qui à travers l'histoire coloniale permet d'envisager quatre ensembles :

- Les pays dont le français est la langue maternelle. L'implantation du français a eu lieu avant la fin du premier empire colonial (avant 1763). Il n'y a pas eu de pratique esclavagiste : la France bien sûr (on peut souligner l'importance de Villers-Cotterêts), le Québec, ainsi qu'une partie de la Suisse et de la Belgique.
- Les pays où le français est la langue d'usage et la langue officielle pour une communauté même si elle a aussi une autre langue comme le créole. L'implantation a eu lieu avant 1763, souvent en situation de diglossie créole/français : les Antilles, Haïti, l'île Maurice, les Seychelles et la Réunion.
- Les pays ou régions où le français est langue de communication, officielle ou non. L'implantation est postérieure aux traités de Paris de 1814 et 1825 qui restituent à la France la plupart de ses anciennes possessions. En Afrique, à Madagascar et au Maghreb. Au Liban, l'arrivée du français est non coloniale et antérieure à 1763.
- Les pays ou régions où coexistent des survivances francophones. Deux cas différents avec une implantation linguistique antérieure à 1763 au Vietnam, au Cambodge, au Laos ou en Syrie et une implantation importante postérieure à 1815 en Polynésie et en Nouvelle-Calédonie.

Ces quatre ensembles ne permettent pas à eux seuls d'illustrer toute la complexité du corpus des littératures francophones tant les œuvres qui le constituent peuvent être très différentes sur les plans historique, géographique, linguistique, sociologique et individuel et il sera toujours indispensable de les situer avec acuité dans leurs contextes de production. Mais, dans la perspective de dresser un panorama, cette première carte de la francophonie linguistique, établie en lien avec les périodes de colonisation ou pas (Québec, Belgique, Suisse), permet d'identifier plusieurs zones. Nous en retiendrons 5, suivant en cela la suggestion de Christiane Ndiaye (2004) :

1. Littérature francophone d'Afrique (subsaharienne)
2. Littérature francophone de Suisse et de Belgique
3. Littérature francophone du Maghreb (Maroc - Algérie - Tunisie)
4. Littérature de la Caraïbe (Haïti - Guadeloupe - Martinique)
5. Littérature québécoise

Cet effort de cartographie permet de donner à voir la pluralité de l'espace littéraire aux élèves. Il n'a évidemment de sens que s'il est mis en lien avec des frises historiques et politiques. Villers-Cotterêts, les abolitions de l'esclavage, la décolonisation, autant de dates qui permettent de structurer cette carte.

Par ailleurs la réflexion sur la représentation de l'espace littéraire peut s'accompagner d'une réflexion sur l'objet littéraire lui-même et intégrer un travail sur la littérature orale.

Propositions d'activités en classe

- Activité 1 | Remue-méninges

Faites un nuage de mots :

1. Qu'évoque pour vous l'expression « littérature française » ?
2. Qu'évoque pour vous l'expression « littérature francophone » ?

→ Objectif final : à partir des propositions des élèves, questionner leurs représentations

- Activité 2 | Faire une recherche

À partir des 5 zones des littératures en français, faites une recherche pour trouver un auteur ou une autrice qui représente sa région. Vous sélectionnerez un auteur ou une autrice qui a nécessairement gagné un prix littéraire. Indiquez le titre de son ouvrage primé, la maison d'édition, la date, le genre et le résumé. Illustrez la présentation en y insérant la première de couverture de l'œuvre.

→ Objectif final : prendre conscience de la diversité de l'espace et des voix francophones.

- Activité 3 | Découvrir un lieu du livre et son fonctionnement

Allez dans deux lieux du livre (librairies, bibliothèque de l'école, bibliothèques municipales, bibliothèque universitaire, etc.) et demandez selon quels critères sont catalogués/rangés les ouvrages écrits en langue française. Confrontez en classe les différents systèmes de classification que vous avez découverts. Lequel vous semble le plus pertinent ?

→ Objectif final : prendre conscience de la coexistence de plusieurs représentations de l'espace francophone au sein de nos institutions culturelles.

Outils : Bien que payants, les sites Padlet.com ou Herodote.fr sont de bons outils pour cartographier le monde francophone ou créer des frises chronologiques.

Principe 2 : Multiplier les voix littéraires dans les corpus d'œuvres étudiées et intégrer les voix postcoloniales

a. Multiplier les voix littéraires

« Le dénominateur commun des littératures francophones, est [...] de proposer, au cœur de leur problématique identitaire, une réflexion sur la langue et sur la manière dont s'articulent les rapports langues/ littérature dans des contextes différents. »
La fabrique de la langue, Lise Gauvin, 2004

Pour que nos élèves conceptualisent toute la diversité de l'espace littéraire francophone, il est impératif de constituer un corpus plus représentatif des voix qui l'ont forgé. Notre deuxième principe vise donc à :

- Diversifier les figures auctoriales masculines et féminines ou médiatiser le déséquilibre entre les deux et diversifier les pays ;
- Intégrer à nos corpus des œuvres liées aux littératures postcoloniales et présentées comme telles, ce que nous appellerons l'intégration des voix postcoloniales.

Ancrage théorique

Les crispations autour d'un programme aux figures auctoriales diverses sont abondantes. Beaucoup y voient une atteinte au patrimoine littéraire français ; une dépossession au profit d'œuvres jugées mineures, préférant ainsi l'hagiographie réconfortante des grands auteurs. Pourtant, comme le rappelle Martine Reid dans sa préface à *Femmes et littérature* : *une histoire culturelle* (2020) : « Pendant un demi-siècle, les débats littéraires n'ont pas porté, en France, sur la nature du corpus de textes à examiner, mais sur la méthode à utiliser pour lire les grands auteurs ». La critique littéraire également, loin de proposer une étude paritaire du champ littéraire, a contribué à creuser les écarts entre auteurs et autrices ainsi que de rejeter ces dernières dans l'oubli. Quelle place devons-nous donc donner à ces

représentant.e.s littéraires dont nous avons enfoui la création ? Comment repenser nos curricula pour faire place à l'extraordinaire richesse de notre héritage culturel et littéraire ?

S'il est donc grand temps d'interroger notre processus de patrimonialisation, rappelons ici et à toutes fins utiles qu'il n'est pas question de considérer les textes dits *classiques* comme caduques, mais plutôt de s'évertuer à actualiser leur place au sein des problématiques qu'ils touchent. Il s'agit d'étudier cette « rupture dans la continuité de la mémoire » définie par Nathalie Denizot (2015, p.111) ; ce « double mouvement réception-transmission » que constitue le patrimoine littéraire de langue française par la mise en regard de plusieurs textes. Ainsi, nous éviterons de perpétuer *l'effet Matilda* chez les écrivaines francophones.

Qu'en est-il du contexte international dont nous sommes les garant.e.s ?

Oscillant entre un ancrage local et global, les écoles internationales semblent sans cesse tiraillées entre une double mission éducative dont l'enseignement de la littérature incarne bien le dilemme. En effet, « [on] relève une hésitation continue entre universel et particulier, comme si la littérature considérée comme objet d'enseignement ne cessait d'être ballottée entre deux pôles : identité et ouverture, vivre entre soi et s'étendre au monde, se connaître soi-même et connaître l'autre. » (Emmanuel Fraisse, 2012). Notre ingénierie didactique suppose donc de définir des principes souples mais rigoureux dont les apports permettront aux élèves de se définir au carrefour d'identités multiples, complexes et mouvantes.

L'alternance auteur.rice et la découverte d'une littérature transatlantique différente chaque année doit donc devenir un principe et un critère de sélection lors de l'élaboration de nos corpus. Aborder le mouvement féministe au XXIe siècle ou même établir un panorama de la condition féminine lorsqu'on étudie un siècle donné ne suffit pas. Il faut étudier les mécanismes de l'obstruction aux domaines du savoir par l'étude des voix auctoriales à la fois masculines et féminines ; étudier l'évolution de la dénomination de ses *femmes-écrivains* de la *trobairitz* (femme troubadour) à *l'autrice*, de *la femme de lettres* aux *bas bleus*. Que sous-tend la multiplicité de ces dénominations ?

Dans le cas où la parité homme-femme / pays serait difficile à respecter, nous proposons de thématiser cette difficulté et de permettre aux élèves de réfléchir au statut particulier de l'écrivain.e dans la société de son temps. Nous ne souhaitons pas non plus véhiculer des stéréotypes sur une écriture proprement féminine mais plutôt de recouvrir leur individualité, leur spécificité auctoriale. De même lorsque nous suggérons d'étudier un auteur ou une autrice suisse.sse ou québécois.e en cherchant à comprendre en quoi son statut a pu avoir une incidence sur sa production, cela ne doit pas s'entendre comme une valorisation excessive des particularismes régionaux mais comme une réhabilitation du divers et de la dimension polyphonique de la littérature.

Propositions d'activités en classe

- Activité 1 | Faire des recherches

Faites des recherches sur l'évolution diachronique de la masculinisation des métiers (*poétesse*, *philosophesse*, *autrice* etc.). Pourquoi parler de *masculinisation* plutôt que de *féminisation* ? Pourquoi n'a-t-on pas gardé les désignations féminisées du XVIIe siècle ? Cherchez plusieurs extraits qui mettent en évidence l'évolution des perceptions des académiciens. La question se pose-t-elle dans d'autres pays francophones ou dans une autre langue que vous connaissez ? Voici quelques auteurs pour vous aider à faire vos

recherches : C. F. de Vaugelas (1585-1650)2[5], Andry de Boisregard[6] (1658-1742), Jules Renard[7] (1864-1910) par exemple.

Voir également les rapports suivants :

- Rapport sur la féminisation des noms de métier de 1998
- Rapport de l'Académie Française de 2019
- Podcast France Culture : Autrice : histoire d'un mot controversé
- Entretien avec Aurore Evain sur le matrimoine

- Activité 2 | Ecouter des entretiens

Regardez et écoutez ces deux témoignages d'écrivaines. Que montrent-t-ils des spécificités des écrivaines universitaires des années 80 en France et en Algérie ?

- Simone de Beauvoir (1908-1986) : extraits de 6 :40 - 7 :53 sur son parcours de femme à la Sorbonne (cela permet de montrer les milieux dans lesquels les femmes pouvaient ou non évoluer et conduire à des échanges sur le rôle social et familial de la femme.)

- Assia Djebar (1936-2015) : deuxième entretien : 48 :00 à 54.12 - le regard d'une écrivaine *a posteriori* sur son comportement au sein de son contexte universitaire et l'impact de son expérience sur sa création littéraire.

- Activité complémentaire : faites l'interview (par visioconférence ou en personne) d'une autrice locale. Échangez sur son métier, son parcours personnel, les difficultés et défis éditoriaux, ses rapports avec d'autres autrices, auteurs.

- Activité 3 | Écrire des biographies d'écrivaines

Choisissez deux écrivaines qui appartiennent à deux siècles différents sur cette page du site de la BNF : « Femmes de Lettres ». Complétez vos recherches avec les liens proposés et faites des recherches personnelles sur ces autrices et leur contexte de production. Dressez un tableau comparatif des autrices qui étudiera leurs époques, leurs parcours (littéraire, personnel) et les difficultés qu'elles ont rencontrées puis présentez vos conclusions à la classe.

- Autres activités possibles :

Mettez-vous à la place d'une autrice du XVIIIe siècle. Rédigez une page de son journal intime dans lequel elle s'exprimerait sur sa condition et les préjugés qui l'entravent.
Faites une interview irrévérencieuse à la manière de la chroniqueuse de France Inter Christine Gonzalez.

→ Objectif final : participer à une (re)découverte des figures auctoriales traditionnellement marginalisées des corpus traditionnels.

b. Intégrer des voix postcoloniales

Ancrage théorique

Le mouvement postcolonial a initié un véritable changement de paradigme, à l'origine entre autres, d'une déconstruction de la pensée occidentale. Courant de pensée anglo-saxon né

[5] Favre de Vaugelas. C. (1647). *Remarques sur la langue française.* Editions Champ libre.
[6] Andry de Boisregard. N. (1689) *Réflexions sur l'usage présent de la langue française.* Slatkine.
[7] Renard. J. (1905) *Journal.* Robert Laffont.

dans les années 1980-1990 (d'abord aux États-Unis, puis dans l'ensemble de la sphère culturelle anglo-saxonne), il a suscité à travers le monde entier et de manière durable des questionnements sur l'hégémonie culturelle et l'ethnocentrisme des discours par une déconstruction des liens entre pouvoir et savoir. Autrement dit, c'est un renouveau dont la construction devait permettre, non pas un singulier mais un pluriel.

D'aucun.e.s pourraient à juste titre se méfier de la politisation dont ont fait l'objet les théories postcoloniales depuis leurs créations, et particulièrement celles de l'espace francophone qui nous concerne aujourd'hui. Plus encore, l'évolution du mouvement qui voit naître entre autres un « féminisme décolonial » (Françoise Vergès, 2019) peut dérouter un lecteur universaliste non averti qui verrait le mouvement participer à ce qu'Aimé Césaire a défini comme une « ségrégation murée dans le particulier »[8]. Cette diversité des études et littératures postcoloniales induit donc un principe de précaution en ce qui concerne leur application dans le champ éducatif, sans pour autant remettre en cause leur existence, car au-delà de toute divergence de point de vue, les théories postcoloniales bien loin d'être simplement « nouvelles » ou « exotiques » (ce qu'elles ne sont pas), recouvrent des problématiques pertinentes.

Les théories postcoloniales supposent plusieurs regards, plusieurs voix. Comme le souligne Alain Mabankou dans sa première leçon donnée au Collège de France en 2016, elles demandent à l'enseignant.e d'ouvrir sa bibliothèque à un ensemble hétérogène dont les choix pourraient s'avérer difficiles. Il est cependant moins question de la sélection d'œuvres et d'écrivain.es que de l'élaboration d'une approche interculturelle englobante. Aussi convient-il de préciser que notre contexte éducatif sera déterminant pour notre enseignement car, faute de temps, nous n'aurons sûrement pas la possibilité d'aborder toute la richesse des nombreuses littératures en langue française. Ainsi, avec l'interculturel au centre de l'ingénierie didactique, l'enseignant.e doit initier la refonte de son curriculum au moyen d'un cadre pour lequel nous nous proposons d'en établir les fondements.

Entendons-nous tout d'abord sur une définition du mot *postcolonial*. Nous reprendrons la position de Moura lorsqu'il élabore une théorie postcoloniale des littératures francophones en disant que *postcolonial* :

> *ne renvoie pas simplement à la littérature « venant après » l'empire, mais à un ensemble littéraire dont il est possible de reconnaître des qualités thématico-formelles spécifiques, lorsqu'on l'envisage par rapport à la colonisation et à ses conséquences*
> *Europe littéraire et l'ailleurs*. PUF. p. 174.

Les œuvres que l'on peut regrouper sous l'expression « littératures postcoloniales » ont également pour point commun de rejeter le projet colonial français. Son étude implique donc que l'on aborde aussi, au moins sur le plan de l'histoire littéraire, la littérature coloniale.

Dans la perspective de Moura que nous retenons, ce n'est plus le critère linguistique qui prédomine mais :

> *la position historique, la relation entretenue avec le passé (encore présent) de la domination historique, la relation entretenue avec le passé (encore présent) de la domination coloniale. La détermination linguistique (situation de diglossie) sans cesser d'en être un élément majeur, n'est plus un élément fondateur de ce que M. Beniamino appelle « les littératures en contact ». Il faut désormais prendre en compte les situations des œuvres dans toute leur diversité (historique,*

[8] Lettre d'Aimé Césaire à Maurice Thorez, 24 octobre 1956. Publiée dans *Black Revolution,* Demopolis, Paris, 2010.

géographique, sociolinguistique, sociologique) mais en les rapportant à une mesure commune qu'est le fait capital de l'expansion coloniale.

Cette conception du corpus invite à faire des rapprochements avec les littératures africaines anglophones ou lusophones qui peuvent s'avérer féconds dans notre contexte d'enseignement. Dans le même temps, elle exclut du corpus postcolonial la littérature belge ou québécoise puisque non liées à la colonisation.

Tout au long du XXe siècle, on est passé d'un français, qui avait la France pour phare incontesté, à une diversité de français variant selon les espaces et les situations. Nos corpus de textes et notre histoire littéraire doivent donner à voir cette réalité. Mais pour que notre approche ne soit pas simplement descriptive, que l'analyse des œuvres proposée en classe se dégage de toute tendance eurocentrée, il convient de se poser la question des procédures d'analyse qui permettront de tenir compte des spécificités de ces écritures postcoloniales.

J.-M. MOURA propose de recourir à la problématique de l'énonciation :

> *La perspective postcoloniale me semble fondamentalement concernée par l'analyse de l'énonciation : non seulement elle s'attache aux rites d'écritures, aux supports matériels, à la scène énonciative (tout élément relevant d'une étude habituelle de la littérature), mais elle le fait selon une direction particulière puisqu'elle réfère ceux-ci aux pratiques coloniales, à l'enracinement culturel et à l'hybridation caractéristique d'un contexte social. De cette façon, l'on s'intéresse à la manière dont chaque auteur, chaque œuvre gère son rapport à son lieu et l'investit.*

Cette proposition de lecture critique permet d'éviter deux écueils que l'on retrouve souvent et qui ne permettent de s'affranchir des représentations stéréotypées :

- celui qui consisterait à ne s'attacher qu'à la valeur historique et la portée idéologique de ces œuvres ;
- ou au contraire celui qui nous pousserait à n'en célébrer que la faculté d'enrichissement de la langue française sans s'intéresser à leur ancrage socio-historique.

La proposition de Moura implique de cerner comment l'œuvre élabore son contexte autant qu'elle expose et invite à dépasser la simple analyse des caractéristiques formelles ou thématiques. Une problématique peut aider à l'élaboration d'un questionnement efficace : Comment les auteur.rice.s francophones (qui écrivent dans la langue du colon) parviennent-ils.elles à échapper au pouvoir de représentation occidentale ? Ou autrement dit, au prix de quelles stratégies parviennent-ils.elles peu à peu à créer un espace littéraire soustrait à l'ordre colonial persistant ?

Propositions d'activités en classe

- Activité 1 | Confronter des textes du XVIIIème
  Groupement de textes :
- Point de vue sur l'esclavage par un écrivain

Extrait de *Candide ou l'optimisme.* Voltaire, chapitre 19 « Le nègre de Surinam »

- Point de vue sur l'esclavage par un ancien esclave :

Extrait de *Ma Véridique histoire*. (1789) Olaudah Equiano.
Extrait des *Mémoires*. (1853) Toussaint Louverture (s'appuyer sur l'édition de 2019 chez Garnier).

- Point de vue d'administrateurs esclavagistes

Extrait du *Mémoire sur les maladies les plus communes à Saint-Domingue leurs remèdes, le moyen de les éviter ou de s'en garantir moralement et physiquement.* Nicolas-Louis Bourgeois. (1788). p.487. Texte original. http://gallica.bnf.fr/ark:/12148/bpt6k83039c.r=]

Extrait de *Réponses au mémoire présenté à Nos seigneurs du Conseil Royal de la Marine concernant les nègres esclaves que les officiers et habitants des colonies françaises de l'Amérique amenèrent en France pour leur service.* de Mellier. G. (1716).
Texte original :
[http://staraco.univ-nantes.fr/fr/ressources/documents/m%C3%A9moire-m%C3%.

Question d'orientation : Comment les différents types de texte permettent-il d'aborder différemment la problématique de la colonisation et la condition des esclaves ?

- Activité 2 | Confronter un texte d'époque avec la critique d'historiens
  Support : Émission de radio et textes
  1. Emission de France culture intitulée « Le voyage de Bougainville, contre-enquête » qui propose un décryptage – mêlant ethnographie, histoire et anthropologie – des premiers contacts entre les Tahitiens et les Européens, une tentative pour dissiper le malentendu sur la place de la femme dans la culture polynésienne.
  2. Texte : Extrait du Voyage de Bougainville (1ère édition 1771). (1966). Coll 10/18 Paris. pp.185-186 ou également sur Gallica.

Écoutez l'extrait 1 (Intervention de Serge Tcherkezoff, anthropologue) [18 :30 - 19 :37] **et répondez à la question :**

- Dans quelles circonstances Bougainville a-t-il composé son récit ?
- En quoi est-il un récit polyphonique ?

Écoutez l'extrait 2 (lecture du texte par John Mairai, metteur en scène) [19 :40 à 21 :35] **et répondez aux questions en vous appuyant sur le texte de Bougainville :**

- Relevez les verbes de perception et les modalisateurs qui montrent la réaction des femmes selon Bougainville.
- Comment sont-elles présentées ?

Ecoutez l'extrait 3 (prise de parole de John Marai, Corinne Raybaud, historienne et Serge Tcherkezoff) [21 :38 - 26 :20] **et répondez aux questions** :

- Quelle est la réaction du metteur en scène une fois sa lecture terminée ? Comment l'expliquez-vous ?
- D'après Tcherkezoff, quelle image de la femme en général est-elle construite par le discours de Bougainville ? Quelles contradictions relève l'anthropologue ? Quels sont les écarts avec le journal de Fesche ?

Conclusion

Cet article rassemble ainsi diverses propositions pédagogiques qui convergent toutes vers la notion de diversité, au cœur de l'enseignement des *littératures en français*. Cette expression choisie se veut porteuse d'un renouveau de l'enseignement et des manuels scolaires du secondaire.

Nous nous inscrivons dans une démarche de recherche appliquée en explorant de quelle manière nous pouvons ouvrir nos cours à la multiplicité des littératures en français. L'originalité de notre démarche est de proposer à l'enseignant.e de français un ensemble de principes qui définissent un cadre pour l'aider dans l'élaboration de ses cours en faisant de cette notion de diversité la ligne directrice. Celle-ci se décline sous différentes formes et formats, autorisant une pluralité de regards, lectures, perspectives et contextes de production.

Nous avons ainsi élaboré quatre principes dont les deux premiers (rendre visible la complexité de l'espace littéraire de langue française et multiplier les voix littéraires) ont fait l'objet de cet article. Nous avons décliné dans chaque principe son cadre théorique et quelques activités de classe. Le cadre théorique est une synthèse utile pour l'élaboration d'une séquence, d'un parcours ou d'une fiche pédagogique. La cartographie littéraire par exemple, dont les zones ont été définies par Christiane Ndiaye (2004), pourrait faire l'objet d'une infographie pour l'introduction d'un cours de français.

Notre approche ne prétend pas être révolutionnaire, ni faire *tabula rasa* des principes pédagogiques existants. Toutefois, nous espérons que ces propositions, qui s'appuient sur la transposition concrète de plusieurs textes critiques, puissent contribuer, aussi modestement soit-il, à une refonte des *curricula* en apportant une forme d'élan et d'allant aux réflexions pédagogiques actuelles qui sont et doivent rester en constante évolution.

A venir donc : les principes 3 et 4.

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Teacherless Observations: Supporting Student Agency

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Abstract

Leysin American School, which has focused on developing greater student agency for several years, recently trialled a different sort of classroom observation, called Teacherless Observations. The regular classroom teachers volunteered not to be in the classroom during a classroom observation. Instead, an observer (a physical education teacher and three administrators; the authors) sat in during the class, taking notes. The observers documented the student interaction using running records. Teachers were allowed to prepare their students in any manner they found appropriate, from no preparation at all to assigning specific roles and leaving a specific lesson plan to follow. The observers report on their own experience and the shared experience of the teachers. The discussion includes the interesting variants of preparation, observation, and student behavior during these teacherless observations, and suggests why such observations might be an interesting addition to professional development programs focused on developing student agency.

Keywords: Student agency, self-regulation, agile, K-12, international schools, professional development, professional learning

Teacherless Observations at Leysin American School (LAS) were developed in the middle school (ages 12-14), which at the time was using visible displays of student workflow in the form of simple kanban boards (essentially columns of To Do, Doing, and Done). Seeing one of these boards in an English class, a substitute teacher suggested to the students that he merely observe how well they were able to run the lesson instead of taking the reins himself. He wrote notes for the teacher that captured minute by minute what the students were doing, in running record style, and later piloted the process in other classes (Magnuson and Cosgrove, 2018; Magnuson, Tihen, Cosgrove, and Patton, 2018).

Interest in student agency, triggered by the use of kanban boards in middle school, spread across other grades, as did interest in teacherless observations as a possible method to observe how able students are to manage classroom learning by themselves. Therefore, four faculty members formed as a team of observers to take notes in ten different classes to learn more about teacherless observations and how this form of observation might inform the observers, the teachers, and the students about the current state of student agency in the school.

Background

LAS is an international boarding school with just under 300 students from more than forty countries. Students are age 12 to 19, in US grades 7 to 12. The curriculum through grade 10 would be familiar to any US educator; in grades 11 and 12 students can also choose to study for the International Baccalaureate diploma.

Unique to the school is a research center dedicated to teacher and student self-regulation. The research center organizes professional learning activities for the entire teaching faculty. It also facilitates teacher and student demonstrations, presentations, interviews, academic writing, and outreach to other schools and organizations. Student agency is the central leitmotif of the research center, operationalized in recent years by faculty efforts to bring agile into education. Agile is a family of practices and beliefs about work largely associated with the software industry, but increasingly present in education. For a historical overview, see Salza, Musmarra and Ferrucci (2018). The most well-known programmed version of agile in education is eduScrum (eduScrum Guide, 2020). LAS has not created or adopted a particular agile methodology, but instead focuses on developing a mindset, mostly in instructional practices, but also in some areas of curriculum assessment and professional development. The kanban boards that serendipitously launched the teacherless observations are a tool commonly associated with agile practices.

Schools, including LAS, are generally not structured to emphasize soft skills such as personal agency (see the Mastery Transcript Consortium for an important effort to change that). For example, classroom observations are often focused on how the teacher is teaching and not how the students are learning, though of course not exclusively. One could probably argue that teacher training and certification programs have an historical bias to a focus on teaching how to teach, meaning focusing on what the teacher does, and to a lesser extent on what the students are doing.

Therefore, in order to gauge where the students are in their ability to self-manage their own learning - their level of personal agency - it may be helpful to shift some of our practices to a focus that is much more on student learning, specifically self-directed learning. Teacherless observations may be one of those tools.

Method

We are interested in knowing whether or not to pursue teacherless observations. Thus our research questions focus not only on the educational value of a teacherless class hour, but also on the possible systemic outcomes of conducting teacherless observations on a more regular basis. Because three of the four authors are members of the research center, this study might be best characterized as participatory action research. Our participation was limited to the role of the observer except for one classroom observation in which one of us was the teacher of a class observed by another member of our research team.

Research questions

- How do students use class time when they do not receive assistance from their teacher?
- Are teacherless observations an effective method to promote self-regulation at our school and possibly other schools?

Participants

The four of us scheduled class observations with members of our teaching faculty. Three of us observed two classes each and one of us observed four classes, for a total of ten

observations. Each class was taught by a different teacher, therefore the study included 10 teachers. Nine of the teachers were recruited through a faculty-wide appeal via email and one teacher agreed to participate because he needed a substitute teacher to take his class.

Students became participants by virtue of their teacher volunteering to participate. Some students experienced more than one teacherless observation.

Procedure

Over a three-week period, we observed ten teacherless class hours. After each observation we debriefed the lesson with the teachers, either face to face or through email. After the observations were completed we surveyed ourselves and the teacher participants (see Appendix A). We also surveyed student participants, but because so few students responded to the survey, we did not include data from those surveys in the study.

Participating teachers were asked to prepare their class however they liked, as long as they were *not* present during the class observation. Observers agreed not to interfere or help the class in any way. Their role - our role as researchers observing the class - was to take a running record (see Appendix B for a sample) of the class hour, recording how the students behaved, what they worked on (or not), and if they seemed to be making progress in the content area. Some teachers found it difficult not to be present, at least at the beginning of class. One teacher was present at the beginning and end of the observation and watched the class through the window of a neighboring classroom. Eight teachers told their students in advance that a teacherless observation was scheduled. Two teachers did not warn their students, feeling that surprising them would be a better test of their self-regulation.

Discussion

We will discuss what the four of us observers experienced, including (1) our own behavior in the classrooms, (2) what we noticed about student interaction and learning, and (3) how lessons were debriefed by us and the teacher participants. Then we turn our attention to what teachers reported about their experience. We conclude with thoughts about the possible growth and utility of teacherless observations and why they might be worth introducing into a professional development program focused on student agency.

Our own behavior in the classroom

As observers, we all thought that being “a fly on the wall” was best so that students were not overly influenced by us. We did however consider it reasonable to make some small talk and to ask some questions when appropriate. All of us, without discussing it ahead of time, avoided the teacher chair and desk and sat either at the back of the room or in a student chair. All notes were taken on a laptop or phone and entered into a Google document. One teacher participant noted that taking notes on the phone was something to avoid in future observations, since students might think that the observer was using the phone for personal messages. All teachers received the running records after the lessons, and a few of them were invited to view the notes during the lesson, allowing them to ask the observer questions about the class while it was in progress.

Very few of us circulated the room frequently, either remaining in one spot or moving through the classroom once or twice. On a few occasions some of us stepped out of the room, either to see how the class would react with no adult in the room or in one case for an unavoidable work phone call. Some students asked us as observers about the teacherless observation or about where their teacher was, depending on how much their teacher had prepped them about the observation in advance. When students asked if they could use the bathroom, we generally chose to shrug our shoulders or not give any particular indication of what they

could or couldn't do. In other words, we were observing, but we were acting neither as teachers nor authority figures.

What we noticed about student interaction and learning

It's important to note that what teachers did before the observation took place affected how the students worked during the observation. Some teachers prepped the students quite a bit, explaining what a teacherless observation was and giving the students a schedule, tasks, and perhaps putting certain students in charge. Others mentioned that there would be an observation without the teacher in the room, and perhaps who was visiting and why. Still others didn't inform students that they would not be present.

In classes where students were prepped there was usually some sort of task either written on the board, shared via Google Classroom, or announced in the class prior to the observation. In these lessons there were often student "teachers" or leaders of the lesson. In some classes this meant the student stood at the front of the room and explained what students would do during the class, in others the student or students played the role of a supervisor who circulated in the room and made sure the other students were on task.

In classes with multiple student leaders there may have been more peer to peer interactions. Students asked each other for help, gave each other feedback, and worked as a team to complete their work. In one English class clear leaders emerged for the activity the teacher had left for them, a debate. When all else failed, students sometimes fell back to reaching out to the teacher via email with questions, or in some cases, simply waited out the rest of the class.

Several of the observed classes were usually led by a teacher (on regular days when the teacher was present) who had been working on student agency or who had students in the class with experience in highly self-regulated classrooms. In the most intentional of these self-regulated classes - art, engineering, and physical education - students generally were able to get right to work on projects that were already underway. In a sense, they had regular experience with teacherless observations, not because the teacher is not present in their day-to-day classes, but because the teacher has more often than not adopted a resource role instead of a traditional teacher-fronted classroom leader role. These students were also more likely to stay after class was over to continue their work.

The students in a math class were quite diligent about doing their work, though they found they couldn't complete the work without their teacher, so they proceeded to email their questions to him. They then returned to the easier work assigned during the class, ostensibly to feel they were staying on task, though they then failed to complete the more difficult work. Interestingly, they did not seem particularly adept at finding a path to solutions online, even though they were motivated to complete the assignment.

Other students fared better with prepared teacher work, working during the lesson and supporting each other, and following the script the teacher had left by collecting work toward the end of class. In one class the students spent the last ten minutes of the hour - and more, since some of them stayed after the class was over - discussing problems from a math test they had taken in the class preceding the one in which they were observed. They could be said to be off task if one only thought about the English class they were in, but on task if one thought about their learning in school as a whole. Would they have debriefed the math test during the English class if the English teacher had been present? What role does the flexibility for students to discuss what they are interested in play in their general motivation for school?

Students in one class went directly to their seats when the observer opened the classroom door and for the most part stayed at their desks until the end of the 90-minute lesson. The teacher had left instructions on the board and on Google Classroom. One student took the lead, going to the front of the classroom to explain to the others what should be done during the class. Some students were productive and shared their work, per the instructions, with their peers. Other students did not engage with the work at all and chatted with friends for most of the class period. For the scheduled break, no students left the classroom and only one stood up. In other words, while the teacher preparation helped some classes navigate the teacherless class, this was not always the case.

In a physical education class, a few students adopted leadership positions, though not assigned by the teacher. These student leaders encouraged the class to warm up before the class dressed to play flag football. They made four teams, two of which played while the other two teams watched. Play went on quite well with little discussion about calls and time on the floor was split fairly evenly between the two pairs of teams. Near the end of the lessons they called for the last play and then went to change clothes. Several students stayed in the gym, either throwing footballs or shooting baskets. By the time the lesson ended all the balls were picked up and all students had gone to change.

How lessons were debriefed by us and the teacher participants

The debriefing sessions between the observer and teacher varied. At a minimum the teacher was able to access the running records the observer had written, via Google documents. On the other end of the spectrum were more in-depth conversations immediately following the observation or later that day, including discussing the lesson over lunch. Between these two extremes, the debriefing was usually about ten to twenty minutes.

Observers used different conventions in the running notes. For example, some observers did not specifically name the students in the notes, so the teachers had to guess which student did what. “I can pretty much identify the kids by what you wrote about them,” said one of the teachers. The length and detail of the notes also varied, as well as the observer’s main focus.

Conversations directly after a lesson were seen as more meaningful by the teachers than merely receiving the running records and an emailed update. The observers and teacher participants were able to engage in informal conversations regarding each class, which led to interesting discussions as to what the students were actually doing at the time and how strategies could be implemented in the future. In hindsight, allowing some time to pass could have been factored in to allow for processing of information or to continue to build upon thoughts going forward. However, in a busy school schedule this is not always practical. One teacher in particular was frustrated with the outcome of the observation of his students, though after some time and discussions in more informal settings, the teacher was able to accept that the poor student behaviour wasn’t all that unusual given the circumstances.

There were varying methods regarding how and when the debrief was shared. All notes were shared electronically and some observers allowed the teacher participants to see the notes and follow along during the class. Some notes were shared with teachers after the observed lesson but before the debriefing session and some notes were shared at the debriefing session itself. Perhaps most interesting for future consideration was the model in which the teacher was on the Google doc as the observer was writing notes, allowing an ongoing conversation about what was happening in the classroom.

Survey responses

Observers

We used two surveys, one with ourselves (n=4) and one with the teachers (n=10; see Appendix A). As observers writing to our own survey prompts, we mostly mentioned the structure of the instruction in the class, our perceptions about the quality of the learning, the degree to which students were on task, and how we felt ourselves, sometimes including a comment about our own learning. We also mentioned a few anecdotes that were interesting conversation starters for our discussion about the utility of teacherless observations.

In general, we enjoyed observing students and how they worked together (or not) and how students sometimes demonstrated leadership and maturity differently in one class from another. Our reports generally mentioned that students were on task, but not universally. One class in particular demonstrated a high level of distraction with devices and other manners of distracting oneself or others, and some reports in other classes mentioned distractions caused by smartphones.

We found that teachers set up their students for the teacherless observation in different ways. Two teachers intentionally said nothing about their upcoming absence. The majority of teachers, however, let students know that a teacherless observation was coming up and they prepared their students by assigning roles (e.g. leaders, presenters, collectors of student work) and perhaps giving guidance on timing during class. One teacher found it very difficult not to be with her class, both at the beginning and end, and expressed concern about student safety during a science lab.

Several anecdotes are worth expanding on. These are stories of frustration, hints at learning and self-regulation, and successes of individuals and classes demonstrating significant student agency.

One teacher was frustrated with the class after the observation and had to take some time to process the running records before talking with students. It was hard for him to learn that some of his students were not on task, as normal as that might be. He continued to debrief the experience with other faculty members over the course of several days, either at lunch or other various breaks in the school day. Distracted students is of course one outcome we might expect during a teacherless observation. His experience provided an indication that his students were not able to self-direct - yet - and that he needed to consider how he was teaching, what the students were experiencing in his class and other classes, and what he might do in order to better prepare them for self-regulated work.

We noticed that a quiet student in one class adopted a leadership role in another class. We noticed that even students who worked very conscientiously may have a “lack of ability to give that final push to solve the problem,” as one of us worded it. Because we were observing students instead of the teacher, we were presented with opportunities to learn more about the students. One teacher told the observer that the difference in student agency was due to practice and experience - her first-year students in the IB Programme weren’t as good at self-regulation as the second-year students, a remark echoed by another observer, noting that age is an important variable in student agency. One observer, a few days after the observation, complemented a student who had demonstrated good work habits. She surprised him by saying those habits were compensatory skills she used to offset her ADHD.

A ninth-grade student, who had participated the previous year in our school’s program specifically designed to practice student agency (and who struggled to direct his own learning all the way into February of that school year), adopted a caretaker role with the unruliest student in his class. He repeatedly helped his friend refocus on the work, and at

one point commented to the observer that he knew how important it was to develop the ability to work independently and keep yourself on track.

A notable success among the teachers is the continued work between one observer and teacher. After debriefing the teacherless observation for this study, the pair decided to continue observing each other's classes - an example of teacher self-regulation. During one period of the day when they teach at the same time, they sometimes switch classes to both become observers of teacherless classes. Likewise, another teacher participant has since observed a teacherless class and is interested in others observing his class again, in the same manner.

Teachers

Teachers were interested in participating in the study to see how their students would do, as well as expressing a general interest in improving their practice. One teacher felt this is the way her classes already ran. She saw participation in the study as a chance to get more classes to adopt a similar, more self-regulated style. Some teachers did nothing at all to prepare their students, not even informing the students of their upcoming absence and the observation. Other teachers provided some minimal guidance, like notes on the board or advice to continue work in progress that students were already familiar with. A few teachers assigned students specific roles. One teacher wrote a "relatively detailed outline" and another even included the time when the break should start and end.

Some teachers expressed mild surprise at how much students veered off task, others expressed surprise about individual students who were on task and in one case, about a student who unexpectedly took on a leadership role. One teacher thought that with a little training the class could get much better at self-regulation; other teachers wondered to what extent the observer was keeping students on task simply by being there in the room.

Teachers also commented on the format of the observation. One felt observers should take notes without devices because it looked to the students like the observers themselves were off task. Another teacher expressed concerns about the research model itself, wondering if it didn't bias toward reports of off-task behavior. She also suggested student interviews about their experience would add strength to the study.

The teachers thought that the students, if asked about their on-task behavior, would report that they were on task during the teacherless observation "about the same" (7) or "less" (3) than a regular, teacher-led class. Teachers who later asked their students about the experience reported that students expressed some confusion, with one class even using the word "chaos" to describe the lesson. One class suggested that they weren't ready to handle the particular task alone, and another class thought that, although they like working alone, it would have been helpful to have the teacher available for questions.

Interestingly, one teacher reported that the students "thought it was strange but they enjoyed having some freedom. This then started a conversation about how they wanted some different rules and routines in the class which was interesting and allowed us to make changes right away." Another teacher commented that, "This is how we always work …" because she regularly runs individual conferences with students while everyone else does independent work.

Teachers received the running record from the observers and in all cases debriefed the lesson, though a few debriefing sessions were quite short - less than five minutes - and in one case the entire exchange was by email. Some teachers may have wanted to see more than just running records, hoping to get more feedback from the observer. Much of the

conversation was, understandably, whether or not the students were on task, and which ones were more on task than others.

One teacher-observer pair modified the observation in an interesting way. The observer shared the Google document with the teacher at the beginning of the lesson and the teacher watched the lesson unfold through the comments in the document and through holding an online conversation with the observer. He wrote about the experience: “I was thrilled that my observer kept a live-feed document with observations/notes of the course, down to the minute. I was able to see (via the Google Doc) what my students were doing/saying. It was quite interesting and entertaining.” Together they discussed the students’ apparent inability to find information on their own. Their googling skills, it seemed to the observer and the teacher, were less than proficient, and the students got stuck as a class because of it.

Teachers gave feedback on the process of the teacherless observation. There was concern that students might think the observer is off task if using a device to type the running records. One teacher mentioned that students noticed when an observer had to leave for a phone call. More thorough critiques included suggestions to contextualize the observations, by, for example, providing the teachers more information about the purpose and the procedure, preparing the observer better with pictures and names of students, presumably to make the running records more specific, and more written information given to the teacher so it doesn’t feel like the class period is lost.

One comment in particular is worth highlighting, in which a teacher reflected on the context for teacherless observations:

“I do not think this is something you can just leap into, it requires scaffolding of the process and the students to develop an innate understanding of an iterative process in order to be successful. If it's just an exercise in prompting a class how to work without you for 1 day without any prior learning it is a waste of time. The valuable part is when students really understand how to take charge of their own learning on a long-term basis and can apply this to any situation they find themselves in.”

We certainly aren’t looking to create a situation that is a waste of time and we wonder to what degree a single observation like in this study might lead to students truly adopting greater personal agency for their learning. We asked teachers if they would support an entire day of teacherless classes, as a schoolwide gut check about the status of student agency. Four teachers responded “absolutely,” four “probably,” and two “probably not.” It certainly is interesting to imagine what a school day without teachers might look like.

What is the future for the teacherless observation?

Teacherless observations came about mostly by chance, but not entirely so. The first teacherless observation was in a classroom with visible kanban boards - a manner of making the classroom work and workflow visible. Because it was obvious to the substitute teacher that the class was already working on greater self-regulation, the substitute teacher felt empowered to test the extent to which students could run the class themselves. The test that emerged is surprisingly simple - an observer simply observes a class while the students conduct themselves as they are able during the classroom hour. Teacher (and hopefully observer) reflection is aided by the observer’s running records of what the students actually do while the teacher is absent. To help “sell” the experience to teachers, it doesn’t hurt that the teacher actually gains some planning or down time, since the teacher cannot be in the class.

So, is there a future for teacherless observations?

We think so. When we proposed teacherless observations to our faculty, about 20 percent of them volunteered to participate in the study - and this during the uncertainty of COVID when the faculty taught in both physical and remote classrooms simultaneously without knowing from one day to the next what the impact of the pandemic would be. Participants who did participate were mostly positive, even responding that a whole day “teacherless” event might be worth supporting. Discussions that followed the observations, whether between the observer and the teacher or among colleagues over lunch, seemed to provide a novel way of thinking about teaching and learning in order to reflect on both individual classes and how we do school as a whole.

It is the experience and reflection combined where deeper learning - or even transformation - can take place. While we were quite focused on observing the classroom interaction during the teacherless class, not all of us were as diligent about following through with teacher reflection afterwards, nor were we very intentional about how we could support teacher reflection on the process. This is a missed opportunity, because the ongoing reflection is much of the value of staging the teacherless observation in the first place. Be that as it may, good conversations did arise from the observations, some of them quite extended. For a school like ours interested in supporting self-directed learning, creating a culture in which conversation and reflection about self-directed learning is more likely to happen is a satisfactory step.

Teacher reflection about the observation after it is completed is a great professional development opportunity for the teacher, but by no means the only one. Because the intent of the observation is known to the teachers in advance, and because there are few rules other than “not to be present” during the observation, teachers actually begin reflecting about the observation before it takes place. Some of the teachers in the study overtly prepared their students by assigning specific roles or letting them know the class plan in advance. Other teachers in the study enjoyed the possibility of simply not being there and seeing to what extent the students could carry on. Either approach can exert a bit of pressure to be thinking about how independent the students are and how the curriculum, instruction, assessment, physical classroom, and classroom routines influence student agency.

Specifically, we asked ourselves how students use class time when they do not receive assistance from the teacher. With the exception of many students in one class and some individual students in other classes, we observed students who were able to focus on the tasks left for them by the teacher, to assist each other in appropriate ways through clarifying a task or working together or sharing materials with each other. We observed a certain degree of off-task behavior and distraction by, among other things, phones and their other devices. We also observed students who helped manage the class, either by taking on a leadership role given to them by the teacher in preparation for the teacherless observation or by assuming a leadership role on the spot to help the class navigate without the teacher.

We are aware, of course, that the students were not left completely alone and that the presence of an observer scanning the room and typing notes (although we did our best to appear nonchalant) has an effect on classroom behavior. We cannot claim the class would run the same in the complete absence of the teacher. We can, however, imagine that we, or another school, might like to test scenarios without teachers, for the purpose of generating further discussion and reflection among both students and teachers. We actually do have a version of teacherless class already in our school - during evening study hall in the dorms. If we are content to let students work alone or with roommates and dorm mates in the evening, why wouldn’t we be during the academic day? Perhaps some experimentation with teacherless observations can raise questions about other teaching and learning practices, in this case study hall, which sometimes go overlooked.

The classrooms we observed ran differently, which caused us to reflect on the number of variables which combine to create a classroom culture. Some teachers tend to give their students freedom to practice self-regulation, some run a tight teacher-fronted class that allows for little practice of self-regulation. Not only are teachers' styles different, but so too are their personalities, their mastery of the content, their background, their culture, their training, and their comfort level at the school. The list of factors that affect classroom culture is long. Perhaps teacherless observations are a safe way for teachers to engage in dialog about the classroom culture they develop and the factors they think contribute to it. We observed, for example, a student in one class that seemed unengaged and anything but self-directed, who then surprised us in another class by taking on a leadership role to support the lesson. What if teacherless observations were conducted in such a manner that helped teachers observe each others' classes? Teachers would have a chance of observing students they know from their own classroom, and about whom they've inevitably formed opinions, in another context. If self-regulation is the goal of the school and a teacher notices that a non-self-regulated student, at least in their own classroom, displays great self-regulation in another class, the teacher might be convinced that part of that student's unwillingness or inability to take charge lies with the teacher, not with the student.

Will Richardson, founder of Modern Classrooms and more recently the Think Big Institute, presented in a 2016 TEDx (and regularly shared on social media in the fall of 2020) that "schools are not built for learning" (Richardson, 2016). This is a provocative claim, of course, and would take considerable unpacking. We think that a teacherless observation can play a similar, but more modest (and more politically acceptable) provocative role, asking us to think about how we have set up learning by turning the classroom a bit on its head, even if only for one class period and with a supervising adult taking notes in the corner. In fact, we think that an exercise like the teacherless observation is a small enough event that it can be adopted in a traditional school with little risk to students and faculty in order to have an experience which truly questions the way we do school. We do not have to say that schools are not about learning, but we can make a point with a teacherless observation that there are different ways to go about learning - and that the ensuing conversation is worth having.

Finally, it was interesting for us to see that some teachers who took part in the teacherless observation left a script for the students to follow, which in one case included a scheduled time for a break. While doing so was completely legitimate in the instructions we gave teachers, the perception that high school students need that much guidance provides discussion fodder about what students should be expected to handle and what they are able to handle. If teacherless observations were done at several points during the year, the conversation might be all the richer. Can students handle taking a break at a time that makes sense based on the work they are doing or the mental or physical need they have for a break? Or should it be scripted for them? And what are they learning when working in those two types of environments?

Teacherless observations may then be an effective method to promote self-regulation at our school, particularly because we have been discussing, observing, and theorizing about self-regulation for quite a few years. But would it work in other environments?

While our data do not say anything directly about how teacherless observations might contribute to another school's efforts to support self-regulation, we suspect that the nature of the observation as a single event in a class with an adult observer in the room is neither a difficult procedure for most schools nor a practice that would be ill-received by parents. Because it is simple to do, and because it even grants a teacher a free class hour, the barrier to experimenting with this format is very low.

A planned series of teacherless observations, say one observation a month, might provide some interesting benchmarks for a teacher and the students of a particular class. Improvement in student ability to self-regulate may follow similar trajectories across classes, which might then be insightful for constructing more student-centered, self-regulated learning. Improvements to - or any changes in - the ability of a class to function when the teacher is not present could also serve to keep the conversation going between teachers and students, effectively reminding them that the school has a goal of improving self-regulated learning. Regular observations would also bring to light the classes that are generally more successful, identifying in turn teachers who have constructed classroom cultures that tend to handle greater student self-regulation better. Those teachers could be the ones chosen to work with other teachers and to be observed, and ultimately to champion efforts designed to help the school move toward a goal of greater student agency.

Conclusion

If we want students to be self-directed learners we have to give them time to practice being self-directed learners. We need to demonstrate that we are serious about them becoming self-directed learners. We also need to keep the conversation about self-regulated learning current among teachers, based on real experiences. Teacherless observations provide a start. They afford students classroom time that is significantly less teacher-directed and they demonstrate to students that teachers would like them to be productive independent learners. They also provide us with information about the extent to which students exhibit personal agency. Teacherless observations also set the stage for discussion and reflection about our assumptions about schooling, including the role of the teacher, the role of the students, and the nature of learning and interacting in the classroom. It is through the continual reflection on real experience, whether as a teacher or an observer, that we continue to learn from conversations about student agency.

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APPENDIX A

We created surveys for ourselves as observers, for the teachers, and for the students in the teachers' classes. The surveys were as parallel as possible, as shown in the table below. Student questions are not shown because, after repeated attempts to encourage participation, the number of student responses was so low we excluded them from our data entirely.

Survey set up and prompts.

Researcher (n=4)	Teacher (n=10)
Which TEACHER did you observe? (provide the name)	
	Why did you volunteer to be part of this study?
	Describe what you did to prepare your students for the teacherless observation.
● Describe your experience as an OBSERVER in JUST THIS TEACHER'S CLASS. (You will be asked to submit an additional survey for the second class you observed).	
Were you surprised by any aspect of the visit?	Were you surprised by any aspect of the visit?
How do you think the STUDENTS would respond to this question: Compared to a regular class when your teacher is present in the classroom, was the "teacherless" class... ● Less on task? ● About the same on task? ● More on task?	How do you think the STUDENTS would respond to this question: Compared to a regular class when your teacher is present in the classroom, was the "teacherless" class .... ● Less on task? ● About the same on task? ● More on task?
	What did the students tell you about their experience of the teacherless observation?
If you as the OBSERVER debriefed your teacherless observation with the TEACHER, please describe your conversation.	If you debriefed with the observer, describe your conversation.
As a campus event, would you support an entire day of teacherless classes? ● No ● Probably not ● Most likely ● Absolutely	As a campus event, would you support an entire day of teacherless classes? ● No ● Probably not ● Most likely ● Absolutely
Please share any additional comments.	Please share any additional comments.

APPENDIX B

Here is a fifteen-minute excerpt of the running records from an observation of a science class. Student names have been substituted by letters.

1:10 I arrived early just to see what was happening! A and S in the room then they left, I think maybe they were worried what was happening!

1:11 A and X in the room on their laptops, X informs me that he is the 'teacher' for today along with K.

1:13 Students arriving and staring weirdly at me - ha ha!

1:14 Some chatter when they arrive, X and K at the front and waiting for quiet.

1:15 Register taken. X introduces the 'do now' and gives a 5-minute time limit. B is doing some work on his iPad - looks like homework.

1:17 M asks for a charger from X. N asks X for clarification and he helps. B and D are talking about the task and commenting on other people' actions. Some of them think that they are being graded on this. D is working on his phone as he forgot his laptop, he says he is just as productive.

1:19 K checking on B. X asks if they need extra time for this task. D showing everyone his phone and work.

1:22 D asks if they have to submit the work, the answer is no so D asks 'Why are we doing it?' X asks for F to be distant or wear his mask. All are working on the task, D is complete, L and S working together on one laptop.

1:24 X is checking for answers. S answers, B asks for the slide with answers. F answers the next question from X. And then asks N for the next answer, N deflects because she doesn't know but M takes over and answers. I answers and is corrected by X.

Nurturing mathematical literacy at lower primary level: Impacts on student understanding of formal mathematical concepts

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Abstract

This study investigates to what extent mathematical literacy in lower primary students (aged 6 to 8) in England was developed by a sequence of three lessons. The lessons focused on understanding of two mathematical concepts, tessellation and self-similarity, and their links with lattices and crystals. 117 students completed a pencil-and-paper based open-ended questionnaire six months after the lessons were implemented. The results show that students could articulate the meanings of these concepts. Follow-up interviews with 15 of the students illustrate that visual representations have an important role to play in making students aware of these mathematical concepts, and in developing their capabilities to reason and communicate through use of these concepts.

Key Words: Mathematical literacy, tessellation, self-similarity, visual representations

Introduction

PISA (the Programme of International Student Assessment) has proposed mathematical literacy (ML) as the main focus of its assessment. It is well acknowledged that mathematical literacy is a capacity that students should display if they are to be prepared for their future lives (OECD, 2018), as they are expected to analyse, reason, and communicate mathematical ideas effectively as they pose, formulate, solve and interpret mathematical problems. Thus, a mathematically literate student recognises the role that mathematics plays in the world (OECD, 2003). Kilpatrick has synthesised research findings about *mathematical proficiency* to provide practical recommendations for early years schooling (up to the eighth grade) on ML (Kilpatrick, 2001). Mathematical proficiency is made up of five strands: (1) conceptual understanding; (2) procedural fluency; (3) strategic competence; (4) adaptive reasoning; and (5) productive disposition (National Research Council, 2001, p. 5). In teaching practice, ML is sometimes mixed up with the well-known term 'numeracy'. Numeracy mainly refers to a student's ability to perform fundamental maths skills, such as basic calculations, to use and interpret statistical information, and to think critically about mathematical information. These two concepts are indeed closely related. However, ML requires of students a high level of mathematical understanding, both of text and symbol, while numeracy is not necessarily linked to specific and technical understanding (Gal & Tout, 2014). Numeracy and literacy skills are bound to blend into many mathematics lessons, but they are rarely the focus. This study has provided a sequence of lessons to demonstrate a possible way, as how to link these elements together, such as numeracy and literacy, and mathematical proficiency. The study reported here works with in-service teachers to explore what ML looks like in the lower primary setting classroom, and more importantly, it aims to explore students' learning outcomes and their feedback about lessons focused on ML.

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Nonetheless, research findings on numeracy in lower primary settings will be useful in informing the directions of our research on ML. Research on numeracy at lower primary level mainly focuses on language development, with it being argued that there exists a significant mutual relationship between language skills and learning early mathematics (Toll & Van Luit, 2014; Purpura, et al., 2017). Researchers suggest that parents or main caregivers practicing numeracy at home enhance their children's language development, while language development has a causal relationship with numeracy outcomes (LeFevre, et al., 2008; Napoli & Purpura, 2018). Therefore, we need nuanced discussions with students to discern the impact of ML teaching on their understanding of mathematics concepts. From the curriculum design perspective, Sarama and her colleges (2012) have investigated the impact of a particular early mathematics curriculum in linking literacy. They suggest that students' confidence to verbally express their thinking on mathematical concepts is crucial. Therefore, this study explores if students in lower primary settings are confident enough to explain their understandings of school-based mathematics concepts to researchers.

Literature Review

In this literature review, we focus on two relevant research areas: from the teaching perspective, research on teaching strategies for shaping ML, and from the learner's perspective, research on the roles that learning-related emotions play.
Several studies show that mathematics teachers relate ML with the ability to solve problems in daily life, communicating by using mathematics concepts and showing possession of basic mathematics knowledge (Afifah, Khoiri & Qomaria, 2018; Genc & Erbas, 2019). Problem-solving here is, in particular, about raising students' awareness of how they can use their skills to solve problems in real life, rather than about improving their problem-solving skills per se. This brings with it several challenges for educators and researchers, such as on how to develop the instructional process accordingly. Sumirattana, Makanong and Thipkong (2017) have proposed five steps in this instructional process: (1) posing real life problems; (2) solving problems individually or in a group; (3) presenting and discussing; (4) developing formal mathematics, and (5) applying knowledge. However, implementing this instructional process is not straightforward, as there is an underlying question to address: what sort of real-life problems should be part of the curriculum and teaching practice for facilitating ML? Gatabi, Stacey and Gooya (2012) have proposed four aspects mathematics problems should have or involve: (1) an extra-mathematical context, (2) multiple steps and the making of connections, (3) formulation, and (4) interpretation and/or checking. In this model, the purpose of teaching mathematics goes beyond calculating right answers, extending towards developing higher-order thinking skills and creating opportunities to see the world through mathematical lenses. Furthermore, this teaching even transcends problem-solving, as it involves recognising the features of mathematics in natural phenomena (Steen, Turner & Burkhardt, 2007). Drawing on these research findings, we first reviewed all the key mathematical concepts at lower primary level in the area of shapes. We found that concepts such as tessellation, similarity and self-similarity could be linked to natural phenomena, such as snowflakes, lattices and crystals. The Science National Curriculum (DfE, 2015) holds up having pupils "experience and observe phenomena" as the "principal focus of science teaching Key Stage 1". These natural phenomena are visible to all students, regardless of their background or academic ability.

ML also places an emphasis on improving students' ability to make use of mathematics in different contexts. However, the foundation of this improvement rests on the assumption that students have sufficient mathematics knowledge, and it depends on students' openness to mathematics (Amit & Fried, 2002). The focus in current education on memorisation of mathematics skills has been blamed for causing lack of confidence in the subject, and even for the shortage of people with the desire to become mathematics teachers (Breen, Cleary & O'Shea, 2009). Researchers and educators have thoroughly recognised the effects of emotions in the learning process (Valiente, Swanson & Eisenberg, 2011). A large amount of

research investigates the influence of these emotions on ML, in phenomena such as mathematics anxiety, emotional intelligence, self-confidence, self-efficacy, etc. Hwang (2019) observes the strong relationship between students' feelings of helplessness and their ML. He points out that helplessness is learnt, and students tend to see it as stemming from their lack of ability – a connection that is often based on emotional states more than their actual capacities.

Although this research has highlighted these various intersections in the classroom at secondary level, findings are also instructive in the primary setting. The aim of the present study is to extend the understanding of ML into lower primary settings, testing the idea of nurturing abilities, and measuring the impacts. We employ a holistic approach, involving a ML-focused three-lesson sequence and professional development programme for teachers working with local educational agencies and academia – all with the aim that teachers will be better placed to help students develop their ML. We present student feedback on the intervention, helping us to evaluate what can be done in primary settings.

The Study

The Snowflake Bentley project was funded by Education Durham, Durham County Council. It was designed to empower teachers to think differently about how they structure tasks in order to deepen the learning experience for all pupils – in particular their ML, and in the link between numeracy and literacy. This study aimed to provide evidence of the mathematical concepts students understand and recall from lessons focused on ML, and to show their feelings towards these lessons.

The project involved a package of curriculum design (a sequence of three lessons designed and delivered by the third author, with teachers from each school asked to observe the delivery) with strong ML elements. It ran in the 2017/2018 academic year. The design of the package was in line with four aspects proposed by Bansilal, Webb and James (2015): (1) using contextual language, such as the example of the snowflake, to highlight 2D shapes, e.g. regular hexagons, (2) employing contextual signifiers, such as crystal from minerals, in describing 3D shapes, e.g. cubic, octahedral; (3) introducing contextual rules, such as self-similarity; and (4) drawing on contextual graphs to engage students with these contextual resources, thus going beyond just numeracy and literacy in the teaching.

The third author, who designed the lesson materials, led a Continuing Professional Development (CPD) session with participating schools after the full delivery of all lessons. Teachers were asked to reflect on the underlying lesson planning structure, and on how the mathematical concepts and the natural phenomena linked together. Teachers were also asked to reflect on what they observed in terms of their students' interactions with and responses to the activities in the lesson. They were asked to collaboratively develop a sequence of lessons for their own classroom taking account of this curriculum design.

Given the sample in this research focuses on students aged 6 to 8, we recognise the need to collect interview data to follow up on the paper-based questionnaire as paper-and-pencil questionnaire might not capture all their understandings. Analysis of data gathered from semi-structured interviews is suitable here because it allows participants to express their views and feelings (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007), as well as to explain further their understanding of certain concepts in ML.

We put forward the following two research questions in the context of lower primary settings:

1. In which ways and to what extent do students understand the mathematics concepts presented?
2. What feelings do students express in relation to ML?

Methods

The collection and processing of the data set

The research design used involved mixed methods, in the form of a descriptive study. Three primary schools located in North East England participated in the project. Students from the three schools first completed a questionnaire (see Appendix A). Four questions (Question 1, 2, 4 and 5) were related to the mathematics concepts they had been taught six months previously, without revealing the name of the concept. Question 5 was related to their understanding of crystals and how they view crystals through mathematical eyes. Two questions (Question 3 and 6) were related to their feelings. Part of the rationale for this step was that it would increase the likelihood of students being willing talk about their feelings in the subsequent interviews (See Appendix B), to help answer Research Question 2. The implementation of the questionnaire and interviews took place between 21st May and 8th June 2018, following on from the implementation in the classroom during the Autumn Term of 2017. The purpose of this schedule was to gather information on its impacts six months after the implementation.

Two members of the research team visited each primary school setting to conduct the student questionnaires and to interview students. During the visits to the schools, two members of the research team and the classroom teachers gathered the students together to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed to take no longer than 10 minutes to complete. After completing the questionnaire, one-to-one interviews were set up for 15 pupils in total in the three schools, subject to consent. Each interview took no longer than 10 minutes. The School of Education at Durham University granted outline ethics approval on 4th May 2018.

Participants

The classroom teachers from either Year 2 or Year 3 in each school first attended a briefing meeting about the curriculum package. The package was then implemented in their classes during the Autumn Term of the 2017 academic year. 88 Year 2 students and 29 Year 3 students completed the questionnaire (as one school considered the Year 3 class was the best fit for this project). 15 of them consented in interviews. During the interview day, The interview was conducted either with one student with two members from the research team, or a group of students with two members from the research team depending if participants were more comfortable to speak to the research team with their peers present.

Limitations

The limitations in this study are mainly as follows:

(1) As a small-scale pilot study, there is no comparative data, so the outcomes in the three schools could not be equated;
(2) The intervention has three lessons rather than a longer-term structured type, this short intervention, to form the ML is an experience for teachers as well as students. More topics or exemplary lesson designs are needed in practice to form an intervention package.

Results

Findings from the questionnaire

Results for Research Question 1

The activities in the intervention for the Year 2 and 3 students were mainly related to concrete representation. The majority of the students (79 out of 117, 68 percent) reported that the project was related to 'shapes' and 'book' (referring to the book *Snowflake Bentley* that was introduced in the lessons). Nearly half of them (51 out of 117, 44 percent) were able to recall the concrete representations or manipulatives used in the project, such as dice, magnet balls, rocks and crystals. A few recalled the formal mathematics terms from the project (notwithstanding some spelling errors): 18 out of the 117 students (15 percent) mentioned the words 'triangle' and 'square', while 10 out of 117 (8.5 percent) mentioned 'hexagon'.

The notions of being tessellate or symmetrical were reported as the key ideas by 17 of the students (14.5 percent). These words were generally not spelled correctly; 'semetrical' and 'tesselate' were common errors. The majority of these students (12 out of the 17, 70.6 percent) mentioned the word 'atom'. These students also recognised formations, such as hexagonal, square and triangular formations, as the key ideas. When asked about number related activities in the lesson, there were various answers. 12 students reported that it was about making patterns or big shapes.

52 out of the 117 total students (44 percent) described a crystal as a 'shiny' shape. 17 of them (14.5 percent) made connections with the atomic level. 13 of them connected crystals with snowflakes.

Results for Research Question 2

70 out of the 117 students (60 percent) reported that their feeling about the lessons was 'happy', and 45 of them (38.5 percent) felt 'excited'. 40 of them (34 percent) expressed mixed feelings, such as 'happy and confused', 'happy and scared', 'happy, excited, worried', or 'a little bit sad and angry and happy at the end'. 83 out of the 117 students (71 percent) would recommend the lessons to other students as they found them 'interesting', 'amazing' and 'fun'. 12 of them (10 percent) reported that they would not recommend them as they were boring, or not that fun. In summary, this indicated that feelings towards the mathematical-literacy focused lessons were positive, in relation to its mathematics contents, literacy and numeracy.

Findings from the interviews

Positive response towards visual representations linked to literacy

The students were presented with the concrete representations, such as triangles, hexagons and squares, pyramids using ball bearings, in a table. When presented with these visual prompts in the form of the original resources used during the project, and prompted with questions such as "How does this link to tessellation/self-similarity etc" the children could recall and replicate many of the activities encountered:

"I remember that day…I loved it!!"
"I remember now…"
"Oh…and we had to put them in the grid…"

“My favourite part was the atom…all bound together to make this…we stacked them up to make a 3D from the 2D one” [child builds a pyramid using the ball bearings]
“I remember we tried to make a big hexagon from all the hexagons, and a square from all the squares and a triangle from all the triangles…”
“My favourite activity was the balls…(I) didn’t think they would balance properly”
“This was my favourite activity [points to pile of 2D shapes]. You could go about and design your own snowflake pattern…I like making stuff”

Capabilities to reason and communicate ideas

Some groups of students recalled more than the sum of their individual children; the recollection of one child often sparked a memory in another:

“Thank you; you are recharging my brain!” [one child shows the other how they had built a 2 by 2 by 2 cube]

In one school, pairs of students were invited to explore together the full learning sequence, which had been laid out in chronological order in terms of the resources used, without adult intervention. They were then quizzed on what they could remember about the project. These children were able to provide a more complete account of the activities and specialist vocabulary used, successfully explaining many of the key concepts covered with minimal prompting. For example, one pair of children demonstrated self-similarity using dice, and when asked “What is a crystal?” one of the children replied: “(It) is an array of atoms…a perfect array.” When probed for what was different about glass they responded: “Atoms are in a jumbled order not an array.”

Another pair were able to build a ‘triangular array’ and explain self-similarity in 2D, and when prompted to explain why they had been asked to ‘play around with cubes’, they recognised the link to self-similarity.

Although several children were not able to recall the specialist vocabulary (i.e. array, self-similarity, tessellation, and lattice) without prompting, many recalled the ideas behind them. Once re-introduced to these specialist vocabulary items, they were frequently able to use them appropriately in context. For example, having revisited the meaning of self-similarity and tessellation in a 2D context, when prompted: “Cubes build bigger cubes, so cubes are…?” the child was able to describe this correctly as “self-similarity.” Likewise, having revisited the meaning of tessellation, the same child correctly noted that neither circles nor pentagons tessellate and why: “they leave gaps.”

When one of the Year 2 children was asked what makes a crystal a crystal, he pointed to a hexagon and said:

“There are atoms in one of these that look like that [points to a bag of balls] but in a crystal they look like that [points to the model of a square lattice]”

In the schools which used the book *Snowflake Bentley* to support a literacy task, the children were able to recall the full story in depth and spoke with empathy and sadness about the book’s contents, the life and death of William Bentley, who pioneered snowflake photography:

“The book is sad because he dies.”
“He tried to draw snowflakes, but his drawing was rubbish, before he got his camera.”
“He wanted to take the first pictures of a snowflake…became famous but died of pneumonia.”
“It’s a really good book…can’t keep snowflakes forever. He died as he did so much.”

“He kept trying to take photos but (they) kept melting…he went to study snowflakes in a storm and he died.”

Many of the children’s understandings of what a crystal was remained linked to it being “shiny” or “precious” with “different colours” and “different shapes,” and to the idea that it “comes from the ground.” They were unable to recall how it was built up of atoms arranged in a lattice. Some recalled that snowflakes were crystals but were unable to explain why.

In general, Year 3 children were able to recall substantially more of the learning sequence without prompting. Some of the students recognised the cross-curricular nature of the learning:

“We’ve mixed maths with art…!”
“Your hexagons look like honeycomb…”
“They’re like bathroom tiles.”
“We sometimes use arrays in number.”

They went on to ask the interviewer a number of questions above and beyond the scope of the original lessons. This included exploring the importance of electron bonds and divergence angles between these bonds as a possible explanation as to why snowflake crystals were ‘flat’ and not spherical.

In another instance, when invited to ask questions at the end of the data collection interview, one child in Year 2 took the opportunity to quiz the interviewer about his understanding of whether atoms are arranged differently in solids, liquids and gases. The conversation extended to exploring what plasma is, a topic well beyond the scope of the initial project.

Thus, the interviews also provided strong evidence of the importance of providing opportunities which extend what is covered in the normal curriculum, to allow students to be stretched and challenged.

Conclusion

This study extends previous research towards lower primary settings, and investigates students’ learning outcomes regarding a certain curriculum design package that targets ML. The study reveals that students held positive views of ML lessons six months after their implementation. As expected, students in lower primary settings have difficulty in spelling the mathematical terms introduced, but they can often articulate the meanings. This suggests that nurturing ML skills is broadly achievable on this timescale. A promising finding is that students in this study consider cross-curriculum learning among their interests. The students assert that in order to understand why a mathematical concept is important, there is a need to connect the ideas to their existing experiences of daily life. More importantly, they show confidence in identifying where their mathematical knowledge can be applied in wider life. The image of snowflakes links closely to the English winter and Christmas time. Therefore, students’ ability to organise their mathematics knowledge into a coherent whole with deep conceptual understanding of the nature of snowflake is potentially boosted whenever it snows. A next step could be to design several packages on ML in lower primary settings. Conducting follow-up interviews, as evidenced in this study, can provide insight into the integrated parts of the learning process

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Appendix A Student questionnaire

SNOWFLAKE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. During the 3 lessons we did lots of different hands on activities, using different things and objects. Write down any of the activities, things or objects that you can remember:

……
……

2. The activities that you did were designed to help you understand some key ideas and vocabulary (words). Write down any of the key ideas or words that you can remember. If you can explain any of them or give examples please do so:

……
……

3. Can you remember how you felt during any of the lessons? You may have had different feelings at different times, so multiple answers are okay. Please write down what feelings you can remember:

……
……

4. Can you remember any number work or mathematics that you did during the lessons? Please write down anything that you can remember:

……
……

5. Can you describe what a crystal is?

……
……

6. Would you recommend the lessons to other students? If possible, please explain why, or why not:

……
……

Appendix B Student Interview questions

- What do you remember about the project? *Drill down into the meaning of key words- tessellation, self-similarity and lattice and their understanding of crystals*
- How did you feel about the experience?
- Have you talked about this experience with others (i.e. parents, friends, siblings etc)? If so, what did you tell them?

Promoting Collective Teacher Efficacy in schools in China: The role of professional learning approach

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Abstract

Creating conditions that build collective teacher efficacy (CTE) is reported to improve student achievement (Goddard et al., 2004; Eells, 2011; Donohoo et al., 2018). Thus, it may be assumed that schools would benefit from actively promoting CTE. Hoogsteen (2020) and Planche (2019), however, challenge the reports linking CTE and student achievement, claiming that process and achievement drive CTE.

This is an initial study into the influence of professional learning approach on CTE and contributes to the limited body of work for schools in China. A sample of 35 teachers from four schools in China were surveyed for levels of CTE using a questionnaire and structured interviews before and after undertaking professional learning. Teachers participated in two structured treatments of lesson study and action research whilst the control group followed a "traditional" professional learning approach.

CTE increased significantly after teachers had undertaken a lesson study and action research (d=1.2, d=1.7 respectively; Donohoo, 2017; Tschannen-Moran and Barr, 2004), although teachers for the latter reported slightly higher levels. The control group displayed a small increase in CTE after the "traditional" professional learning approach (d=0.5). Significantly higher levels of CTE is reported for teachers that undertook either lesson study or action research relative to the control group (lesson study d=0.9; action research d=1.2) suggesting that the process and achievement experienced by the structured treatments influenced CTE. This study explores the reason for the assertion above and presents the next steps in securing a more comprehensive analysis of process and experience that influence CTE in schools in China.

Key words: Collective teacher efficacy (CTE), professional learning, China, action research, lesson study

Introduction

Effective schools are founded on a community with the authority and collective efficacy to maximise learning (Tschannen-Moran and Barr, 2004; Goddard, 2001). That is, educators that believe and are committed to creating conditions that improve student learning, teachers that evaluate the impact of their work and then respond in order to maximise student achievement (Hattie, 2009).

In schools, leaders employ a range of strategies to secure of student achievement. Effective strategies are reported to include goal setting and creating effective processes for teachers to collaborate (Leithwood *et al*., 2012; Ross *et al*., 2004; Hallinger, 2010). Conditions in which teachers acquire clarity on goals, and how they pertain to their work, along with operating collaboratively in order to improve teaching and learning underpin

improved student achievement (Hoogsteen, 2020). Importantly, higher CTE is associated with improving teacher practice (Hoy *et al*., 2002). Indeed, it is argued that the experience of attaining successful student achievement promotes mastery (Goddard, 2001; Donohoo et al., 20107) and, it is in turn, a sense of mastery that elevates collective teacher efficacy (CTE).

This study aims to establish a foundation from which to further study the processes and experiences that influence CTE in international schools in China.

The case for CTE in schools

Eells (2011) postulated that CTE has a significant impact on pupil learning (d=0.6) with Hattie (2018) supporting this claim by suggesting that CTE has a highly significant impact on student achievement (d=1.57). To put the latter claim into context, the effect size on student achievement of CTE is double that for feedback (d=0.72), previously considered a leading factor in learning. This appears compelling evidence for schools to focus on increasing CTE.

The challenge for schools appears to be in developing CTE. Yet a combination of a number of factors appears to be important in developing CTE (Hoogsteen, 2020; Donohoo, 2017; Tschannen-Moran and Barr, 2004; Goddard, et al., 2004):

- Mastery experience
- Vicarious experiences
- Social persuasion
- Affective states

Achieving success as teachers is considered a powerful influence on mastery (Donohoo, 2017; Adams and Forsyth, 2006), which extends to team and organisational collective efficacy (Goddard, 2004). Moreover, Goddard (2001, 2015) claimed that the experience of teachers collaborating in a manner that yields academic success is profoundly important in determining CTE, especially when the teams of teachers perceive success as a variable they control (Donohoo, 2017). Thus, CTE may be a consequence of teachers encountering repeated mastery experiences.
Collaboration between teachers that involves modelling and sharing practice is considered important in vicariously raising levels of CTE (Goddard et al., 2004; Ross et al., 2004). Thus, teachers that observe the practice of others and receive feedback on their own practice may vicariously acquire CTE.

Monitoring of teaching that involves observations from senior leaders in school or educators beyond it; including inspectors or peers, is reported to influence CTE via social persuasion (Eells, 2011). This is especially the case if the feedback is provided by someone with perceived credibility (Goddard et al., 2004). Indeed, Beauchamp et al. (2014) suggested that feedback from respected colleagues has powerful influence on CTE.

Culture and leader of the school are also factors that are reported to influence CTE. Tschannen-Moran and Barr (2004) and Eells (2011) suggested the emotional impact of the culture of a school influences CTE. Furthermore, how the school community responds to challenges and experiences in the school can influence CTE (Goddard et al., 2004; Klassen, 2010). Donohoo (2017), however, considered affective effects on CTE as less

influential on CTE than mastery experiences, vicarious experiences and social persuasion.

High levels of CTE are associated with the following positive effects:

- Increased student achievement (Donohoo et al., 2017; Donohoo et al., 2018)
- Increased teacher effort, commitment, persistence and resilience (Tschannon-Moran and Barr, 2004; Donohoo, 2017; Devos et al., 2014)
- Adoption of new teaching approaches (Donohoo et al., 2017; Tschannen-Moran and Barr, 2004)
- Teachers set higher expectations and standards (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran and Barr, 2004)
- Promote learner independence and autonomy (Bandura, 1997; Donohoo, 2017)

The list above highlights the advantages of high CTE in school. It seems that to promote CTE school leaders must set explicit goals, promote collaboration with a purposeful focus on student achievement. Moreover, collaborative activities for teachers will provide mastery and vicarious professional experiences coupled with systems and culture that engender social persuasion and affective contexts, all of which further enhance CTE. Hoogsteen (2020), however, challenges the assertion above by claiming that school leadership and processes result in improved student achievement and this instils higher levels of CTE.

This study is an initial pilot to explore the influence of professional learning approaches on CTE for teachers in four schools in China. The aim was to begin the process of defining the relative impact of professional learning approaches on CTE; i.e. collaborative activities undertaken to improve practice and student achievement. The findings from this initial study, feasibility and implications for further work in this field are presented below.

Methods

This study seeks to describe the influence of differing approaches to structured professional learning on CTE across four schools in China. To achieve this aim, the following research questions were posed:

- Can a simple instrument provide evidence of CTE for teachers in schools in China?
- Do structured professional learning approaches influence levels of CTE?
- What type of structured professional learning approach has greatest influence on CTE?

The methodology employed comprised a mixed approach of (i) a questionnaire undertaken before and after implementation of structured professional learning approaches and (ii) structured interviews.

Sample group and professional learning approach
A sample group is comprised of 35 teachers from four schools in China. The schools represented fee paying international and private schools serving expatriate and Chinese

children respectively within the same school group. The sample group of teachers comprised those from nursery, primary and secondary schools and were Chinese or British in nationality. There were 20 females and 15 males in the sample and all had four or more years of teaching experience. All teachers volunteered to contribute to the study.

The independent variable comprised the following professional learning approaches:

- Lesson study

  A team of nine teachers in an international school collaborated using a lesson study model to focus on the teaching of mathematics. The structure adopted reflected that reported by Cerbin and Kopp (2006) with a focus on developing practice to address identified areas in underperformance from students in the preceding academic year. Teachers co-planned a series of lessons over 12 weeks with the group observing the implementation of each lesson with analysis and discussion shaping the subsequent lesson.

- Action research

  A sample of 12 teachers working across two schools undertook two distinct action research projects. Each project identified an area of student achievement recognised as being of strategic importance to improve. Support was provided for both teams from experienced researchers to design the projects in a manner consistent with that reported by Coe and Kime (2013). Teachers worked collaboratively to design research questions, shape the methodology and the nature of treatments. The teams of teachers met regularly across a period of 15 weeks to review progress and impact.

- Traditional approach

  An international school and Chinese private school provided professional learning opportunities to all teachers that were aligned to robust strategic plans. Input was initially provided to teachers in each school from a consultant with a rich experience in the field. A sample group of 14 teachers was then tasked with applying professional learning in their practice. Implementation and impact were reviewed in a structured way via monitoring systems led by senior leaders and the appraisal of teachers. Informal interactions between teachers assisted implementation of professional learning.

Questionnaire

CTE was determined using a questionnaire completed by 35 teachers before and after undertaking the three professional learning approaches. The questionnaire items were designed in accordance with the collective efficacy belief scale and teacher leadership inventory reported by Angelle and Teague (2013). The questionnaire comprised five questions that evaluated:

- Teacher perceptions on professional learning
- Teacher value of collaborative approaches to professional learning
- Teacher perception on the importance of collaboration in finding solutions to challenges faced with student learning

- Teacher confidence in finding solutions to challenges faced in achieving the desired impact on student learning
- Teacher perceptions on levels of authority they have to lead change in practice across the school

The CTE questionnaire captured teacher attitudes using a Likert scale (1-5 point scale) and open response. Teacher response was recorded for five questions and overall CTE calculated from all responses. The effect size of pre and post experiencing a professional learning approach was calculated, along with analysis between each form of professional learning approach.

Interviews
After completing the professional learning approach and undertaking the questionnaire a second time, teachers contributed to structured interviews led by the authors. The interview was undertaken with small groups of teachers (either 4 or 5). In each interview, the same questions were asked as used in the questionnaire, although the authors used prompts, such as: is there anything else you would like to add? Any other points you think are important? The structured interviews were used as a means of gathering additional evidence and also to substantiate findings from the questionnaire.

It is recognised that limitations exist within this study. These primarily relate to the instrument used to determine teacher CTE and the sample of teachers tested. The questionnaire instrument is shorter than that used by Angelle and Teague (2013) and as such reduces the reliability. The sample of teachers is reflective of fee-paying private schools in China that serve expatriate or Chinese learners. This limits the generalisability of the findings but, does allow the authors to better understand CTE in the context of the growing international school sector in China. Yet the methods employed successfully tested the feasibility of acquiring preliminary data on CTE.

Results

The analysis initially introduces reported teacher CTE obtained by questionnaire from a sample of 35 teachers that either experienced action research, or lesson study or traditional professional learning approaches. Data is presented before and after experiencing the professional learning approach, whilst statistical analysis comprises presenting effect size for each treatment and between treatments. Subsequently, findings from structured interviews with teachers are presented with reference to reported CTE in the questionnaire.

Questionnaires
Prior to experiencing a professional learning approach the samples of teachers across all four schools displayed statistically similar levels of CTE with a median score of 3 with little, if any, effect between the groups within the sample (d=0 or 0.1). This indicates that in general, CTE was similar across the three treatment groups in all four schools, thus any effect of the treatment is more likely to be a consequence of the professional learning approach.

Teachers report significantly higher levels of CTE after they engaged in each professional learning approach. However, the reported impact of action research was greatest (d=1.7), then lesson study (d=1.2) and finally the traditional model (d=0.5). Notwithstanding the limitations in the instrument and the sample, it appears that teachers had responded

qualitatively differently to the different professional learning experiences, with action research having a relatively higher overall impact on CTE.

Analysis of teacher responses reveals:

- Teachers undertaking action research considered that professional learning has an impact on student achievement
- Both lesson study and action research led to a significant increase in teacher value of collaborative professional learning (d=0.8 and 2 respectively) and its link to student achievement (d=1.2 and 2.2 respectively). The effect size in the traditional model was 0.7.
- Confidence in overcoming challenges in securing student achievement was highest for teachers undertaking action research and lesson study (d=1.5 and 1.6 respectively) but displayed limited increase in teachers undertaking traditional models (d=0.2)
- There was a relatively large increase in teachers reporting that they had authority to change practice for all three treatments (d=1.2-2.1), but largest for action research and lowest for the traditional model

Table 1: Median CTE scores before and after teachers collaborated on lesson study (n=9)

Question		Median score before	Median score after
1	Professional learning has an impacts on student achievement	3	4
2	I value collaborative approaches to professional learning	3	4
3	I believe collaboration improves pupil achievement	2	4
4	I am confident that I can find solutions to the challenges faced in securing high learning outcomes for my pupils	2	4
5	I have authority to lead change in practice across the school	1	3
	Average median score	**3**	**4**
	Effect size (d=)	**1.2**	

Table 2: Median CTE scores before and after teachers led the research project (n=12)

	Question	Median score before	Median score after
1	Professional learning has an impact on student achievement	3.5	5
2	I value collaborative approaches to professional learning	2.5	4
3	I believe collaboration improves pupil achievement	3	4
4	I am confident that I can find solutions to the challenges faced in securing high learning outcomes for my pupils	3	4
5	I have authority to lead change in practice across the school	1.5	4
	Average median score	**3**	**4**
	Effect size (d=)	**1.7**	

Table 3: Median CTE scores before and after teachers experienced traditional models of professional learning (n=14)

	Question	Median score before	Median score after
1	Professional learning has an impacts on student achievement	3	3.5
2	I value collaborative approaches to professional learning	3	3
3	I believe collaboration improves pupil achievement	3	3.5
4	I am confident that I can find solutions to the challenges faced in securing high learning outcomes for my pupils	3	3
5	I have authority to lead change in practice across the school	2	3
	Average median score	**3**	**3**
	Effect size (d=)	**0.5**	

Analysis of post treatment CTE levels demonstrates moderately significantly (d=0.3) higher levels of CTE for action research relative to lesson study. Both action research and lesson study approaches resulted in teachers reporting higher levels of CTE relative to the traditional model (d=1.2 and 0.9 respectively).

A deeper analysis of responses to specific questions reveals that (see also appendix 1):

- Responses to all questions and for all three treatments displayed an increase in score in the post treatment questionnaire; significance of increase ranged from d=0.2 to d=2.2.
- Levels of increases were highest for the action research treatment and lowest for the traditional model
- Teachers that experience action research display significantly higher responses to questions on (i) link between collaborative activity and impact on student achievement (d=2.2), (ii) authority to lead change in the school (d=2.1) and (iii) value of collaborative approaches to professional learning (d=2)
- Experience of a lesson study approach to professional learning engendered particularly large increases in response to the following questions: (i) authority to lead change in the school (d1.8), (ii) confidence in overcoming challenges (d=1.6) and (iii) link between collaborative activity and impact on student achievement (d=1.5)
- A traditional model of professional learning resulted in teachers reporting great authority to lead change in schools (d=1.2)
- Interestingly, relatively large increases in reported teacher perceptions of authority were observed for all treatments, albeit highest for action research and lowest for the traditional model
- Teachers in the action research cohort reported relatively higher levels of valuing of collaborative approaches to professional learning and a belief that professional learning directly leads to improved student achievement

Teacher interviews
The aim of the teacher interviews was to evaluate the veracity of findings from questionnaires and to provide deeper insights of the link between professional learning approach and CTE. Findings supported the data reported in the questionnaire, in that teachers reported:

- Consensus that professional learning can be varied in nature and impact on student achievement:

  <u>Action Research</u>
  Sometimes, but it has to be focused on us as teachers and the students we teach. (teacher #5, school a, action research)
  Not always. It can be a waste of time of it does not apply to you. Also, with many changes in schools it is hard to maintain focus. (teacher #7, school b, action research)
  I have had many different types of CPD previously. Some have been direct training, which is not always effective. But this [action research] approach was when I learned most as a teacher. (teacher #8, school b, action research)
  Yes, but indirectly and less effectively than this approach [action research]. Here we were very focused on impact. (teacher #9, school b, action research)

Variable. If it is top down, there is little buy-in. If it lacks focus, change is never sustained. (teacher #10, school b, action research)

Lesson Study
*I always enjoy professional learning, but it does not always **transfer directly into practice**. (teacher #14, school c, lesson study)*
*The **quality varies**; e.g. internal [i.e. led by school-based staff] sometimes lacks status. External [i.e. led by external consultants] sometimes don't truly understand our school. (teacher #19, school c, lesson study)*

Traditional
Mostly yes. Especially when it is valued by leaders and built into school plans. (teacher #22, school c, traditional)
*Yes. I always enjoy learning. The challenge is **turning it into practice** in my subject. (teacher 24, school c, traditional)*
It is essential for teachers to continue to seek to improve and learn. It is best when linked to what we do as teachers. (teacher #27, school c, traditional)
I like it best when we take away ideas and use them collectively. Also it is important that leaders follow up. So many times the momentum can be lost. (teacher #30, school d, traditional)
If the input is linked to me and my students. (teacher #34, school d, traditional)
The challenge is applying everything you learn or turning it into an effective strategy for your class. (teacher #35, school d, traditional)

- Greater value of collaborative approaches to professional learning from teachers that undertook action research and lesson study relative to those that experienced the traditional model:

Action research
We were all very focused and shared our findings more than in typical CPD programmes. (teacher #4, school a, action research)
I was a bit apprehensive at first, but once we got going it was very productive. I think it is a more effective means of working. (teacher #11, school b, action research)

Rarely have I worked collaboratively like this. Especially in such a focused way. (teacher #12, school b, action research)
Yes, I enjoy collaborative approaches. They engage and motivate those involved. (teacher #7, school b, action research)

Lesson study
*I have always enjoyed working in teams. We get so **much more form collaborating**. (teacher #13, school c, lesson study)*
*If **structured well and focused on measurable outcomes**, yes. (teacher #13, school c, lesson study)*
*Here we were **focused** and it was clear what we were to do and **how we could achieve success**. (teacher #14, school c, lesson study)*
Much more effective from my experience. This lesson study confirms this. (teacher #17, school c, lesson study)

*The success here was due to the **clear structure**, joint observations and discussion. We **talked** a lot about teaching and learning. (teacher #18, school c, lesson study)*
The structured way of observing each other allowed us to pick up on aspects of good practice. (teacher #19, school c, lesson study)
*Only if very **focused and organised**; like lesson study. (teacher 20, school c, lesson study)*
*Indeed, we have all come together as a **focused team with shared language and goals**. (teacher 20, school c, lesson study)*

Traditional
***If you get along yes**. I would imagine a clear structure is need. What to do and how. (teacher #25, school c, traditional)*
*I can imagine it can. But will need to be **well led**. (teacher #26, school c, traditional)*
When structured, it has worked very well. It needs purpose and shared understanding of process and product. (teacher #29, school d, traditional)
*It is usually much **more engaging**. You keep each other on your toes. (teacher#30, school d, traditional)*
*If there is a clear idea of **what will be achieved**. (teacher #31, school d, traditional)*
***Rarely** in my experience. (teacher 32, school d, traditional)*
*If leaders **structure it well**. It helps when monitoring and observations are linked to a single focus. (teacher #33, school d, traditional)*
*In our department we **share ideas and develop resources** constantly. (teacher #34, school d, traditional)*
Mostly yes. I enjoy working collaboratively. I think the sharing of practice and what works is essential. I am certain there is much I have learned informally from others that has helped improve student achievement. (teacher #35, school d, traditional)

- Confidence in find solutions to challenges faced in securing high levels of student achievement from teachers that experience action research and lesson study:

Action research
*The **evidence of success was immediate and visible**. This left me and the others **confident in dealing with future challenges**. (teacher #2, school a, action research)*
*I am much **more confident** in dealing with the acute challenges of a bilingual school. (teacher #6, school a, action research)*
*Because we all had a clear understanding of what success entails, we were able to **keep going** until we got there. Even when it felt challenging. (teacher #9, school b, action research)*
*By sharing our professional learning and giving feedback we were able to enhance our offer as a team of teachers. This **led to the impact**, in my opinion. (teacher #11, school b, action research)*
*I feel **more confident working with teachers from England**. Together we overcame cultural challenges. Getting started with the project was challenging, but then it went smoothly. I feel **confident** we could repeat it. (teacher #12, school b, action research)*

Lesson study
*The lesson study was very focused. Even when we evaluated lessons, we were always **focused** on creating the **right experiences** for the pupils. (teacher #13, school c, lesson study)*
*We definitely saw **improved** and more consistence practice. Feedback from **leaders reinforced** this. (teacher #14, school c, lesson study)*
*Indeed, I am certain that the progress of our pupils was a result of our **improved teaching**. (teacher #17, school c, lesson study)*
*Now we have seen improvements in our teaching and received **positive feedback from leaders**. (teacher #18, school c, lesson study)*
*There were **evident improvements in quality of teaching and student progress and achievement**. This gives me the confidence to believe we can continue to improve and develop what we do. (teacher #20, school c, lesson study)*
*We began to feel **more confident and effective** very quickly, probably before we had the impact on quality of teaching. I think it was **talking** about learning and teaching. (teacher #21, school c, lesson study)*

Traditional
*I know the pupils here very well. I am confident in **teaching the curriculum**. (teacher #24, school c, traditional)*
*To a certain extent yes. **Leaders here are very knowledgeable** and help a great deal. (teacher #25, school c, traditional)*
*I have strong subject knowledge and we plan well as a team. The head of department is strong and **leads us well**. (teacher #28, school d, traditional)*
Usually, but sometimes I don't want to be seen to fail or not be a good teacher. (teacher#31, school d, traditional)
*This is **hard to measure**. We talk a lot about teaching, curriculum and pupils. How this directly effects pupils is **not always clear**. (teacher #34, school d, traditional)*

- Teachers that experienced action research and lesson study displayed higher levels of perceived authority to influence practice in school, especially for action research, relative to those that experienced the traditional model:

Action research
*I now feel that we as teachers **can make a change** in our own classrooms and beyond. It was **valued by leaders** in the school and beyond. (teacher #2, school a, action research)*
*It was great to be able to **share our findings and now see other teachers applying** it across the whole school. (teacher #5, school a, action research)*
*I felt **proud presenting our work to the whole school**. (teacher #8, school b, action research)*
*I feel that in my part of the **school I am trusted to shape my work** so long as there is clear evidence of impact. (teacher #9, school b, action research)*
*The **direct impact on pupils led to us feeling confident** and want to share what we achieved. (teacher #11, school b, action research)*
***School culture** is essential, we were allowed to **take ownership**. (teacher #6, school a, action research)*

Lesson study
Whilst structured by leaders, we were allowed to shape how we worked and how we progressed as teachers. (teacher #15, school c, lesson study)
The culture is right for us to take a lead. (teacher #16, school c, lesson study)
We have been empowered to influence what we do as teachers. (teacher #17, school c, lesson study)
It was important to get the feedback from leaders. That drove us on to continue to improve our practice. Teacher #18, school c, lesson study)

Traditional
In my classroom yes. Not in a comprehensive way. (teacher #22, school c, traditional)
To an extent. (teacher #23, school c, traditional)
In our year group, we always co-plan and share ideas. We develop what we do. (teacher #29, school d, traditional)
Sometimes. Although it is hard to respond to everyone's whim. We need some framework in which to work. (teacher #30, school d, traditional)
In my department we have lots of authority to do it our way. (teacher #31, school d, traditional)
I think this is best done at local levels. When we share what we do in lower primary we can shape our curriculum and practice. It becomes a token gesture when there is too much variance in year groups or subject taught. (teacher #35, school d, traditional)

Analysis of responses from teachers trained in China and those from the UK suggest that predominantly responses display similar trends, although some minor variations are were noted.

Table 4: Comparison of responses of teachers from China and those from UK.

China specific responses	Both China and UK teachers	UK specific responses
• Relative frequent reference to the professional learning approach being a new experience • Comments of linking professional learning and cultural background; e.g. greater confidence in collaboration and vice versa	• Professional learning effective when structured and focused • Importance of trust and recognition of leaders • Pride in sharing impact of professional learning • Greater confidence • Collaboration being enjoyable and motivating • Limited prior experience in collaborative approaches to professional learning • Perception that CPD is variable quality and impact	• Greater emphasis on impact, success and goals • Importance of school culture • Reference to the importance of ownership and authority • Shared language and understanding recognised as important outcome of professional learning approach

Teachers from one of the schools in the study, a large Chinese private school, displayed relatively differing responses during the interview depending on whether they had experienced the lesson study or traditional professional learning approaches.

These findings corroborate the data reported in the questionnaire and further illuminate teacher perspectives on professional learning approach and CTE. The underpinning rationale for the variation between treatment groups will be explored in the discussion section along with implications for schools in China along with next steps in for understanding this topic further.

Discussion

This study provides preliminary data that will shape comprehensive work to explore the link between professional learning approaches and CTE in schools in China. The limitations of this study are noted, but the findings provide a solid foundation for learning more about developing CTE in schools in China and testing the feasibility of a future study.

Findings in the current study suggest a potential link between professional learning approaches; such as action research or lesson study, and CTE. Teachers reported higher levels of CTE when undertaking action research or lesson study relative to a traditional model. This data indicates that for the sample of teachers involved:

- Measures of CTE are higher after implementation of action research and lesson study relative to traditional professional learning models.
- Teachers reported their value for collaborative approaches to professional learning increased because of the project; specifically, those from the lesson study and action research cohort.
- Teachers experiencing action research and lesson study approaches described greater confidence in finding solutions to challenges faced relative to those that experienced a traditional professional learning approach.
- Teachers experiencing the action research and lesson study approaches reported an increase in their perception of having greater confidence in overcoming challenges faced.
- All teachers display significantly increased perceptions of authority to lead change after experiencing a professional learning approach.
- Increases in teacher perception of the link between professional learning and student achievement and value of collaborative professional learning approaches were greater for those in the action research cohort relative to peers that experienced lesson study.

These findings are consistent with Brinson and Steiner (2007) and Hattie (2018) who reported that activities that promote agency and autonomy support the development of CTE. Furthermore, Donohoo and Katz (2019) highlight the importance of mastery experience in the development of CTE. The professional learning approaches of action research and lesson study comprised goal setting, collaboration, monitoring progress towards set goals and celebrating the impact of the activity, factors that are argued to be important in developing CTE (Donohoo and Katz, 2017, 2019). Perhaps the difference in CTE reported by teachers following the traditional model and those that took part in action research and lesson study may be a consequence of the structured approach in the latter two professional learning approaches to goal setting, collaboration and tracking of progress which in turn heightened the experience of mastery (Goddard, et al., 2004; Donohoo, 2017). Importantly, interviews with teachers revealed that teachers from the

action research and lesson study cohorts frequently refer to experiences considered to be important in promoting CTE:

- Focus on goals or impact
- Structure
- Collaboration
- Impact on practice and student achievement
- Recognition from leaders or peers

Teachers from the cohort experiencing a traditional professional learning approach were inconsistent when reporting on the experiences that underpin CTE (Donohoo and Katz, 2017, 2019). In the main, value of collaborative approaches to professional learning was lower, as was perceived authority to directly lead change; often attributing confidence or authority to the role of leaders.

The observed higher levels of CTE reported for action research relative to lesson study may be attributable to the discernible impact in pupil achievement in the action research project, which was reported by teachers interviewed; see below and in appendix 2. Whereas teachers experiencing lesson study reported impact on improved teaching and recognition from leaders.

I am much more impact focused now. Drilling down into each pupil and how my work influences them. (teacher #2, school a, action research)
I felt more confident once our work was having a discernible impact on the students. (teacher #4, school a, action research)

Thus, the experience of focusing on impact on student achievement through goal setting and tracking of progress seems to have an important role in CTE as claimed by (Goddard, et al., 2004; Donohoo, 2017). Perhaps the focus on impact on achievement has greater impact on CTE than changes in teaching.

Hoogsteen (2020) and Plache (2019) argue that structured collective experiences may not account for changes in CTE alone, instead claiming that impact on student achievement, and recognition from leaders are essential in building CTE. Moreover, the importance of leadership, school organisation and processes and culture in supporting CTE is also reported by Hoogsteen (2020). Teachers in this study report direct impact on student achievement, recognition from leaders and school culture as being important and perhaps as being important in CTE. An interesting observation in this initial study was that all three approaches to professional learning resulted in significantly higher levels of reported authority to lead change, but CTE as whole was greatest when teachers had experienced impact on practice and student achievement, supporting the claims of Hoogsteen (2020) of being important in CTE. It may be interesting, therefore, to explore further the causes of CTE more closely in a future study.

Next steps in this study comprise:

- Broadening the sample to include a larger cohort of teachers from public and private schools in China
- Strengthen the instrument used as the questionnaire so that it more closely aligned to that used by Derrington and Angelle (2013)

- Introduce an instrument to attempt to further elucidate the relationship between experience, goal achievement and CTE

Conclusion

This study has demonstrated that a comprehensive study of the link between professional learning approaches and CTE is feasible for schools in China. Notwithstanding limitations in sample and instrument, the initial findings provide an interesting perspective on a potential link between professional learning approach and CTE in the context of private schools in China. Professional learning approaches that entail the following features appears relevant in building CTE:

- Goal setting; especially linked to student achievement
- Structure
- Collaboration
- Frequent review of progress towards goals and celebrate success

This aligns with findings from Goddard et al. (2004) and Donohoo (2017) and supports the assertion that a deliberate focus on building CTE in schools can improve student achievement and teacher practice. However, the exact underpinning experiences that lead to CTE requires further exploration to ascertain further evidence of the role of shared experience and impact on goals (especially student achievement).

Findings from this study will shape a comprehensive study across public and private schools in China to explore further the link between professional learning approach and CTE. This will include a specific focus on the relative importance of experience and goal achievement.

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Appendix 1

Significance of change in teacher responses between re and post professional learning questionnaires

Question	Treatment (d=??)		
	AR	LS	T
1	1.5	0.6	0.2
2	2	0.8	0.7
3	2.2	1.5	0.7
4	1.5	1.6	0.2
5	2.1	1.8	1.2

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