This product has been made possible by the support of the American People through the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). The contents of this report are the sole responsibility of the authors, and do not necessarily reflect the views of USAID or the United States Government.

Technical Support: Education Development Center (EDC); Teachers College, Columbia University
Foreword

Teacher education in Pakistan is leaping into the future. This updated Scheme of Studies is the latest milestone in a journey that began in earnest in 2006 with the development of a National Curriculum, which was later augmented by the 2008 National Professional Standards for Teachers in Pakistan and the 2010 Curriculum of Education Scheme of Studies. With these foundations in place, the Higher Education Commission (HEC) and the USAID Teacher Education Project engaged faculty across the nation to develop detailed syllabi and course guides for the four-year B.Ed. (Hons) Elementary and two-year Associate Degree in Education (ADE).

The syllabi and course guides have been reviewed by the National Curriculum Review Committee (NCRC) and the syllabi are approved as the updated Scheme of Studies for the ADE and B.Ed. (Hons) Elementary programmes.

As an educator, I am especially inspired by the creativity and engagement of this updated Scheme of Studies. It offers the potential for a seismic change in how we educate our teachers and ultimately our country’s youngsters. Colleges and universities that use programmes like these provide their students with the universally valuable tools of critical thinking, hands-on learning, and collaborative study.

I am grateful to all who have contributed to this exciting process; in particular the faculty and staff from universities, colleges, and provincial institutions who gave freely of their time and expertise for the purpose of preparing teachers with the knowledge, skills, and dispositions required for nurturing students in elementary grades. Their contributions to improving the quality of basic education in Pakistan are incalculable. I would also like to thank the distinguished NCRC members, who helped further enrich the curricula by their recommendations. The generous support received from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) enabled HEC to draw on technical assistance and subject-matter expertise of the scholars at Education Development Center, Inc., and Teachers College, Columbia University. Together, this partnership has produced a vitally important resource for Pakistan.

PROF. DR. SOHAİL NAQVI,
Executive Director,
Higher Education Commission,
Islamabad
How this course guide was developed

As part of nation-wide reforms to improve the quality of teacher education, the Higher Education Commission (HEC) with technical assistance from the USAID Teacher Education Project engaged faculty across the nation to develop detailed syllabi and course guides for the four-year B.Ed. (Hons) Elementary and two-year Associate Degree in Education (ADE).

The process of designing the syllabi and course guides began with a curriculum design workshop (one workshop for each subject) with faculty from universities and colleges and officials from provincial teacher education apex institutions. With guidance from national and international subject experts, they reviewed the HEC scheme of studies, organized course content across the semester, developed detailed unit descriptions and prepared the course syllabi. Although the course syllabi are designed primarily for Student Teachers, they are useful resource for teacher educators too.

In addition, participants in the workshops developed elements of a course guide. The course guide is designed for faculty teaching the B.Ed. (Hons) Elementary and the ADE. It provides suggestions for how to teach the content of each course and identifies potential resource materials. In designing both the syllabi and the course guides, faculty and subject experts were guided by the National Professional Standards for Teachers in Pakistan 2009 and the National Curriculum 2006. The subject experts for each course completed the initial drafts of syllabi and course guides. Faculty and Student Teachers started using drafts of syllabi and course guides and they provided their feedback and suggestions for improvement. Final drafts were reviewed and approved by the National Curriculum Review Committee (NCRC).

The following faculty were involved in designing this course guide: Muhammad Tahir Khasi, GCEE Quetta; Sarfraz Ahmad, GCET Faisalabad; Saira Soomro, University of Sindh; Zarina Rashid, Sardar Bahadur Khan Women University, Quetta; Abdul Khaliq, PITE Balochistan; Jalat Khan, GECE Quetta; Muhammad Ismail, GECE Hyderabad; Piaro Khan, GECE Hyderabad; Mahvish Naseem, Fatima Jinnah Women University, Rawalpindi; Bakhtiar Ahmed, RITE (M) Peshawar; Shafqat Ali, University of Education, Lahore; Dr. Amir Hashmi, IER, Peshawar University; Dr. Asaf Nawaz, Hazara University; Syed Takhliq u-Uzaman, GCET (M) College, Mirpur.
Subject expert guiding course design: Dr. Rashida Qureshi, Shaheed Zulfikar Ali Bhutto Institute of Science and Technology (SZABIST)

Date of NCRC review: 3 March 2012

NCRC Reviewers: Dr. Javed Iqbal, Karakoram International University, Gilgit; Dr. Abdul Hameed, University of Management and Technology, Lahore; Dr. Rafiqullah, Gomal University
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Syllabus

SCHOOL, COMMUNITY, AND TEACHER
SCHOOL, COMMUNITY, AND TEACHER

Year/semester
Year 2, semester 4

Credit value
2 credits, 1 laboratory credit

Prerequisites
Successful completion of semesters 1–3

Course description

The purpose of this course is to provide Student Teachers with a strong foundation for understanding the relationship between and among teachers, the school, and the families and community that support the school. Basic conceptualizations of educational institutions and the role of the teacher in relating to these institutions will be considered. Student Teachers will also explore how cultural, social, and historical forces have shaped their understanding of the relationship teachers have with schools, communities, and families in Pakistan. The course will explore the social context of schooling and examine how the work of teachers is nested within school and community. It will provide orientation to the process of socialization in schools and how social factors affect education.

Student Teachers will have opportunity to put this knowledge into practice in the accompanying one-credit laboratory by studying a school and its community, so that as teachers, they can mobilize support for educational programmes and contribute positively to their communities. Practical application of the course will be emphasized as Student Teachers explore teaching and learning within both the school and the community. They will identify strategies, practices, and relationships that have proven fruitful within familiar contexts, and learn how to identify and respond to challenges in school, community, and teacher relationships. Student Teachers will identify how culture, gender, special needs, equity and equality, and collaborative working conditions affect the school and community.

Course outcomes

Student Teachers will be able to:

- analyse and describe relationships between teachers, the school, and the families and community that support the school
- identify how the teacher’s role is influenced by social and cultural factors that affect education in schools and their communities
- recognize and value diverse cultural, traditional, and religious values and their students’ learning needs in school and in the community
- list the social factors affecting education and how they can support the development of education nationally and, in particular, locally
- explain their role as role models for students and the community in general.
Learning and teaching approaches

Teaching and learning in this course are based on the principles of reflective practice, participatory process, and critical analysis. Short introductory presentations will be made by the instructor and/or invited guests, but much of the class time will be spent in discussion and group activities, including role play and presentations, aimed at consolidating understanding and exploring issues in more depth.

Student Teachers will be provided a course reading pack and will be directed to certain readings including online materials. As ready-made material on topics relevant to the course context (e.g. Pakistani schools and communities) may not be presently available, Student Teachers will also be expected to generate their own readings to share with others. As all Student Teachers will come to this course having attended secondary school, they will be expected to reflect on their own experiences, especially their roles and relationships as students. Against this familiar backdrop of student life, Student Teachers will be expected to explore their unfamiliar role as a teacher in both social and professional contexts.
# UNIT 1: Society, community, and education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week #</th>
<th>Topics/themes</th>
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</thead>
</table>
| 1      | Introduction and overview of the course  
         | Introduction to society, community, and education  
         | Structures and functions of community and schools in Pakistan |
| 2      | Impact of education on society  
         | Role of education in strengthening Pakistani communities  
         | Review of Unit 1 |

One of the basic purposes of the course is to understand the nested relationships between school and community and how to capitalize on these relationships to enhance student achievement. Student Teachers need to be introduced to the basic building blocks of these institutions in order to understand the nature of interaction between and among these institutions.

These general topics will be grounded in the personal experiences of the Student Teachers, who will be asked to draw on examples from their own communities. This will help in identifying social factors affecting education and the contextual role of schools in supporting the development of education nationally and, in particular, locally.
### UNIT 2: Understanding social interaction in schools and communities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week #</th>
<th>Topics/themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 3      | Meaning of social interaction and socialization  
Levels of social interaction  
Elements of social interaction  
  - Social contacts  
  - Communication  
  - Social attitudes and values |
| 4      | Types of social interaction  
  - Cooperation  
  - Competition  
  - Conflict  
  - Accommodation  
  - Assimilation  
Meaning and types of social groups  
Individual and group behaviour |
| 5      | The roles of schools and teachers in developing social interaction for peace, harmony, and tolerance in Pakistani communities  
Review of Unit 2 |

It is important for the Student Teachers to understand group dynamics to be able to appreciate the nature of the nested relationships between school and community for enhancing student achievement. This theme will expose Student Teachers to the theoretical bases and practical importance of communication and interaction between and among stakeholders.

Student Teachers and the Instructor will be invited to bring in local or regional examples of working harmoniously with different stakeholders in a diverse cultural, traditional, and religious landscape. The unit will highlight the importance of teachers being able to assess the learning needs of their students in school as well as in their community.
UNIT 3: School and culture

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Week #</th>
<th>Topics/themes</th>
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</thead>
</table>
| 6      | Main characteristics of culture  
|        | Elementary concepts of culture  
|        |   • Cultural trait  
|        |   • Cultural complex  
|        |   • Cultural pattern  
|        |   • Cultural lag  
|        |   • Cultural diversity  |
| 7      | Culture and cultural elements of Pakistani communities  
|        | Role of education and school in the protection and transmission of culture  |
| 8      | Impact of media on school and culture  
|        | Impact of technology on school and culture  
|        | Review of Unit 3  |

This theme is meant to expose Student Teachers to the concepts of culture within a school and outside school (i.e. in the community) and the interaction of these two cultures as they impact the relationships between and among stakeholders. Student Teachers will be able to identify how the teacher’s role is influenced by social and cultural factors that affect education in schools and their communities.

Opportunities will be provided to revisit earlier concepts (from Units 1 and 2) to reconsider, for instance, the structures of schools and communities in places where patterns of social interactions can create competitive or cooperative climates in schools for marginalized groups. Similarly, gender issues and the culture of inclusion/exclusion, will also be considered in the context of school and community structures and the role of schools in creating cultural change. The prospective teacher’s role as a role model for students will be highlighted.
UNIT 4: Relationships between school and community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week #</th>
<th>Topics/themes</th>
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</thead>
</table>
| 9      | A school as a social, cultural, and community institution  
|        | • Effects of a school on communities  
|        | • Effects of communities on a school |
| 10     | School as a hub for community services  
|        | A critical analysis of the effective role of schools and teachers in Pakistani communities  
|        | Review of Unit 4 |

This theme is important for re-conceptualizing the role of schools in relation to the community. Student Teachers need to understand a school’s identity as a social institution that makes it more than just a place for learning the three Rs – reading, writing, and arithmetic.

Discussion will be grounded in Student Teachers’ own experiences in school and their observations of communities. They can contribute case studies as discussion material for this unit.

UNIT 5: Social institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week #</th>
<th>Topics/themes</th>
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</thead>
</table>
| 11     | Definition and types of social institutions  
|        | The family  
|        | Educational institutions  
|        | Religious institutions |
| 12     | Critical analysis of the role of social institutions in Pakistani schools  
|        | Review of Unit 5 |

This unit is important for grounding the theoretical and practical aspects of social institutions into local realities which students are familiar with. Students will be exposed to the interrelated and interdependent nature of the beliefs and practices that tie schools, families and religious institutions.

Discussion will be grounded in Student Teachers’ own experiences of their daily lives.

This unit may be covered in a week and a half.
UNIT 6: The teacher’s role in school and the community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week #</th>
<th>Topics/themes</th>
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| 13     | Teacher as an integral part of the community  
         | Teacher as a change agent in:  
         | • Community  
         | • School  
| 14     | Teachers as role models through their participation in community activities  
         | Effects of teachers and schools on individual and group behaviour  
         | Review of Unit 6 |

This is the most important unit of the course. Student Teachers will identify prerequisites for promoting collaborative working conditions in order to promote a culture of inclusion in schools and in the community. Through conceptualizing their own role as a change agent, Student Teachers will be able to recognize and identify how culture, gender, special needs, and equity and equality issues affect the school and community.

Student Teachers will be invited to consider future aspirations while grounding their discussion in their own school experiences, especially their recollections of ‘good’ teachers or their role models.

UNIT 7: The working context of Pakistani teachers

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<tr>
<th>Week #</th>
<th>Topics/themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 15     | Teacher as a social activist  
         | Teacher’s leadership roles within and outside schools  
| 16     | Teacher’s role in establishing linkages among stakeholders  
         | Review of Unit 7 |

The focus of this unit will be on the non-traditional roles Pakistani teachers play within their school and community.

During this unit, it is important for the Instructor to distinguish between teachers’ traditional roles within the classroom from non-traditional roles outside the classroom, such as the teacher as a community mobilizer, as a social activist, or in a formal and informal leadership role.
UNIT 8: Practical experience

The concluding unit will be a practical task in the community or another field experience as assigned by the Instructor.

Suggested textbooks and references

There is no standard textbook for this course. The books listed below should be treated as suggested readings that can provide support material for both Student Teachers and the Instructor. Chapters will be assigned when deemed appropriate.

A. Bashiruddin and J. Retallick (eds.), *Becoming Teacher Educators* (Karachi: Aga Khan University-Institute of Educational Development, 2009).


R. Qureshi and J. Rarieya (eds.), *Gender and Education in Pakistan* (Karachi: Oxford University Press, 2007)


**Course assignments**

Details of assignments will be listed on a separate handout to be provided by the Instructor at the beginning of the course. These assignments are designed to help Student Teachers achieve the course outcomes.

**Grading policy**

Grading for this course follows the university’s policies. This will be explained by the Instructor early in the course and will include both coursework and examinations. It is recommended that at least 50% of the course grade be determined by course work.
Introduction

INTRODUCTION TO THE COURSE GUIDE
Introduction

The course syllabus covers 16 weeks of instruction. Each week Student Teachers are expected to attend two one-hour sessions and engage in laboratory work for at least one hour per week. This document provides Instructors with the introductory unit for the course and planning resources for course development. In Unit 1, two lesson options are given for each session. These offer different ways to teach each session and are intended as a guide for planning and teaching.

Units 2–7 are not as fully developed, but ideas for planning and two options for each session are given. In addition, many resources for faculty and Student Teachers are provided in the Faculty Resources that accompanies this course guide.

This course guide is organized to provide examples of how the course content be employed, but it is not meant to suggest that there is one best way to plan and teach. Some Instructors will prefer to create their own plans and will use the guide as an additional resource. Regardless of the resources used, we encourage all faculty to teach in a manner that promotes active learning. For those who have not used active learning strategies, begin by experimenting with one or two ideas. Try a small change, such as asking Student Teachers to read something in advance and then have them discuss in small groups at the beginning of a session. See how it works.

If your experiment does not work, think about why and alter it. Faculty who take this approach seem to find that it does work for them and creates opportunities for further experimentation.

Misconceptions

Student Teachers are likely to enter their programme with their own ideas about the relationships between school, community, and teachers. They are also likely to have misconceptions such as the following:

- The teacher is solely responsible for a child’s education.
- Parents should not interfere in what happens at school.
- The school knows best and parents should do what the school tells them.

You should be aware of and be ready to explore these misconceptions with your Student Teachers. There may be others depending on whom you are teaching.

Essential knowledge

Community is a term that is widely associated with ethnicity and religion. You will need to think about community in relation to the school in its broader sociological context. Look up dictionary definitions of community before you start teaching this course. Here are three definitions from:

• a social group of any size whose members reside in a specific locality, share
government, and often have a common cultural and historical heritage
• a social, religious, occupational, or other group sharing common characteristics
or interests and perceived or perceiving itself as distinct in some respect from
the larger society within which it exists (usually preceded by the): the business
community; the community of scholars
• a group of men or women leading a common life according to a rule (usually a
religious community).

These definitions reflect the different ways in which the word community can be used
to refer to different groups of people who may or may not be tied to a particular
locale. However, the term is often understood to mean that a group of people have
been able to ‘accept and transcend their differences regardless of the diversity of their
backgrounds (social, spiritual, educational, ethnic, economic, political, etc.). This
enables them to communicate effectively and openly and to work together toward
goals identified as being for their common good’. (Seven Community Definitions,
http://www.community4me.com/comm_definitions.html).

Another helpful website is The Encyclopaedia of Information Education, which
contains material on the definition of community and theories of community.
http://www.infed.org/community/community.htm

The concept of culture is central to the course, as well. Culture includes the beliefs,
behaviours, artefacts, and characteristics that are shared by members of a group,
society, or community. People define themselves through culture. The institutions of
a culture, such as family or educational and religious organizations, share common
values, beliefs, language, and rules and commitments.

Society refers to the people who share a common culture and live together in a
community. The society may be based on a particular geographic location. We may
speak of large and diverse units of society, such as Asian or Western society, organized
by certain overarching similarities, principles, or beliefs, or of a smaller region, such
as Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, where customs, organizations, and laws are more homog-
enously shared. We can also think about society as a group of people that reaches
across communities to create their own organizations, customs, and laws, as in a
professional or philanthropic organization.

Schools are social organizations established to instil the values of a community,
society, or nation through planned educational experiences. Education may be defined
broadly as the accumulation of knowledge, experience, and wisdom. It may also be
defined narrowly as the act of acquiring particular training, for example, going to
school to learn a particular skill.

Each of these concepts – community, society, and education – is essential to the
course. One of the challenges in teaching the course will be to help Student Teachers
re-examine these concepts so they can begin to see them in new ways and from
different perspectives.
Sample assignments

Assignments are suggested in each of the session plans. Instructors should use their own judgement in using these or choosing others. In general, short-term assignments will include activities such as reading an article, preparing something for class, or bringing in materials. Longer-term assignments should allow Student Teachers to integrate and apply their learning and could be assigned in class and completed during laboratory sessions.

Some examples are below.

**Individual reflective journal from field observations**
All course participants will be expected to engage in field work. Student Teachers will keep field notes during observations in schools and the community, and they will write a one-page reflection per week that focuses on assigned topics. Journal topics should encourage Student Teachers to connect course content with the school and community. Specific data collection and observation techniques will be explained by the Instructor.

**Engagement with school, community, and/or families**
This series of activities would be appropriate for laboratory assignments and can be adapted to focus on:
- the individual school as a way of understanding the inner life and culture of the school
- the community surrounding the school
- the families who comprise the community

**Understanding**
Have Student Teachers develop an interview protocol for conducting interviews. Their purpose is to find out whom the people are who make up the schools (teachers, administration, staff, and students), communities (community members, shopkeepers, and religious leaders), and families (parents, extended family, and siblings), their perspective on how the school (or community) works, and how they perceive relationships among groups and the like.

Questions should invite conversation without being intrusive.

**Communicating with families**
Have Student Teachers find out how teachers communicate with parents. Ask parents how they prefer to communicate with teachers and school staff.

Student Teachers should observe parent–teacher conferences in the school where they teach as part of their laboratory work.

In examining what they have observed, Student Teachers could role-play handling difficult interactions with parents.
School and study assignment
The purpose of this assignment is to understand the school and its community as social organizations and the teachers’ role in relation to these organizations.

Student Teachers will be required to work in groups of four or five to conduct a study of a school and its surrounding community and prepare a report. Hours spent in schools will be considered laboratory hours.

To guide their study, each group will prepare a set of questions for school and community members. To help generate these questions, each group should think about what they want to know and who can answer their questions. For example, Student Teachers might ask school teachers about how often they meet parents and other community members and for what purpose; they might ask community members how often they visit the school or how they are involved in education.

While the questions will vary from group to group, each group should find out about both the school and community and the people who are integral to their functioning.

With regard to the school, Student Teachers should learn about formal and informal groups of adults who work at the school (e.g. administration, teachers, volunteers, custodial staff), governance, formal and informal power structures, and the school’s relationship with the community.

In examining the community, Student Teachers should learn more about its organization, community members’ opinions and attitudes about the school, and the opinions of business owners, shopkeepers, and community leaders regarding the (actual and ideal) relationships between school and community.

Once the study has been completed and graded, Student Teachers should arrange a time to meet with the teacher and a separate time to meet with parents or caregivers to discuss what they have learnt. Student Teachers should be prepared to discuss this with the class.

The study should include the following headings:

- Introduction
- Setting (i.e. a description of the settings where observation and interaction occurred)
- Members’ contributions to the study team (i.e. how responsibilities were divided among the team)
- Summary of observations in each context: school, community, and family (one or two paragraphs in length)
- Report (five to seven page on was learnt from the study)
- Raw data (i.e. field notes, notes from interviews, questionnaires, observational notes, etc. in the appendix).
Course assessment

Multiple forms of assessment will be used in the course. Many of these may be new to Student Teachers. By using multiple forms of assessment, the Instructor will be able to gain many insights on the knowledge, skills, and dispositions of Student Teachers. In general, you will find suggestions for assessment included with each unit.

Plan for regular formative assessments (assessments for learning) and summative assessments (assessments of learning).

Student Teachers should know at the start of the course which assignments or tasks will be part of summative assessment and how they will be assessed.

You should be clear in advance about how you will assess assignments. Sometimes a rubric helps – and it makes the process more transparent and useful for Student Teachers if you share the rubric.

Assessment methods may include the following:

- **Short quizzes**
- **Minute papers**: Ask Student Teachers to take one minute to write about what they are learning in class.
- **Projects**: Projects may be completed in class or as out-of-class assignments. These could include a school study, an essay, a presentation, a survey and report, or a report and reflection on a School Management Committee (SMC) meeting.
- **Observing and recording**: Keep a log in a small notebook. Notice Student Teacher involvement in activities. Make note of their engagement. From time to time you may wish to look at your notes and see who isn’t mentioned. Make a point to see who does not contribute to small groups, who dominates discussions, and the like. Write down questions you hear Student Teachers ask, facial expressions, body positions and gestures. Consider what your notes tell you about how they relate to the topic at hand. Your log should help you think about the class holistically and pinpoint issues that may need more attention or those that require additional support for a particular Student Teacher. Your notes also help you to judge whether you need to reframe the activity, clarify explanation, and the like.
• **Journaling:** Have Student Teachers keep a course journal. After each session, have Student Teachers record reactions to the session, what they are learning about themselves, and what they are learning about teaching. This can be an effective tool for metacognitive development. For the journal to be effective as a learning tool, you need to look at it and provide occasional feedback. (Research on journaling suggests that when supervisors fail to comment on student dialogue journals, Student Teachers tend not to continue their journals.) You might check a few journals each day so that everyone gets feedback once over a two-week period.

Another strategy is for Student Teachers to share their journals and make these the subject of discussion about their own learning strategies and styles. This further helps develop their metacognitive skills and emphasis on collaborative community. You can also keep your own journal about yourself as an Instructor and your reactions to sessions. Share it with other Student Teachers in an exchange.

• **Reading log:** Readings will be drawn from a variety of sources. Student Teachers are expected to develop a list of assigned readings, with notes about the reading. Annotations should be about a paragraph in length.
UNIT 1

SOCIETY, COMMUNITY, AND EDUCATION
Unit overview

In this opening unit, Student Teachers will be introduced to the building blocks of schools and the communities around schools. They will examine how the relationship between school and community influences education. Student Teachers will reflect on the implications of the relationship with reference to the role of a teacher.

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          Introduction to society, community, and education  
          Structures and functions of community and schools in Pakistan |
| 2      | Impact of education on society  
          Role of education in strengthening Pakistani communities  
          Review of Unit 1 |

Learning goals

- understand the integrated nature of society, community, and schools
- identify social factors that influence teaching and learning in Pakistan
- recognize the contextual role of schools in supporting the development of education nationally and locally.

Essential questions

- How do communities and schools interact to influence education?
- How do teachers influence opinion makers in the community?
- How can the community be involved in promoting development of all learners?
Assessments

- Class discussions
- Class assignments
- One-page reflection on reading
  - Recall experiences from school and address following questions:
    - How similar/different was the relationship between community and school in your personal experiences relative to those discussed by Carrington?
    - How was the community involved in classroom activities?
    - How was the community involved in school activities?

Resources


Online resources
These following articles may be found online:

‘Reading’
➢ http://www.deakin.edu.au/current-students/study-support/study-skills/handouts/reading.php

‘Assignment Writing’
➢ http://www.deakin.edu.au/current-students/study-support/study-skills/handouts/assignment-writing.php

‘Critical Analysis’
➢ http://www.deakin.edu.au/current-students/study-support/study-skills/handouts/critical-analysis.php

‘How to Write a Critical Analysis Paper’
➢ http://www.mismr.org/services/biofocus/BF-v1i17/BioFocus_v1i17.pdf

In Faculty Resources

Student Teacher Readings

Problems in Universalization of Primary Education in Pakistan: A Review of Khan (2010)

Faculty Resources
Home and School Relationships, Carrington (2008)

Problems in Universalization of Primary Education in Pakistan: A Review of Khan (2010)

Week 1, session 1: Introduction to the course and key concepts

Option 1

Introduction (5 minutes)
Explain that the first two weeks of class will focus on the relationship between schools and the community in terms of increasing children’s learning achievement. Invite Student Teachers’ thoughts on this topic.

Group discussion (20 minutes)
Write society, community, and education on the board.
Divide Student Teachers in three groups. Assign one of the three terms or concepts to each group. Invite each group to discuss their understanding and develop a reasonable definition of the term. Ask them also to think about how the term is connected to the other two terms.

Ask each group to report briefly on their discussion and definition.

**Lecture (30 minutes)**

Review the major definitions of the three concepts, including relevant points from the Student Teachers’ definitions and relating them to Pakistan. Emphasize the following points:

- notions of community and society in Pakistan
- differences between school and schooling
- differences in schooling patterns of communities living in same region.

**Option 2**

**Group brainstorm (15 minutes)**

Student Teachers work in small groups to create definitions of society, community, and education. Each group should focus on one term. They will then share their definitions with the class or write them on the board.

**Whole-class discussion and synthesis (15 minutes; 25 minutes)**

The class will point out similarities and differences between the definitions and examine why these differences exist.

Synthesize the discussion through an interactive presentation of major definitions of the three concepts and their relevance in understanding the state of education in Pakistan.

**Summary (5 minutes)**

Have Student Teachers share insights they had or questions that arose during the session. Address as many as time permits.

**Assignment**

This assignment applies to both options. Have Student Teachers read the following:


Have Student Teachers write a one page reflection on the reading in which they discuss their reaction. They should note what the article made them think about and their opinions of the home–school relationship.

Depending on Student Teachers’ English skills, you may want to select an excerpt from the chapter, as it is lengthy. Student Teachers who have difficulty reading English may get more benefit from a summary or a short passage.
Week 1, session 2: Structures and functions of community and schools in Pakistan

Option 1

Reflection (15 minutes)

Invite Student Teachers to recall their own experiences in school and of schooling, and ask Student Teachers to respond (in writing) to the following questions:

- How similar or different was the relationship between you school and community compared to those discussed by Carrington?
- How was the community involved in classroom activities at your school?
- How was the community involved in school activities at your school?

Ask Student Teachers to include any other relevant details in their reflection piece.

Pair-share (15 minutes)

Have Student Teachers exchange papers so that they can read what their peers wrote.

In pairs, ask them to discuss the positive and negative ways that communities can affect education.

Active lecture (30 minutes)

Select some general examples from the reading by Jabeen and Malik, ‘Causes of Deteriorating Standard of Education in Balochistan’, and highlight the role that society and community play in hindering/promoting education in Pakistan. (A review of the article, ‘Causes of Deteriorating Standard of Education in Balochistan: A Review of Jabeen and Malik’ is available in Faculty Resources.)

Give Student Teachers two minutes after discussing each example and ask if they can identify similar examples in their own context. Accept as many examples as time permits.

At the end of the lecture ask Student Teachers to write down the additional examples (identified by peers during lecture) as case examples.

Option 2 (instead of the active lecture in Option 1)

Whole-class discussion (30 minutes)

Assign the reading by Jabeen and Malik, ‘Causes of Deteriorating Standard of Education in Balochistan’ (or the review of the article, ‘Causes of Deteriorating Standard of Education in Balochistan: A Review of Jabeen and Malik’ in Faculty Resources) as a pre-class reading. Give Student Teachers guiding questions: Can the causes of deteriorating standard of Education in Balochistan be generalized to whole of Pakistan? Yes or no? Why or why not?
The purpose is to bring out contextual factors that create differences in the standard of teaching and learning in different contexts. (The executive summary of another pertinent study *Quality of Primary Education in Pakistan* is in Faculty Resources. You may wish to assign this if your Student Teachers do not have access to Internet.)

**Week 2, session 3: Impact of education on society**

**Option 1**
Prepare a handout on problems identified by Khan (2010) (see ‘Problems in Universalization of Primary Education in Pakistan: A Review of Khan (2010)’) in Faculty Resources for this course.

In small groups, have Student Teachers identify incidences of similar problems in their school life. Guide the discussion around issues such as poverty, conflict, and inequality in communities where education is lacking.

**Option 2**

**Group discussion and report (40 minutes)**
Introduce the topic for the lesson and check that Student Teachers understand the term school *dropout*. In small groups, have Student Teachers discuss school dropouts. Share the following questions with them to guide their discussion:
- Why do children drop out of school?
- Which children drop out of school? Are some children more likely to drop out than others?
- Who is responsible for them dropping out of school?
- Who is responsible for the education of children who have dropped out of school?

Ask each group to report back on their discussion. Ask one the Student Teachers to record main points on the board or on a flip chart.

**Whole-class discussion (15 minutes)**
Ask Student Teachers why we should be concerned about the problem of school dropouts. Lead the discussion by probing and hinting.

Explain that some educators have stopped saying that children drop out of school. Instead, they say that say that children are pushed out of school. Ask Student Teachers what they think about this: which term do they think is most appropriate and why?

Wrap up the discussion with a departing thought on social capital. (*Social capital* refers to the idea that social networks have value. Networks can be educational, social, and cultural. People who know the interests, preferences, manners, and language of a dominant group will have more social capital.)
Summary (5 minutes)
Have Student Teachers share insights or questions they have had during the session. You may want to share the handout ‘Problems in Universalization of Primary Education’ (from Faculty Resources). Ask Student Teachers to complete the handout and compare the information with the list given by Jabeen and Malik.

Week 2, session 4: Role of education in strengthening Pakistani communities

Option 1

Think, pair, share (15 minutes)
Ask Student Teachers to think of some of the challenges in their community, and invite them to share these with the person sitting next to them.

Discussion (15 minutes)
Invite Student Teachers to share some of the challenges identified during think, pair, share with the whole class. Accept as many case examples as time permits.

Have the class compare the lists offered by Jabeen and Malik with the one offered by Khan. How many of the class’s case examples were about one of the challenges suggested in the two resources?

Option 2

Review of article (30 minutes)
Prepare a handout on the article by Mohsin et al., ‘Causes of School Dropouts at the Secondary Level in the Barani Areas of the Punjab (A Case Study of Rawalpindi District)’. (Also see the review of Khan and the handout ‘Problems in Universalization of Primary Education’ in Faculty Resources).

Share the article in the handout with the Student Teachers. Ask them to write a summary of what causes students to drop out according to the article and to identify the role of community in mitigating these causes.

Group discussion (15 minutes)
In a group discussion, notice the similarities and differences in causes and solutions, and point these out in an interactive presentation on how education can improve the quality of relationships within and among Pakistani communities.
Note on the research laboratory

Whichever option you select for this session, introduce the idea of the research laboratory and the practical aspect of this course. Remind Student Teachers that one credit of the class is a laboratory credit, which involves a research study to be conducted on some aspect of a school or a community around it.

Some ideas for the research project include the following:
- observing teaching and learning of a specific subject (e.g. English or science), with a focus on assessing effective uses of different pedagogies
- assessing how parents are involved in a school’s day-to-day workings
- examining whether school culture is inclusive of students with visible disabilities
- exploring if a school is gender friendly.

Ask Student Teachers if they have an interest in any particular issue or aspect of school–community relations. At this stage, the introduction is meant to make Student Teachers aware of some of the issues that will be worth researching.
UNIT 2
UNDERSTANDING SOCIAL INTERACTION IN SCHOOLS AND COMMUNITIES
Unit overview

In this unit, Student Teachers will explore the concepts associated with group dynamics in order to understand how everyday interaction is guided and facilitated by social structures such as community and social organizations. They will analyse the agents and objectives of socialization as well as their role in cultural continuance. Student Teachers will also examine the theoretical bases and practical importance of communication and interaction between and among stakeholders.

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Learning goals

- understand the role of socialization in continuance of culture
- recognize group formation and stages of group formation
- identify stakeholders that influence group dynamics in schools and the community
- understand the importance of communication and interaction between and among stakeholders
- recognize the contextual role of schools in promoting social stability nationally and locally.

Essential questions

- How does socialization help promote or resist social change?
- Are there local/regional examples of different stakeholders working harmoniously in a diverse cultural, traditional, and religious landscape?
- What are the basic strategies of effective communication?
- How can teachers assess students’ learning needs in school and in their community?

Assessments

- Class discussions
- Class assignments

Resources


In Faculty Resources

Student Teacher Readings
Socialization and Child Development

Social Interaction

Faculty Resources
Peace Education: Working Paper

Models of Communication Process

Week 3, session 5: Meaning of social interaction and socialization

Option 1
If you have Internet access, select a video on the socialization process. For example, Education Portal has a video Sense of Self and Self-Socialization: The Development of Self-Views, which would be helpful for this lesson. The video is available at:


Discuss the following questions with Student Teachers:

• What does socialization mean?
• How does socialization create differences in values and beliefs?
• Why should teachers be aware of the differences in beliefs and practices of students in their class?

Option 2
Pre-assign the article ‘The Socialization Process and Its Impact on Children and Learning’ (available from http://www.nvtutoring.com/pdfs/Socialization.pdf), which discusses the socialization process. Alternatively, have Student Teachers read ‘Socialization and Child Development’ in Faculty Resources.

In small groups, each Student Teacher should summarize the article and then exchange their summaries with others in the group. Student Teachers should check that their partners did not miss any significant points.

Ask each group to share the important points raised by the article. If groups come up with points that were not included in the articles, ask why those points are important. Point out similarities that crop up in group responses as well, and ask why those commonalities might be significant.

As this is an interactive lecture, be sure to fill in any gaps so that Student Teachers remain engaged.
Week 3, session 6

- Levels of social interaction
- Elements of social interaction
  - Social contacts
  - Communication
  - Social attitudes and values

Option 1
Divide Student Teachers into groups and have them read 'Models of the Communication Process' by Davis Foulger as a jigsaw reading.


Ask Student Teachers the following questions:
- How do these models apply to schools?
- What kind of patterns do you expect to exist in communities? Why?
- What patterns of communication and kinds of interactions will be beneficial for promoting education?

Discuss communication and socialization with the whole class. You might want to draw on a resource such as Vygotsky’s *Language and Thought* to prepare a brief presentation on how language acts as a socializing force. ‘Which Comes First, Language or Thought? (Available from http://www.news.harvard.edu/gazette/2004/07.22/21-think.html) and ‘Language and Thought Processes’ (from Faculty Resources) may also be helpful for this discussion.

Option 2
Make posters of communication models and display these on a wall. (You may want to use the following article to prepare Models of the Communication Process’ by Davis Foulger).


Divide Student Teachers into small groups and have them choose a model to apply to an imaginary Parent–Teacher Association (PTA) or School Management Committee (SMC) meeting. They should use the model to analyse an imaginary meeting or to conduct a meeting.

Week 4, session 7: Types of social interaction

Option 1
Read Assimilation Models, Old and New: Explaining a Long-Term Process’ by Susan K. Brown and Frank D. Bean from the University of California, Irvine, which can be found on http://www.migrationinformation.org/USFocus/display.cfm?ID=442. A short summary of the concept of social interaction, suitable for student reading, is included in Faculty Resources. Discuss the implications of assimilation and acculturation for marginalized communities and the teaching and learning of excluded students.
Option 2
Show the class the video *Cultural Diversity* (available from

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EsoCko2OAWA).

Ask Student Teachers to interpret the themes in the video. Have them consider whether cultural diversity is a school strength or weakness; they should explain the reasons for their answers.

Ask how these differences and diversity in communities affects teaching and learning in school.

Week 4, session 8: Social groups and individual and group behaviour

Option 1
Review the social groups chapter of any standard textbook introduction to sociology such as chapter 5 of *Essentials of Sociology* (8th edn) by Brinkerhoff, Ortega, White, and Weitz (2011) or chapter 7 of *Introduction to Sociology* by Cohen and Orbuch (1990). Use these chapters to explain the basic types of social groups.

Ask Student Teachers to identify different types of groups, including those in schools and the community. Are there some groups that are more important for improving teaching and learning in schools? Student Teachers should explain their answers.

Guide the discussion towards the role of primary groups such as family and friends and secondary groups such as co-workers in organizations such as schools.

Option 2
Show the class the video *Social Groups* about different types of groups. (available from

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wS7VPPZKSDg&feature=related)

Use the video as a starting point, and guide the discussion towards various types of groups, highlighting the groups that play an important role in promoting education.

Week 5, session 9: The roles of schools and teachers in developing social interaction for peace, harmony, and tolerance in Pakistani communities

Both options require the Internet. If you do not have access, consider planning your session around ‘Peace Education: Working Paper’ in *Faculty Resources*. You might prepare a presentation highlighting key concepts or select paragraphs to be used as a readers’ theatre with a follow-up discussion. (See ‘Methods and Strategies’ at the end of this course guide to learn how to use readers’ theatre as a strategy.)
Option 1
Show the class the video from the Interfaith League Against Poverty’s (I-LAP) Interfaith Peace Museum of Pakistan in Islamabad (available from http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=H-qbzmjtxE). Guide the discussion around the video by asking why it is important to accept and accommodate cultural diversity and religious tolerance.

Option 2
Show the class the Education for Peace in Pakistan video from I-LAP (available from http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=khN-xZQ0Kw0&feature=related). The video can be used as a starting point for a discussion on the roles of schools and teachers in promoting peace and tolerance.

Week 5, session 10: Review of Unit 2

Option 1
Ask Student Teachers to make posters representing the main concepts discussed during the Unit 2 sessions.

Option 2
If you have asked Student Teachers to keep journals on this course, ask them to share their journal entries from session 5. Then, other Student Teachers can add their thoughts. The Instructor will repeat the same practice for other sessions until each session has been recapped. (Work within the time limits.)

Note on the research laboratory
During week five, follow up on Student Teacher’s research laboratory work.

By this time Student Teachers should have selected a working title for their project. If they have not selected a topic yet, help them choose a community or school to study.
Unit overview

Student Teachers will analyse the concepts of culture within school, outside school (i.e. in the community), and the interaction of these two cultures as it impacts the relationships between and among stakeholders.

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Elementary concepts of culture  
- Cultural trait  
- Cultural complex  
- Cultural pattern  
- Cultural lag  
- Cultural diversity |
| 7 | Culture and cultural elements of Pakistani communities  
Role of education and school in the protection and transmission of culture |
| 8 | Impact of media on school and culture  
Impact of technology on school and culture  
Review of Unit 3 |

Learning goals

- identify social and cultural factors that affect education in schools and their communities  
- recognize how the teacher’s role is influenced by cultural and social factors.

Essential questions

- How do cultural variations interact to influence education?  
- How do teachers influence school and community culture? How are they influenced by these cultures?

Assessments

- Class discussions  
- Class assignments
Resources


‘School Context: Bridge or Barrier to Change?’, Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (1992)


In Faculty Resources

Student Teacher Readings
The Culture of School and the Challenge of Diversity

Is Media Changing Society and Culture in Pakistan?

Faculty Resources
Language and Thought Processes

To prepare for this unit and the sessions below, review ‘Language and Thought Processes’ in Faculty Resources (also available at

Ø http://anthro.palomar.edu/language/language_5.htm).

The article and related website may be helpful in providing background information as well as the basis for an active or mini-lecture. Most sessions will require an active lecture or sharply focused discussion around the suggested topic and activities. A reading on school culture and diversity, ‘The Culture of School and the Challenge of Diversity’, is also in Faculty Resources.

Also, in advance of Option 1 for Week 8, session 15: Impact of media on school and culture, ask Student Teachers to keep a log of things they notice about how the media (e.g. television, newspapers, radio, magazines) target children.
Week 6, session 11: Main characteristics of culture

Option 1
Assign as a pre-class reading a chapter on education in Sindh, such as R. Qureshi, P. Pirzado, and S. Nasim, ‘Schooling in Rural Sindh, Pakistan’, in R. Qureshi and J. Rarieya (eds.), Gender and Education in Pakistan (Karachi: Oxford University Press, 2007).

Provide Student Teachers with guiding questions, including the following:

- What are the main concepts discussed in the chapter?
- Can multiple cultures coexist?
- Do schools have their own cultures?

Engage Student Teachers in a whole-class discussion based on the reading. Lead the discussion towards how different cultural practices can create or perpetuate the culture of inclusion/exclusion in schools and communities.

Option 2
For discussion, use the framework of the chapter on education in Sindh by R. Qureshi, P. Pirzado, and S. Nasim, ‘Schooling in Rural Sindh, Pakistan’, in R. Qureshi and J. Rarieya (eds.), Gender and Education in Pakistan (Karachi: Pakistan: Oxford University Press, 2007). Ask Student Teachers to recall their school days and identify cultural practices similar or dissimilar to the ones described in the chapter.

Ask Student Teachers to note which practices they are most likely to adopt and avoid when they become teachers. They should provide a rationale for each practice.

In an interactive lecture, build on these rationales and explain how they are products of our culture.

Note for the next session
If you plan to use Option 2 in the next session, divide Student Teachers into pairs to investigate and prepare a brief presentation on the concepts listed below:

- cultural trait
- cultural complex
- cultural pattern
- cultural lag
- cultural diversity.

You will need to assign the concepts so that all of them are presented. Explain that you will select at least two pairs to present in the next session. The pairs should use examples relevant to Pakistan related to one of the concepts on the list.
Week 6, session 12: Elementary concepts of culture

Option 1
Prepare a short, interactive lecture on the following concepts:

• cultural trait
• cultural complex
• cultural pattern
• cultural lag
• cultural diversity.

The lecture should include examples and allow for sufficient time for Student Teachers to share and discuss their own examples.

Focus on cultural diversity. Ask Student Teachers to recall their own school experiences. Pose the following questions:

• Was there diversity in the classroom? Why? Why not?
• Were students treated differently by teachers and school staff? In what ways?
• Did some students participate more than others? Why?
• Did all students participate in the same way or did they participate in different ways? In what ways was participation different?
• What did the teacher do to encourage quiet students’ engagement and participation?
• Were boys and girls (in co-ed classes) treated differently by teachers and school staff?

Have Student Teachers prepare a report about cultural diversity in their schools as an assignment.

Option 2
Invite Student Teachers to share their presentations on cultural concepts.

If time allows, you could also do the activity on cultural diversity.

Week 7, session 13: Culture and cultural elements of Pakistani communities

Option 1
Have Student Teachers write a brief essay on how culture affects different people in Pakistan.

Ask Student Teachers to share their answers. Point out similarities and differences in their observations on the role of culture in Pakistan communities. Ask them to explain why their answers might vary.

Guide the discussion around values, beliefs, and practices.
Option 2
Ask Student Teachers to name one cultural trait, belief, or practice of their own community. If you Student Teachers are from different regions, discuss how regional practices differ.

Week 7, session 14: Role of education and school in the protection and transmission of culture

Option 1
Ask Student Teachers to list local and public holidays and festivals. Help them to include events that celebrate local customs:

- Why are local holidays and festivals important? For whom are they important?
- How are they celebrated?
- Do schools acknowledge these holidays and festivals?
- How do schools participate in these events?
- Do schools teach about and value these holidays and festivals?
- If schools acknowledge and celebrate local holidays and festivals, what is the impact on the transmission and protection of culture?
- If schools do not acknowledge and celebrate local holidays and festivals, what is the impact on the transmission and protection of culture?

Option 2
The article ‘Models of the Communication Process’ in Faculty Resources may be helpful in preparing for this session.

Ask Student Teachers to collect pictures of school uniforms for boys and girls. Then, divide Student Teachers into small groups and have them discuss the following questions:

- Is the local traditional style of dress represented by these uniforms?
- Do any aspects of these uniforms (e.g. material, design, colour) reflect social distinctions?
- Are there any other noticeable differences between the uniforms?
- What do the uniforms say about the school culture?
Week 8, session 15: Impact of media on school and culture

Option 1

In advance of Option 1, ask Student Teachers to keep a log of things they notice about how the media (e.g. television, newspapers, radio, magazines) target children.

Have Student Teachers share their log with a partner. Ask them to think about the following questions while they discuss their logs:

- What do the logs indicate about the ways children are targeted by the media?
- Do the media take an inclusive approach?
- Do the media promote cultural diversity?
- Do the media have a positive or negative impact on school and culture?

Discuss the questions as a class. You might want to prompt discussion with additional questions and statements, such as:

- The media present children from diverse backgrounds in a positive way.
- Media representations of children use gender stereotypes.

Do Student Teachers agree?

Have Student Teachers imagine that they are part of a media team selected by the provincial government to promote children’s rights to education. Ask them to prepare a brief media plan addressing the following questions:

- What media would you use? Why?
- What messages would you communicate? How?
- How will you make your plan inclusive?

This task could become a project for each group to complete.

Option 2

In advance of this option you will need to find at least two articles (maximum four articles depending on length) about an educational issue. Ideally, the articles will present slightly different opinions on the issue. Alternatively, you could find at least two articles that discuss several different issues.

This option uses the text-against-text method. (See ‘Methods and Strategies’ at the end of this course guide for an explanation of the method.)
Divide the class into small groups of three. Distribute at least two articles on one issue to each group. Ask Student Teachers to look at each article separately and discuss the following questions:

- What do you think the writer’s main point is?
- How does the writer support his or her argument?
- In what ways do the writers agree or disagree?
- What is your opinion on the issue?

Wrap up the session with reflections from Student Teachers on the activity.

Assignment
After each option, ask Student Teachers to read ‘Is Media Changing Society and Culture in Pakistan?’ from Faculty Resources.

**Week 8, session 16: Impact of technology on school and culture**

**Option 1**
The Instructor will need to bring a variety of articles to class about the use of technology at home, at school, and in organizations.

Divide Student Teachers into small groups of three or four. Provide each group with a set of articles to read. Ask them to note the pros and cons of technology described in the articles. Move between groups and help them make sense of the articles and to discuss their contents.

In a whole-class discussion, ask Student Teachers whether they think technology produces homogeneous cultures. Have them explore the concept of globalization and its impact on culture in the school and community.

Wrap up the discussion by making points about globalization that the Student Teachers may have missed.
Option 2
Divide Student Teachers into four groups: two groups for technology in schools and two groups against technology in schools.

Allow each group to develop their arguments through two parallel debates. (You may need to have one for and one against group work outside the classroom so that everyone can hear what is being said.) Have Student Teachers debate the topic, with one member from each group acting as the group’s spokesperson.

Wrap up the discussion by highlighting the role of technology and globalization in changing culture in schools and communities in Pakistan.

Note on the research laboratory
By this time Student Teachers should have started going to the school/community they have selected. The Instructor needs respond to their questions related to research methods and issues that have occurred in the field. In every session, time should be allocated to address questions and discuss progress.
UNIT 4
RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY
Unit overview

In this unit Student Teachers will analyse the multidimensional identity of schools as a social institution, meaning that schools are more than just a place for learning the three Rs – reading, writing, and arithmetic.

UNIT 4: Relationships between school and community

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<td>• Effects of communities on a school</td>
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Learning goals

- understand the social identity of a school
- recognize the multidimensionality of a school in relation to the community.

Essential questions

- How do communities perceive schools?
- What do families expect from teachers?
- How realistic are a community’s expectations of schools and teachers?

Assessments

- Class discussions
- Class assignments
- Observation journal entries
  - Each week Student Teachers will write a one-page reflection of their observations.
  - Some guiding questions for the weekly journal entry are listed in each sub-topic.
- Journal reflections; consider the following reflection questions:
  - Is there diversity in the classroom?
  - How are different students treated differently?
  - Do different students participate differently?
  - What does the teacher do to encourage girls’ engagement and participation?
Resources


A New Wave of Evidence: The Impact of School, Family, and Community Connections on Student Achievement (available from [http://www.sedl.org/connections/resources/evidence.pdf](http://www.sedl.org/connections/resources/evidence.pdf)).


An Integrated Approach Through Health, Education and Community Development for the Developing Countries: The Baqai Model’ by M. Z. Khan and P. Baillie (available at [http://www.educationforhealth.net/EfHArticleArchive/1357-6283_v16n1s11_713665178.pdf](http://www.educationforhealth.net/EfHArticleArchive/1357-6283_v16n1s11_713665178.pdf)).

In Faculty Resources

Faculty Resources
Culturally Responsive Pedagogy

Week 9, session 17: School as a social, cultural, and community institution

Option 1
Ask Student Teachers to work with a partner to compare and contrast the culture of three different types of school: public schools, private schools, and madrassas. To help guide the discussion, have them think about the following:

- the attitudes and beliefs of people inside the school and in the external environment
- the cultural norms of the school
- the relationships between people within the school.

If possible, have them compare specific local examples of each type of school.

Conclude by discussing the elements of school culture that Student Teachers think are important for children’s development and learning.

Option 2
Assign G. M. Arif’s ‘Production of Cognitive Life Skills in Public, Private, and NGO Schools in Pakistan’ from Pakistan Development Review as a pre-class reading. (The article is available at http://www.pide.org.pk/pdf/PDR/2003/Volume1/1-28.pdf.) Discuss the similarities and differences between the systems in terms of their social and cultural standing in Pakistani society. Which school system is culturally more acceptable? Why?

Week 9, session 18: Effects of schools on communities and communities on schools

Option 1
Have Student Teachers read ‘A New Wave of Evidence: The Impact of School, Family, and Community Connections on Student Achievement’ (available at http://www.sedl.org/connections/resources/evidence.pdf). This is a research document that provides evidence on the effect of school, family, and community on student achievement. The material can be used in number of ways. For example, suggest that Student Teachers read the article while considering how it might be applicable in Pakistan. Additionally, they can analyse the applicability effective strategies to connect schools, families, and community.
Option 2
Ask Student Teachers to recall their own schooling experiences and observations by considering the following questions:

- Did they experience or observe any strategies to connect schools, families, and community implemented by their schools?
- If yes, what strategies were implemented and with what results?
- What was the response of families and the community?
- If they did not observe or experience any such efforts by their school, what could be the reasons?

Try probing the reasons related to school, families, and community separately. Some of the earlier discussion points from Session 17 can also be brought in to expand the discussion.

Week 10, session 19: School as a hub for community services

Option 1
Assign ‘The School as Community Hub: Beyond Education Iron Cage’ (available from http://www.policyalternatives.ca/sites/default/files/uploads/publications/ourselves/docs/OSOS_Summer10_Preview.pdf) as a pre-class reading. This introduces the idea of public schools being hubs for communities. Some Student Teachers may not be very familiar with these ideas in Pakistan.

Discuss the possibilities of such ‘hubs’ in Pakistani communities.

Option 2
Have Student Teachers read ‘An Integrated Approach Through Health, Education and Community Development for the Developing Countries: The Baqai Model’ by M. Z. Khan and P. Baillie (available at http://www.educationforhealth.net/EfHArticleArchive/1357-6283_v16n1s11_713665178.pdf). This article is helpful in discussing the role of a school as a hub for community services.
Week 10, session 20

- A critical analysis of the effective roles of school and teachers in Pakistani communities
- Review of Unit 4

Option 1

Discuss how these strategies can be applied in Pakistan. Have Student Teachers suggest how these pedagogies can be contextualized.

Option 2
If you have access, take Student Teachers to visit a community-based school. Spend a school day there. Observe teaching and learning in different classes. Interview a few teachers and pose the following questions:

- Are they local or from somewhere else?
- How do they interact with community members?
- How does community get involved in the management of school?
- What degree of autonomy teachers enjoy?

Student Teachers will write detailed reports in pairs or individually. If you choose this option, you can also examine the content area covered in session 18.

Note on the research laboratory
The Instructor should start allocating time for Student Teachers to share their preliminary findings. (Set aside time in each class for a certain number of Student Teachers.) Both the Instructor and peers should give feedback.
Unit overview

In this unit Student Teachers will examine the interrelated and interdependent nature of the beliefs and practices that connect schools, families, and religious institutions.

UNIT 5: Social institutions

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<th>Week #</th>
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| 11     | Definition and types of social institutions  
         | The family  
         | Educational institutions  
         | Religious institutions |
| 12     | Critical analysis of the role of social institutions in Pakistani schools  
         | Review of Unit 5 |

Learning goals

- understand the roles of family in relation to community and schools
- identify cultural and religious practices that influence teaching and learning in Pakistan
- recognize the cultural, social, and religious context of Pakistani society and its influence on education in general and the community in particular.

Essential questions

- How does religion influence education?
- How do opinion makers in the community influence religious values and beliefs? How are they influenced by religious values and beliefs?
- How can religious institutions be involved in promoting the development of all learners?

Assessments

- Class discussions
- Class assignments
- Observation journal entries
  - Each week Student Teachers will write a one-page reflection of their observations.
  - Some guiding questions for the weekly journal entry are listed in each sub-topic.
• Journal reflections; consider the following reflection questions:
  o Is there diversity in the classroom?
  o How are different students treated differently?
  o Do different students participate differently?
  o What does the teacher do to encourage girls’ engagement and participation?

Week 11, session 21: Definition and types of social institutions
Sociology chapters on social institutions and society and the changing role of family could be used as pre-class readings for this unit. (See Recommended Readings on the syllabus for a list of textbooks.)

Weeks 11 and 12 will focus on how parents, teachers, school, religion, and society interact with each other and how these interactions affect students’ learning.

Option 1

Exploring terms and concepts (10 minutes)
Discuss the terms social institutions and institutional influences to ensure that Student Teachers understand them.

Social institutions ‘refer to complex social forms that reproduce themselves such as governments, the family, human languages, universities, hospitals, business corporations, and legal systems’ (from the Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy at http://plato.stanford.edu/).

Institutional influences are the influences these institutions exert. These might be influences might be explicit (or on purpose) or implicit.

Mapping institutional influences (40 minutes)
Make a diagram with Student Teachers about the institutional influences on student learning in their community. Alternatively, have Student Teachers to work in groups to make their own map. If the class works in small groups, provide the following give instructions for each step:
  • Make a list of social institutions in the community such as the family, religion, and government.
  • Discuss and make a list of the ways in which these institutions influence learning.
  • Think about the scale of their influence.
  • Draw a child in the centre of the board or chart paper.
  • If an item has a big influence on learning, draw a large circle around it on the board. If an item has a small influence on learning, draw a small circle around it on the board.
Make sure that Student Teachers think about both positive and negative influences and how social institutions influence each other.

If you did this with groups, have them compare their diagrams. Do their diagrams all look the same?

Option 2
This option involves a reading-based discussion combined with Student Teachers’ personal reflections.

Self-reflection (5 minutes)
Student Teachers reflect on their own familial experiences and answer one or both of the following questions:

- What role do children play in your family?
- What roles do nuclear and extended families play in your family?

Pair work (10 minutes)
Student Teachers work with a partner and spend five minutes each sharing their reflections.

Lecture (30 minutes)
Review the major roles and functions of the family in Pakistani society. Emphasize the following issues:

- diversity in the family system in Pakistan
- traditions, customs, societal setup in different parts of the country (rural, urban)
- differences within society and within families living in the same regions.

Group brainstorm (10 minutes)
Participants work in small groups to create a list of how diversity, differences in traditions, and the like affect schools and schooling practices in Pakistan. Groups then share their list with the class or write their list on the board.

Week 11, session 22: Educational and religious institutions

Option 1
Ask Student Teachers to name the schools they attended and whether the school was public, private, religious, or community based. It is likely that there will be Student Teachers from at least three types of institutions.

As Student Teachers recall their experiences, ask them to list the positive and negative characteristics of their schools. Then, divide the class into small groups according to their school backgrounds and let them discuss the negatives and positives of their school type. Ask them if a masjid can be a school by itself. Have them explain their answers.

In an interactive lecture discuss the problems and potentials of each educational system. Refer to Student Teachers occasionally for supporting evidence based on their experiences.

Make sure the systems not represented in class are not left out of the discussion.
Option 2
As a pre-class assignment, have Student Teachers read the article by I. Farah, 'Public–Private Partnerships: Implications for Primary Schooling in Pakistan' in Social Policy & Administration.

Ask Student Teachers which type of school they would have chosen if they could go back in time. They should explain their answers.

Based on their explanations, draft a list of desirable characteristics for school on the board. Then, assign Student Teachers to different school systems and have them compile a list of negative aspects of each system.

Next, they should prepare a plan to improve these deficiencies. Make sure the plan includes the teacher as one of the most proactive working members.

Week 12, session 23: Critical analysis of the role of social institutions in Pakistani schools

Option 1
Divide Student Teachers into four groups: family, state, religion (state and minority), and civil society. Each group should prepare a progress report of the workings of these institutions in relation to schools. The reports should address the following questions (as appropriate):

- How have families helped/hindered education in Pakistan?
- What role has the state played in promoting schools and schooling in Pakistan?
- How has religion helped/hindered the cause of education in Pakistan?
- How active/inactive has civil society been in promoting education?

Option 2
Divide Student Teachers into five groups: family, state, religion (state and minority), citizens, and prosecutors. Prosecutors will comprise the largest group and will prosecute the other four groups in court on the charges that these institutions have failed today’s students.

The prosecutor group will be divided into four sub-groups that will prepare charges against the family, state, religion, and citizens. The other four groups will prepare arguments in their own defence. Allow each group to prepare for the trial.

Assignment
Have Student Teachers select one of the institutions and collect a series of newspaper articles that follow a particular story related to that institution. Ask them to be prepared to discuss coverage in different papers. In what ways will the situation have an impact on community and on schools?
Week 12, session 24: Review of Unit 5

Option 1
As an exercise, involve the whole class in preparation of review questions (essay or multiple-choice questions). Make sure questions relate to all concepts covered in Unit 5.

Option 2
Have Student Teachers write a newspaper article discussing the challenges of student life and how social institutions (or a given social institution) can support them.

Note on the research laboratory
The Instructor should start allocating time for Student Teachers to share their preliminary findings. (Set aside time in each class for a certain number of Student Teachers.) Both the Instructor and peers should give feedback.
UNIT 6
THE TEACHER’S ROLE IN SCHOOL AND THE COMMUNITY
Unit overview

Student Teachers will identify prerequisites for collaborative working conditions that promote a culture of inclusion in schools as well as the community. They will re-conceptualize their own role as change agents.

UNIT 6: The teacher’s role in school and the community

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|        | Community  
|        | School |
| 14     | Teachers as role models through their participation in community activities Effects of teachers and schools on individual and group behaviour Review of Unit 6 |

Learning goals

- recognize how culture, gender, special needs, and equity and equality issues affect the school and the community
- identify the mechanism or social networks for promoting inclusive culture in schools.

Essential questions

- How do the community and school interact to influence education?
- How do teachers influence opinion makers in the community?
- How can the community be involved in promoting the development of all learners?

Assessments

- Class discussions
- Class assignments
- Observation journal entries
  - Each week Student Teachers will write a one-page reflection of their observations.
  - Some guiding questions for the weekly journal entry are listed in each sub-topic.
• Journal reflections; consider the following reflection questions:
  o Is there diversity in the classroom?
  o How are different students treated differently?
  o Do different students participate differently?
  o What does the teacher do to encourage girls’ engagement and participation?

Resources


Week 13, session 25: Teacher as an integral part of community

Option 1
Assign different readings from the edited book by A. Bashiruddin and J. Retallick, *Becoming Teacher Educators* to small groups. Each chapter of the book contains the narrative of an individual teacher. In a short interactive presentation, have the groups compare similarities and differences in the motivations and background characteristics of each teacher.

Ask Student Teachers to identify factors that would make these individuals stand out in their local communities, their professional communities (community of teachers), and the academic community (researchers, educationists) and among policymakers.

In an active lecture, elicit information from Student Teachers about their understanding of the multidimensionality of community and community membership.

Option 2
Guest speaker(s)
Invite a member or office bearer from a teachers association. This individual’s presentation should focus on the organization’s role in promoting professional development for teachers, establishing linkages between and among major stakeholders, and promoting home–school linkages.

Have a parent, who is also a teacher, on the panel to speak for both the community of parents and teachers. (If possible, have a male and female teacher/parent to have both perspectives.)
Moderate the discussion to bring out different dimensions of teachers and their communities.

Week 13, session 26: Teacher as a change agent in Communities and Schools

Option 1
Prepare a handout that covers the main points of ‘Overcoming Exclusion through Inclusive Approaches in Education: A Challenge and a Vision’ (available from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001347/134785e.pdf). Give Student Teachers the handout and ask them to prepare a plan for promoting inclusion in schools.

Option 2
Divide a copy of Education Exclusion and Inclusion: Policy and Implementation in South Africa and India (available from http://www.dfid.gov.uk/r4d/PDF/Outputs/impAccess/ResearchingtheIssuesNo72.pdf) into multiple sections and assign Student Teachers different parts as a jigsaw reading in class.

After they have shared information, divide the class into three groups: one representing South Africa, one India, and one Pakistan.

Have a tripartite conference. Let groups representing South Africa and India present their cases. Then have the Pakistan group prepare recommendations for the Pakistan Education Ministry as to what could work for Pakistan in the light of the examples of these two developing countries. The emphasis of the recommendations should be on the role of teachers.

Week 14, session 27: Teachers as role models through their participation in community activities

Option 1
Individual reflection (15 minutes)
Ask Student Teachers to discuss their memories of teachers with a partner. Share the following questions (on the board or on a flipchart):

- What were the (good/bad) attributes of the teacher?
- How did characteristics affect their style of teaching, especially the way they communicated and interacted with students?
- How did the teacher contribute to your learning and intellectual growth?

After 5–10 minutes, have each pair join with another pair to share their ideas with each other.

Whole-class discussion (5 minutes)
Based on these descriptions, what generalizations can be made about things that teachers do to promote student development or to hinder it?
Lecture (20 minutes)
Use the generalizations Student Teachers have offered to build the profile of a good teacher in terms of their role in the community. Include information from research studies and articles on teacher quality.

Ask Student Teachers whether community affects student learning. They should explain their answers. There are no correct or incorrect responses.

Wrap up the discussion by asking about the teacher’s role in connecting school and community.

Option 2

Review Standard 8 in the NPSTP (15 minutes)
Ask Student Teachers to work in pairs to review Standard 8, about collaboration and partnerships, in the National Professional Standards for Teachers in Pakistan (NPSTP). Ask them to identify the skills, knowledge, and dispositions that teachers need to connect school and community.

Discuss their responses in a whole-class discussion.

Finding evidence (20 minutes)
In the same pairs, ask Student Teachers to discuss and list evidence that would indicate a teacher is reaching this standard. For example, one of the standards listed is ‘Recognizing the role of parents, guardians and other family members as a child’s teacher’.

Teachers who meet this standard might do the following:
- Talk about and refer to learning children have done outside of school (e.g. at home) as part of instruction.
- Meet parents regularly to discuss a child’s progress at school.
- Involve parents and other family members in children’s learning – for example, by asking children to read aloud for 10 minutes every day to someone in their family.

This is evidence for this standard.

Report back (15 minutes)
Select one or two Student Teachers to be scribes.

Invite pairs to share evidence for each of the standard statements that relate to the role of the teacher in building partnerships between school and community. Scribes should record these. Ask the pairs not to repeat evidence that had already been shared.

Close (5 minutes)
Review the importance of the teacher in building the partnership between school and community. Teachers must take the initiative because parents and other community members may be anxious about getting involved in school or with their children’s education, as they may believe, incorrectly, that they should leave things to the experts when they too might be experts.
Week 14, session 28: Effects of teachers and schools on individual and group behaviour

Option 1
Conduct a reading-based discussion using a chapter from Qureshi and Shamim’s *Schools and Schooling Practices in Pakistan: Lessons for Policy and Practice*. Discuss the successes and challenges schools face in making a difference to communities.

Option 2

Pre-class assignment
Divide Student Teachers into groups of three. Assign each group a region of the world such as Sub-Saharan Africa, North Africa, South-East Asia, South America, Latin America, South Asia, Western Europe, Eastern Europe, and China. Have Student Teachers search the Internet for at least five success stories of schools (in their selected region) that improved the lives of students and the community.

Each group should prepare and make a brief presentation (no more than five minutes) highlighting the problems encountered, the solutions applied, and the main players involved.

Note on the research laboratory
The Instructor should start allocating time for Student Teachers to share their preliminary findings. (Set aside time in each class for a certain number of Student Teachers.) Both the Instructor and peers should give feedback. By this time, almost all Student Teachers should have finished their initial presentations.
UNIT 7
THE WORKING CONTEXT OF PAKISTANI TEACHERS
Unit overview

The focus of this unit will be on the non-traditional roles of Pakistani teachers within their actual work contexts. Student Teachers will distinguish teachers’ traditional roles (within the classroom only) from their non-traditional roles outside the classroom (e.g., teacher as a community mobilizer or social activist). They will also examine the formal and informal leadership roles that teachers could perform.

**UNIT 7:** The working context of Pakistani teachers

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         | Teacher’s leadership roles within and outside schools |
| 16     | Teacher’s role in establishing linkages among stakeholders  
         | Review of Unit 7 |

Learning goals

- understand the proactive nature of a teacher’s role in and for students’ achievement
- identify social networks that could influence teaching and learning in schools
- recognize the contextual role of Pakistani teachers in improving education in the country in general and community in particular.

Essential questions

- How do teachers play leadership roles in the community and school?
- How do community networks collaborate with school networks?

Assessments

- Class discussions
- Class assignments
- Observation journal entries
  - Each week Student Teachers will write a one-page reflection of their observations.
  - Some guiding questions for the weekly journal entry are listed in each sub-topic.
- Journal reflections; consider the following reflection questions:
  - Is there diversity in the classroom?
  - How are different students treated differently?
  - Do different students participate differently?
  - What does the teacher do to encourage girls’ engagement and participation?
Resources


Week 15, session 29: Teacher as a social activist

Option 1
If possible, take Student Teachers to a Parent–Teacher Association or School Management Committee meeting. Let them observe the interactions. Have them note who leads the discussion and who makes the decisions.

If possible, ask them to make a diagram. The diagram should include communication lines highlighting the connections (and frequency of connections) between the teacher and other stakeholders, as observed in the meeting. This type of diagram is a sociometric diagram. More information about how to create them is available at [http://www.curriculumsupport.education.nsw.gov.au/secondary/pdhpe/assets/pdf/tlsupp_004.pdf](http://www.curriculumsupport.education.nsw.gov.au/secondary/pdhpe/assets/pdf/tlsupp_004.pdf).

Discuss the role of each stakeholder in relation to teacher during that specific meeting, and suggest what other roles the teachers may take on – depending on the context of the discussion and the stakeholders involved.

Option 2
Get the meeting record, with minutes, from a Parent–Teacher Association or School Management Committee meeting. Have Student Teachers analyse the minutes in terms of who leads the discussion, who makes the decisions, and who decides on the agenda. Ask them to consider the role of women in the meeting.
As Student Teachers review the minutes, ask them to do the following:

- Draw a mapping diagram of the communication patterns (i.e., your diagram should reflect who gives orders to whom, who is consulted, who gets resources from whom, etc.) reflected in the minutes. Make a list of the agenda points. Note the most discussed and least discussed issues.
- Discuss the relevance of the agenda points to the issues of schools and its students. Do they converge? Diverge?

Discuss the role of each stakeholder, especially teachers, in solving problems related to the school and its students. Suggest how teachers can acquire a greater role in decision making.

**Week 15, session 30: Teacher’s leadership roles within and outside schools**

Note: Just one option is given for this session.

Ask Student Teachers to name a leader they like. Have them to prepare a list of the characteristics that make that person a leader. Student Teachers should then exchange their lists.

Ask whether teachers can be leaders. Student Teachers should explain their answers. For example, if they agree that teachers can be leaders, ask what leadership roles they play in the school and the community.

Have Student Teachers consider if there is a difference between leadership positions and roles. Again, they should explain their answers.

Build your discussion of teachers’ leadership roles by drawing on information from research articles such as ‘Exploring Indigenous Leadership Practices: Case Study of School Principals in the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Province’.

**Week 16, session 31: Teacher’s role in establishing linkage among stakeholders**

**Option 1**

Working in pairs, have Student Teachers search the Internet for case studies on teachers who have successfully mobilized (rural or urban) communities around issues related to education. Alternatively, the pairs can also write the story of a local teacher they know or have heard about.
The pairs should also prepare a short presentation to be shared in class, which should cover the following:

- the community’s socio-economic profile
- the issue involved
- the teacher’s role in identifying support, organizing groups, and finding resources
- the role of community institutions in identifying support, organizing groups, and finding resources.

Notice the similarities and differences among the case studies and highlight these in an interactive lecture eliciting information from Student Teachers to fill the gaps.

**Option 2**

Assign Budzar and Ali’s ‘Teacher as Community Mobilizer: Case of Primary School Teachers in Punjab Pakistan’ as a pre-class reading, and provide guiding questions. Use the questions to generate a whole-class discussion.

In small groups of three to five, have Student Teachers search the Internet to find articles about teachers as social mobilizers. They should then compare and contrast these articles with the information from Buzdar and Ali. Ask each group to share the articles they find with the whole class. If there is no Internet access, the instructor should bring a range of articles to class for Student Teachers to review.

Wrap up the discussion by highlighting the movers and shakers found in different communities, and emphasize the proactive role of school teachers.

**Week 16, session 32: Review of Unit 7**

**Option 1**

Student Teachers take the lead in the last session. Divide the class into groups of three to review and present one of the concepts discussed in sessions 29–31. They should choose the concepts that interested them the most. Encourage them to choose different strategies to make their presentations.
Option 2
Divide the class into four groups.

Ask each group to generate a set of questions to assess knowledge and understanding of concepts in the course. Encourage them to generate questions that encourage higher-order thinking. Each group should aim to generate at least three questions.

Two groups then exchange questions with each other, and the other two groups exchange their questions. Each group takes turn responding to the questions from the other group. (Again, consider asking two groups to work outside the classroom so that everyone can hear what is being said.)

Note on the research laboratory
At the end of the course the Instructor should allocate time for Student Teachers to make their final presentation. Consider inviting the communities and schools involved to the presentation so that they may learn about the findings. However, this presentation should be separate from the research portion of the presentation that will be assessed. (Also, the research portion will likely use academic language and terms that are not suitable for a general audience.)
Methods and Strategies
The following is a list of some of the strategies used in this course to encourage active learning.

**Active lecturing.** An active lecture is not too different from any good lecture, but it attempts to directly involve listeners.

There is no one best way to give an active lecture, but it involves any of the following techniques.

Give information in small chunks (about 10 minutes), and then have class members do something with that information for a few minutes. Here are some examples of activities, which you can repeat or vary:

- Write a one-minute reaction to what you have just heard.
  - Talk to the person next to you about what you heard and see how your perspectives differ. Do you agree? Do you have questions?
- List as many key points as you can remember.
- Compare notes taken during the chunk. Help each other fill in gaps or determine if crucial information is missing. (Some people do not allow note taking during the lecture, but this is up to the Instructor.)

Give out cards or slips of paper in three different colours. When class members are listening to your comments, have them hold up a colour for ‘I understand’, ‘I don’t understand’, or ‘I disagree’. Then either stop and allow questions or adjust what you are saying so there are more ‘understand’ colours showing. This is particularly effective with large groups of 50 or more people.

**Ambassadors.** This is a useful way to get groups or individuals to exchange information. Two or more members move from one group to another to share/compose discussion etc. You may wish to have half of each group move to another group. This is especially useful if you do not have ample time for a whole-class discussion.

**Brainstorming.** This is a technique for generating creative ideas on a topic. It may be an individual activity or organized as a group activity. Give people a limited amount of time (e.g. one minute) to say or write as many ideas as they can on a topic. No matter how unrelated an idea seems, write it down. (Alternatively, the Instructor might ask the whole class to brainstorm and write all the ideas on the board.) After the brief period of brainstorming, ideas may then be analysed, organized, and discussed. This is often used as a problem-solving technique. Ideas are then analysed in light of how useful they might be in solving the problem.

**Gallery walk.** This is a strategy that borrows its name from a visit to an art gallery. Students walk through an exhibit of posters, artefacts, or display of items they have completed. They can be directed to take notes. The idea is to thoughtfully look at what is displayed.

**Graffiti wall.** A graffiti wall may be displayed in the classroom for use all term. Students may write their thoughts, feelings, or expressions before or following each session and sign their name. Anonymous comments are not suitable. Ideas generated in class may
be posted on the ‘wall’. Use paper from a large roll of craft or newsprint paper or join several cardboard boxes together to make a wall that can be stored between sessions. Students can take turns getting and putting away the wall each session.

**Group work: some tips for forming instructional groups.** There is no one best way to form groups. The best way for you is the way that suits your purpose. Use a more complicated strategy if students need a break or need to be energized. Use a simple technique if time is short. Ways to form groups include the following:

- Ask people to count off from one to five (depending on the number of people you want in a group). Groups will form based on their number (e.g. all of the ones will gather together).
- Before class, determine how many people you want in a group or how many groups you need. Give each class member a different coloured sticker, star, or dot as they enter the class. Then when it is time to form groups, ask them to find people with the same sticker etc. and sit together.
- Put different coloured bits of paper in a cup or jar on each table. Have people take one and find people in the room with the same colour to form a group.
- Have students get together with everybody born in the same month as they were.
- Make adjustments to the groups as needed.

**Mini-lecture.** A mini-lecture contains all the components of a good lecture. It is sharply focused. It begins with an introduction that provides an overview of what you will talk about. It offers examples and illustrations of each point. It concludes with a summary of the main point(s).

**One-minute paper.** Ask class members to write for one minute on a particular topic (e.g. their reflections on a topic, an assigned subject). They are to focus on writing their ideas, without worrying about grammar and spelling. A one-minute paper differs from brainstorming because there is more focus.

**Pair-share.** Use this technique when you want two class members to work together to share ideas or accomplish a task. Simply ask them to work with a neighbour or have them find a partner based on some other criteria. It is very useful when you want people to quickly exchange ideas without disrupting the flow of the class. (Sharing in triads and foursomes are also small group techniques.)

**Poster session.** This is useful when you want students to organize their thoughts on a topic and present it to others in a quick but focused way. Have individuals or small groups work to create a poster to explain or describe something. For example, if they have been doing an inquiry on a particular topic, they would want to include their focus, methods, and outcomes, along with colourful illustrations or photographs. The poster can be self-explanatory or students can use it to explain their work. As an in-class tool, a poster session is often combined with a gallery walk so that the class may review a number of posters in a short time.
Readers’ theatre. Readers’ theatre is a group dramatic reading from a text. Readers take turns reading all or parts of a passage. The focus is on oral expression of the part being read rather than on acting and costumes. Readers’ theatre is a way to bring a text to life.

It is a good idea to go over passages to be read aloud with students so they are familiar with any difficult words.

Sometimes a readers theatre is used to get student interested in a text. They hear passages read first and then read the longer text.

KWL. This is a strategy that provides a structure for recalling what students know (K) about a topic, noting what students want to know (W), and finally listing what has already been learned and is yet to be learned (L).

The KWL strategy allows students to take inventory of what they already know and what they want to know. Students can categorize information about the topic that they expect to use as they progress through a lesson or unit.

Text-against-text. This is a way of helping students learn to analyse and compare written documents. The idea is to look at two documents and search for overlap, confirmation, or disagreement. It is a way of looking at different perspectives. Sometimes it is useful to give students readings prior to class and ask them to compare the readings based on a set of study questions, such as:

1) Look at each author separately. What do you think the author’s main point is?
2) How does the author support his/her argument?
3) Look at the authors together. In what ways do the authors agree?
4) What are their points of disagreement?
5) What is your opinion on the issue?

Text-against-text may be used to compare a new reading or new information with material that has already been covered.

In classrooms where the whole class uses a single textbook, Instructors often find they are teaching against what is in the textbook. Sometimes it is hard for students to accept that a textbook can and should be questioned. Putting together a text-against-text activity using the textbook and outside materials (e.g. an article) can help them understand that there are legitimate differences of opinion on a subject. Articles need not contradict each other. They may be about the same topic, but offer students different ways of seeing a subject.

Another way to use the activity is divide the class into groups, give each a set of materials, and have them debate the texts. Some university faculty like to put together text sets that include both scholarly and non-scholarly works and have students to think about differences. For example, you might provide all students – regardless of their reading level or learning style – with easy-to-read materials as a way to introduce themselves to a topic. Even competent adult learners seek out ‘easy’ books or
materials to learn about a new or complex topic. Providing a picture, newspaper article, or even a children’s book in a text set might give everyone the means of connecting to or understanding some aspect of the larger subject.

Roundtable technique. For this technique, divide the class into small groups (i.e. four to six people), with one person appointed as the recorder. A question that has many possible answers is posed, and class members are given time to think about the answers. After the thinking period, members of the team share their responses with one another. The recorder writes the group’s answers. The person next to the recorder starts and each person in the group (in order) gives an answer until time is called.

Quizzes. Prepare and give a short quiz (15 minutes) over the different aspects of teachers’ roles in the community covered in the unit. As students take the quiz, ask them to circle items they are unsure of. They can review and discuss their work in the following ways:

- Triads. Have students meet in groups of three to review the quizzes so that they can help each other with their weak areas. (10 minutes)
- Review. Go over the quiz with students, and have them look at their own work and make corrections. (30 minutes)
  - Notice points class members had difficulty remembering and take time to review them. You may ask students to assist with this and discuss how they were able to remember.
  - Use this time to correct any misconceptions.
  - Have students save their quiz for future study.
Faculty Resources
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### Faculty Resource

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<td>Socialization and Child Development</td>
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<td>Models of Communication Process</td>
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<td>Social Interaction</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Introduction to faculty resources

Faculty Resources is a collection of readings and materials to supplement the course, School, Community, and Teacher. It includes readings for students in the course as well as faculty resources. The resources for faculty include notes, readings, classroom activities, and additional materials such as handouts. The Student Teacher Readings are drawn from diverse sources and include articles from both academic and popular media, worksheets, and other materials. Faculty Resources is organized by unit so that the readings and materials parallel the structure of the course. In some cases, reflection questions are included at the conclusion of readings to help guide student in thinking about content.

Most resources and readings are matched to a particular session. Faculty will find them listed under the lesson options in the faulty planning guide. Not all readings and resources have been assigned to specific course sessions, however. Many are included to provide choices and extra information. In some cases, a reading or resource will be used in multiple sessions. Where this is the case, it is included in the resource collection where it is first used.

Unless otherwise noted, each resource was prepared by a course writer. The resources are for educational purposes only and for use with the Course Guide for the School, Community, and Teacher course. They may not be included in other works. They are for educational purposes only and may not be included in other works offered for sale. Faculty are free, however, to duplicate and distribute them to students as needed.
Excerpt from ‘Home, School and Community Relationships’

The following section is excerpted from ‘Home, School and Community Relationships’, chapter 12 in Suzanne Carrington’s *Home and School Relationships*.

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In this article by Suzanne Carrington, a professor at the Queensland University of Technology in Brisbane, Australia, talks about school and community in ways that may be useful for you and your students. She also helps us to think about inclusive education and how it can be applied to the school and community.

What you will learn in this chapter

This chapter focuses on the development of inclusive relationships between homes, schools, and communities. Collaboration, teamwork, and good communication have long been recognised as important qualities for teachers and a characteristic of high-performing schools. We know that when teachers collaborate and solve problems, they develop new knowledge together that can lead to curriculum reform and transformation of teaching for social change. More recently, schools are described as communities made up of teachers, students, parents, specialists, and support staff that are embedded within the culture of the people in the neighbourhood. Business groups and community organisations are often involved in various ways in the life of the school to provide direct support to the students and parents, and to benefit the greater community as a whole. Shared decision-making involving members of the school community can empower and transform students' lives. Communities that value and respect members and provide a safe learning environment for everyone to express their views, build awareness and develop capabilities together are more likely to be inclusive.

In this chapter, you will learn about:

- Developing inclusive relationships between teachers, students and parents;
- Ideas that encourage students to have a voice and be represented in processes of school review and development;
- Processes that facilitate engagement with parents and communities; and
- How teams of specialist staff can be involved in school activities.

Two case studies are presented to support the development of a set of ideas and strategies that can be incorporated across the school sector. The case studies illustrate how parents, students, and teachers can work together to achieve shared outcomes from more inclusive schooling.

Before reading the case studies, it is necessary to know a little about *The Index for Inclusion* (Booth & Ainscow, 2002). This resource is designed to support schools in a process of inclusive school development and was developed in the United Kingdom at the Centre for Studies in Inclusive Education (CSIE) in collaboration with the University of Manchester and University of Christ Church College Canterbury. The
Index provides a framework for school review and development on three dimensions: school culture, policy, and practice. A school culture includes beliefs, values, habits, and assumes ways of doing things among the school community. Culture is the heart and soul of a organization and can develop by osmosis or can be influenced by purposeful leadership. Policy can include written expectations about how people work together, use resources, and provide educational programs for students in the school. Policy is usually informed by school and education organization priorities and plans. The dimension of practice includes areas such as classroom ways of orchestrating learning and roles and duties of staff in the school.

The three dimensions overlap because developments in school culture require the formulation of policies and the implementation of practice. Each dimension of the Index is divided into a number of indicators that can be considered as goals for achieving more inclusive schooling. Each indicator suggests a number of questions that can be used to encourage thinking about various issues related to inclusive education. The detailed questions ensure that the materials can provoke thought on school issues, whatever its current state of development. While the questions do not provide solutions for schools, they prompt people to think differently and to consider how the school could be improved to meet the needs of the school community. The intent is threefold: to establish existing knowledge and community understandings about culture, policy and practice in the school; to consider priority areas for school and teacher development; and to manage and document the process of change. There are five phases in the Index process:

- Phase 1 – Starting the Index process;
- Phase 2 – Finding out about the school;
- Phase 3 – Producing an inclusive development plan;
- Phase 4 – Implementing developments; and
- Phase 5—Reviewing the Index process.

The Index for Inclusion was used in the following two case studies.

Case studies
Gum Tree State School is an inner-city primary school with approximately 250 students participating in a P-7 (primary, preschool, and special education) multi-age program. This program means that students have access to a flexible, supportive learning environment and have the opportunity to progress at their own rate of development. The school principal wanted to explore structures, policies, and practices so that the inclusion policy for the school would address key priorities.

A working party comprising the head of special education services, a class teacher, a behaviour support services representative, the principal, parent representatives, and the education advisor (Inclusive Education) from the school district was formed. Opportunities at school staff meetings were planned for all staff, including teacher aides, teachers, administrators, and specialists, to discuss their beliefs and understandings about inclusive education. This process is important because shared beliefs of members of the school community affect actions, which in turn affects the school culture. Open communication is fostered and members are encourage to feel comfortable and express opinions and thoughts on issues. The Index for Inclusion assisted in this process. Use of
the *Index* encourages collaborative enquiry and assumes that all schools are at different points in the journey toward more inclusive school development.

A particular issue was identified during one of the staff meetings that became an early focus for the working party. Some staff believed that teacher aide support did not focus sufficiently on student learning and development. These staff thought that the support model met the needs of some audits and also caused many students with disabilities to become support-dependent. The education advisor (Inclusive Education) facilitated a workshop specifically for teacher aides. Activities and conversations, underpinned by the *Index*, challenged assumptions about the learning and participation of students with disabilities and led to an acknowledgment that disability is one aspect only of human difference. Teacher aides recognized that current support options had the potential to impede the learning and independence of students. Ongoing discussions with support staff extended and strengthened these views and provided opportunities to share and extend individual understandings of inclusive education that supported future student aspirations.

In addition to the meeting with the teacher aides, layers of data were collected from members of the school community. Initially, a staff survey created from the culture and policy dimensions of the *Index* identified priority areas. The following areas were considered by the working party to be of the highest priority because 12-25% of staff respondents disagreed with the statement.

- Staff professional development activities help staff to respond to student diversity.
- Staff treat each other with respect irrespective of their roles in the school.
- Staff feel valued and supported (50% of teacher aides disagreed with this compared with 15% of teaching staff).
- The staff’s belief in meeting diverse needs reduces the barriers to learning and participation for all students (teachers and other groups disagreed more strongly that teacher aides).
- Meetings involving staff, students, parents/carers, and others attempt to deal with problems flexibly before they escalate (teacher aides and others disagreed most strongly).

At Gum Tree State School, priorities and issues were also identified through parent and student questionnaires that were informed by the *Index for Inclusion*. The parent questionnaire was sent to every family in the school and deeper levels of understanding were developed through Parent Forums. These forums were advertised through the school newsletters and internet site to consider specific issues such as communication between home and school and reporting on children’s progress. At the school, every student in Years 6 and 7 undertakes training at the beginning of the school year to become a peer support leader. Peer support groups involve vertical groupings of the whole school, with older students teaching and mentoring a multi-age group of younger children, for a 30-minute lesson every week. Students from across all year levels were surveyed using the Student Survey (Box 12.1) and the following issues were identified as concerns:

- The children in my class call others by unkind names.
- Kids are mean to me in the playground.
- At this school, when children fight or argue the teacher sorts it out fairly.
12.1 A student survey

I am a girl ______  I am a boy ______  I am in year ______

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey statement</th>
<th>Most of the time</th>
<th>Some of the time</th>
<th>None of the time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I like being at this school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My friends help me with my class work when I need help.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I help my friends with their work when they need help.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My teacher likes to help me with my work.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My teacher lets me know how I am doing with my work.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to help my teacher when she or he has jobs that need doing.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My teacher likes to listen to my ideas.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a choice of activities in my room.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers don’t mind if I make mistakes as long as I try my best.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The children in my class call others by unkind names.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kids are mean to me in the playground.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I feel unhappy at school I can talk to my teacher or another adult about my problems.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey statement</td>
<td>I agree</td>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>I do not agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At this school, when children fight or argue the teacher sorts it out fairly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We help make the rules of our classroom.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel comfortable with most of the children at this school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The staff at this school are friendly to me.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am learning a lot at this school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At lunchtimes there are places in the school I can go to be comfortable.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**The three things I like best about my school are:**

- 
- 
- 

**The three things I would change about this school are:**

- 
- 
- 
After the survey, the peer support groups discussed significant issues identified in the student survey. Peer support leaders facilitated conversations with their multi-age groups about each issue and recorded suggestions for improvement. These were later considered in a combined peer support group meeting. The collection of layers of data provided a deep understanding of issues from a range of perspectives and information gathered provided useful feedback to the school.

The surveys confirmed that all groups felt a high degree of satisfaction about issues such as:

- Everyone is made to and feels welcome.
- Students enjoy being at the school.
- There is a partnership between staff and parents/carers with opportunities for parents/carers to be involved in school decision-making.
- All local communities are involved in the school and those who volunteer at the school are valued.
- Staff work hard to help students.

The following were identified as issues to be improved:

- Communication between groups in the school.
- Sharing of resources between groups.
- Staff collaboration.
- Staff planning to meet needs of all students.

The school principal reported that the Index process assisted in the review of support services to students and provided a focus for professional conversations with staff. An inclusion policy was developed addressing key priorities as identified by staff, students, and parents. The working party identified that further professional conversations needed to occur for staff to reflect on classroom practices. The implementation plan for the new inclusion policy needed to be sensitive to staff feelings and perceptions, as well as facilitating professional development. The staff, in particular, required a supportive, participatory process that would lead them to question the taken-for-granted assumptions linked to culture, policy, and practice in the school community. Ensuring the process was owned and driven from within the school increased sustainability. Staff, students, parents, and administration need to be actively involved in a successful school development process. The Index for Inclusion did not provide a solution; it gave insiders permission to think differently, to take away the usual restraints, and to look at all possibilities for moving forward.

**Cotton Tree Secondary School**

Cotton Tree Secondary School has about 500 students from a diversity of backgrounds. The school has a special education unity supporting 33 students who have a range of disabilities, including intellectual disability, Autism Spectrum Disorder, physical impairment, and speech language impairment. Aboriginals and Torres Strait islanders comprise 3.5% of the student population and 3.4% of families indicate that they speak a language other than English in their home (e.g., Filipino, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, and Indian). The principal was keen to involve students in a process of review and future planning for the school. She believed that student views
frequently are lost in the business of school improvement and noted that they are rarely thought of as active participants in school review processes.

A Student Management Team, consisting of approximately 35 students from Years 9 to 12, had been involved in decision-making about school matters such as uniforms and school special events. The principal was keen to extend opportunities for this group of students to be more involved in developing and refining school policies and procedures. In general, the students represented the diversity in the student population. The Student Management Team met with teachers from the school to discuss student response to a number of statements:

- In most lessons, students and teachers behave well toward each other.
- Opinions of students are sought about how the school might be improved.
- Students are confident that their difficulties will be dealt with effectively.
- Students share responsibility for helping to overcome the difficulties experienced by some students in lessons.
- When you first joined this school you were helped to feel settled.
- Students worry about being bullied at this school.
- Students are taught to appreciate people who have different backgrounds to their own.
- Teachers try to help all students do their best.
- At lunchtime, there are places in the school where students can go to be comfortable.
- When students have problems with their work they ask the teacher for help.

The 10 statements were drawn from the culture, policy, and practice dimensions of the *Index for Inclusion*. The students were asked to discuss each statement and record an answer: “Yes, we agree”; “We are not sure”; or “No, we do not agree” on a recording chart for each statement posted on a wall. Students could also make any comments from their discussion on sticky notes posted on the recording charts. Once the information was collated, students were asked to consider future actions (see Box 12.2).

Representatives from the Student Management Team presented the issues and the range of actions to a school committee (school principal, teaching staff representatives, students, and members of the school community, including parents of students attending the school). Staff and parents were impressed with the insights and actions proposed by the students. For example, the Student Management Team suggested a number of student-driven ways to welcome new students: the office could liaise with the Student Team in the organization of a welcome committee and peer buddy system, and provide information about processes and policies at the school. The school principal, teachers, and parents were supportive of the recommended actions.
### 12.2. Student management team forum, data and planning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strength/Concern</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In most lessons, students and teachers behave well toward each other.</td>
<td>Concern</td>
<td>We need to learn to interact with each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reinforce teacher-student relationship.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Revisit code of behaviour (Student Management Team to review and rewrite).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinions of students are sought about how the school might be improved.</td>
<td>Concern</td>
<td>Representatives to go to Teacher Management Meeting to make sure the right information is getting told.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Participate in a range of meetings – Parents and Citizens and Triennial School Review.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students are confident that their difficulties will be dealt with effectively.</td>
<td>Concern</td>
<td>Students should be made aware of their options, where they can go for help.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Set time in class for students to raise concerns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students share responsibility for helping to overcome the difficulties experienced by some students in lessons.</td>
<td>Strength</td>
<td>No action needed here.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When you first joined this school you were helped to feel settled.</td>
<td>Concern</td>
<td>Extend workshop and camps to form stronger support groups and friendships.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Older grades have friendship-building activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Students volunteer to help new students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A book of hints made by Student Management Team to give to students in Year 7 (e.g., have information on peer mediation process).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students worry about being bullied at this school.</td>
<td>Concern</td>
<td>Continue peer mediation, raise awareness about what they do – needs publicity about this.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Give students information book in Year 8.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Focus on teaching about bullying in Years 8 and 9.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Acknowledge the issues – bullying still exists in upper school but it is subtle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statements</td>
<td>Strength/Concern</td>
<td>Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students are taught to appreciate people who have different backgrounds</td>
<td>Concern and</td>
<td>Treat everyone as equals – needs to be more embedded in teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to their own.</td>
<td>Strength</td>
<td>School expectation is a strength and needs to continue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers try to help all students do their best.</td>
<td>Strength and</td>
<td>Included in Action for Statement 1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At lunchtime there are places in the school where students can go to be</td>
<td>Concern</td>
<td>More seating (all year levels). Year 12s need a place to eat lunch so younger grades do not feel intimidated near the tuck shop.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comfortable.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When students have problems with their work they ask the teacher for help.</td>
<td>Strength and</td>
<td>Most teachers do their best to help. Students tease other students for asking questions. Sometimes students are embarrassed to ask questions. This needs to be addressed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Concern</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Empowering the students to contribute to school review and planning helped the development of pride in showcasing the school to future students and the community. One student said, “It’s just an awesome achievement for us to be able to be involved.” The process demonstrates how students can raise awareness of issues of importance to them and provide feedback on positive school cultural characteristics that lead to a higher level of respect for students and their view about the environment and culture of the school.

The teaching and learning context

Before progressing with a discussion about how home, school, and community relationships can be developed, it is important to consider the key assumptions that underlie inclusive education that influence the development of these relationships. In Australia, our understandings about inclusive education have evolved from the notion of integrating students with disabilities into regular schools. Currently, the terms integration and inclusion are still confused.

With integrating, there is a focus on helping students with disabilities to fit in to the regular classroom. This focus emphasizes teaching the normal curriculum with teachers considering what modifications may be needed to meet the needs of students who have a disability. Therefore, integration neither necessarily challenges the organisation and provision of curriculum for students nor considers the development of respectful relationships among students, parents, and the community. There is little recognition of the social and cultural differences that exist in the range of communities. In contrast, an inclusive approach to schooling focuses on diversity and difference in our society. For schools to cater for diverse populations of students, questions are raised about personal assumptions and beliefs that inform views about schools, teachers, students, teaching and learning, and the interconnectedness between individuals, education, and society. In an inclusive approach, teachers listen to their students and their families and build a curriculum that is appropriate and respectful for those needs.
A preservice teacher recently commented to me:

I realized that inclusion begins with everyday actions – the way you treat people and the language you use to talk about different groups of people can reinforce or tear down inclusion and acceptance … An inclusive society can only be created when people look beyond another person’s skin colour, religion, sex, or social status to see a real person who deserves respect and the same chances in life as anyone else.

In formal terms, schools are now being asked to move away from a deficit model where a problem, such as a learning difficulty, is essentially located within the individual, to a social model that recognizes that difference can be created through social institutions that have oppressive, discriminatory, and disabling practices.

In the past, if students had problems with learning or had a disability, the students were usually removed from the regular classroom and identified and labelled in some way. Remedial programs and special interventions were designed to fix their problem. Some students with disabilities were not included in regular school programs. Inclusive education strives to achieve a way of life in schools where people are valued and treated with respect for their varied knowledge and experiences. Inclusive education demands that schools listen to the needs of the students and parents/carers to inform the planning of flexible curriculum and pedagogy that is learner-focused, rather than content-driven. This inclusive way of thinking means that teachers consider the social and cultural backgrounds of the families and students when planning their classroom programs. It is the responsibility to meet the needs of the students in their classroom.

Issues and challenges

Working in school communities

If teachers are to embrace the strengths and needs of students and parents in their school community, they need to invest time and energy to listen to students and understand the diverse backgrounds from which they come. Working with students who have a disability or who come from different cultural backgrounds can be daunting for teachers. Many teachers have not had a broad experience with a range of people in society. Teachers working in some areas need to work with a number of government agencies that provide support services to families who are disadvantaged. As a teacher, you can recognize that every individual, family, or community member can contribute to your learning and understanding to achieve a successful school program. Education departments, governments, and community organizations have a variety of support services and specialists to assist teachers to support the diversity of student needs.

Developing sustainable school communities

Many school communities have made good progress in developing an inclusive culture, inclusive policies, and inclusive practices. Progress can be driven by key personnel in the school such as a school principal. Yet, with a change of leadership, priorities can be altered and a school might slip back into authoritarian and traditional ways of work. If the value of working in inclusive ways is not embedded in the work practices of the people in the school, then a new school principal can direct the focus to other
priorities that may not value and support all students and families. To avoid their lack of sustainability of inclusive school development, school principals and school leaders need to develop democratic and shared leadership that encourages a commitment to shared goals. “Beige teachers” cannot achieve inclusive schools.

The concept of beige teachers was presented by Linda Graham in her doctoral studies where she drew on the ideas of the Scottish comedian “Billy Connolly, who wages a self-confessed war against the ‘beige army’ – all those who wear beige, are beige and seek to make others beige as well” (Graham, 2006, p. 198). In contrast, beginning teachers need to be passionate and creative about engaging with the broader community in democratic ways, where difference and diversity are valued, and the problem of injustice and exclusion in education can be addressed and shared. Enthusiastic teachers who are committed to achieving inclusive schooling can become active participants and drivers of school change. A strong inclusive school culture can be achieved and sustained when students, parents, teachers, and the school administration work at various levels to achieve common goals. Later in this chapter you will be asked to consider how you could plan for sustainable change in a school community.

**Inclusive schooling versus standards agenda**

There is tension between an inclusive approach in schools and the focus on raising standards. It is evident that there are many non-inclusive aspects of the current national focus on testing, raising standards, and the education department resourcing models based on categories of disability and difference. The range of ever-changing external policy agendas create pressures within schools to lift standards and this may create negative views about some children and some family backgrounds, and lead to exclusion of students. In a positive way, these external agendas can also prompt school leaders to consider students who are not achieving well and prompt problem-solving for students’ outcomes. Therefore, the focus on standards can be interpreted in several ways at the school level, each being informed by the school culture and priorities.

Pressure in some schools to cover the set curriculum may not allow teachers to differentiate instruction depending upon students’ abilities because of the need to teach a sequence of curriculum content in a specified period of time. This situation is a common problem for secondary school teachers. A focus on covering the content combined with pressure about raising standards usually means that teachers are rarely able to address the needs of individual students in the classroom. Teachers may perceive that the structure of the curriculum and associated high academic expectations are barriers to the development of an inclusive approach to teaching. Where withdrawal (or pull out) programs exist for students who are experiencing learning difficulties, the responsibility for the student shifts to someone outside of the regular classroom. In schools with a culture of high achievement expectations, students who have difficulties with learning the standard curriculum were thought to “weigh down” the regular students. This type of thinking implies that students have a deficit because they are not meeting the demands of the curriculum.

A close focus on academic achievement and traditional teaching practices provides few opportunities for teaching staff, special educators, and school administrators to meet, reflect, and discuss key issues about meeting the needs of students, especially those who are in secondary schools. In such schools, staff operate from within the
perspective of an existing structure and this makes it difficult to think about an alternative school organisation and teaching of the curriculum.

**Inclusion is more than placement**

Inclusive education is about much more than the location where learning takes place. A student who has a disability may be sitting in a Year 5 or a Year 9 classroom but may be ostracised by their peers and may not have their learning needs met by the teacher.

Even when special assistance is available, it may not mean that the student is truly included in the regular class. For example, in one secondary school, in-class support was provided for students who have learning difficulties. The support was provided by regular class teachers who were not engaged in a class for that period. This idea seems innovative but after observing the initiative in practice and discussing the process with staff, it became clear that this practice was not inclusive. In a science class, for example, a supporting class teacher was timetabled to assist three students with learning difficulties. These students were seated at the back of the class and worked on a science task with the supporting class teacher. The regular class teacher did not include the three students when she was teaching the regular lesson to the remainder of the class. The students with difficulties were still very much segregated from the class because the class teacher was not encouraged to modify her teaching or the curriculum to cater for the individual differences. Some teachers want to carry on with their regular teaching for the “normal” students with as little disruption as possible to their usual routines and do not take responsibility for all learners in their classroom. Leadership and cultural change, as identified earlier, can assist teachers to be more inclusive in their classroom practice.

**Support to develop inclusive practices**

Teachers need in-school support when planning and differentiating instruction and for motivating and monitoring learning in the classroom. There must be recognition of the time needed for teachers to collaborate and work with teams that include teachers, specialists, and parents. The principal and school leaders can assist by providing teachers with formalized release time for these activities if inclusive education is a priority in the school. Professional development is necessary to ensure that teachers feel confident in planning and teaching all students in their classroom.

Thus, we can see that the traditional ways in which teachers have been encouraged to work need to be critiqued and challenged to facilitate the introduction of inclusive practices into classroom practice. As beginning teachers you can actively reflect on your teaching and model inclusive ways to interacting with students in your classroom. Teachers resisting the trend toward sameness and working actively to alter a school culture are important factors for embedding inclusive practices into a school community.
From this section of this chapter we can see that:

- An inclusive teacher listens to students to develop relevant curriculum that caters for all students;
- Sustainable cultural change in the school is required for teachers to adopt inclusive practices;
- This sort of change requires leadership from the principal, who can model inclusive values to staff;
- An inclusive teacher needs to be innovated and work collaboratively to solve teaching and learning problems;
- Standardised testing and the pressure to cover a set curriculum are two key factors that sustain a traditional approach to teaching;
- Inclusive education is about the curriculum rather than just the location of students; and
- Leadership and professional development are needed to engender cultural change so that teachers will adopt inclusive culture and practice in their classrooms.

Teaching essentials

This section focuses on principles that teachers can develop to inform an ethical and inclusive approach in schools.

Collaboration and team-work

Teachers must work together, share ideas, and plan to achieve agreed missions and goals. A class of students in early childhood, primary, and secondary school usually contains a broad range of student abilities and family backgrounds, so the teacher needs support from specialists available inside and outside the school. A support network can include members of the school administration, team teachers, teacher aides, parents, community volunteers, and specialist teaching support such as special education teachers and counsellors. Additional support from state or regional-based advisory teams is usually available. These support networks can assist teachers in sharing ideas on creating a flexible curriculum and in addressing students’ individual learning and social needs.

The opportunity to discuss programs, assessment practices, resources, and activities with supporting personnel ensures the sharing of good ideas and increases the probability that solutions are found to difficult problems. Collaboration is essential because the invention of new ideas requires reflective problem-solving that will develop inclusive practices. These practices, in turn, ensure that student needs are met within the education and wider community. One of the most effective ways of achieving organisational change and an inclusive school is to provide time and opportunities for collaboration and problem-solving between general, special, and other educational and community-based staff (Carrington & Robinson, 2006).
Many school programs have classroom-based support staff, such as teacher aides or teacher assistants. Their employment and deployment are usually managed by principals and they are assigned to a variety of roles. In addition, support teachers, special education teachers, English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers, guidance officers, and advisory visiting specialists all work collaboratively with teachers to provide students with quality learning experiences. Due to the intense nature of teaching, a challenge for these teams is to ensure there is adequate time to work together. Effective collaboration and teamwork in schools frequently occurs on the run. That is, teachers and teacher aides catch up informally to discuss student progress or share successes and problems while passing in the school corridors or while on playground duty. These ongoing communications can compliment more formally arranged meetings.

In some schools there are weekly meetings where student support needs are indentified and addressed, and specialist services can then be organised. In the past, teachers have identified a lack of knowledge and skills in meeting the pedagogical needs of diverse student populations, especially for students with disabilities (Forlin, Douglas, & Hattie, 1996). There is a need for ongoing commitment to professional development and learning from individual teachers, schools, and education systems. Collaboration and teamwork provide support for teachers to work and learn together to develop more inclusive ways of working (Barton, 2003; Skrtic, Sailor & Gee, 1996).

In traditional schools, teachers have usually worked in isolation and generally have not had the opportunity to observe how their colleagues deal with the challenges of classroom teaching. Because of this, many teachers have not been exposed to a range of practices, and therefore, have not critically reflected on their own. Staff working together to solve problems can provide effective ways of working with students because there is an ongoing evaluation of teaching styles and strategies and the school organisation to inform the development and refinement of inclusive policies and practice (Ainscow, 2007). An example of this can be found in Box 12.3. The combination of professional knowledge gained from working and learning in a team provides a varied and interesting approach to teaching and usually enhances the job satisfaction for all involved.
12.3 An excursion to the zoo

Classroom teachers and special education teachers often work together in inclusive schools. The following story illustrates the benefits for a whole class when teachers share their knowledge and skills.

A group of children in Year 2 were planning a school excursion to the local zoo. The Year 2 teacher was particularly worried about how a child who had Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) was going to cope with the demands of the excursion. The young boy did not cope well with change from the general classroom routine and could become very anxious, which could result in tantrums and difficult behaviour. The class teacher discussed her concerns with the special education teacher from the Special Education Unit, and the special education teacher planned a Social Story for the child. A Social Story is a teaching strategy that builds on natural social skills and behaviours based on a concept developed by Carol Gray (2000). It is a presented as a short story that describes a situation, a concept, or social skills so that the child has improved awareness and understanding of a social experience. It is read with, or by, the child a number of times. Sometimes photographs are used to support the story.

The Special Education Teacher wrote the following Social Story:

Next week on Friday our class is going to the zoo for the day.
My teacher, teacher aides, and some parent helpers will come too.
I will meet my friends at the front of the school on Friday.
I will have my hat and my backpack with the lunch inside.
My friends and I will walk onto the bus and find a seat.
We can talk quietly in the bus on the way to the zoo.
When we get off the bus, I will stay with my group.
We will walk together and listen to our group leader when she is talking.
We will see lots of animals at the zoo. Some animals will smell funny.
All of the animals are in cages or enclosures and cannot hurt me.
After we have lunch at the zoo, we will come back to the school on the bus.

Once the classroom teacher received the Social Story, she decided to use it with the whole Year 2 class. The story was presented in large print on a flip chart and the teacher and the class read the story together every day in the week leading up to the excursion. The strategy was excellent in preparing all students for the excursion so the students knew how they were expected to behave and what they would do on the day of the excursion. The Social Story was developed initially to enhance the social skills of one child but it was used to prepare all students for the excursion, and also promoted literacy skills.
Critical engagement with inclusive ideals and practices

There are many historical and structural factors that have informed teaching practice, but these days teachers are encouraged to work with students in ways that suit the local context and community. This change demands a series of deconstructions and reconstructions of beliefs, knowledge, and language rather than transformation of traditional beliefs, knowledge, and practices. This means there is a need to expose and dismantle stereotyped views and then consider new ways of thinking about what is possible in schools for certain groups of students.

A common language develops when teachers learn to work together with a range of professionals and community members. When critical engagement with issues occurs it can provoke deep reflection on taken-for-granted assumptions about, for example, particular groups of pupils or parents. Language usually reflects preconceptions and beliefs about many issues and this is exemplified in Box 12.4. Through critical reflection on views and actions, teachers gain an awareness of their assumptions, beliefs, and how these relate to practice (Crebbin, 2004). Through this process, teachers develop coherent rationales for their beliefs and classroom practices and may even become more aware of appropriate alternatives rather than proceeding on impulse and intuition.

12.4 Teachers’ language

A teacher’s use of language can reflect and maintain dominant power relationships. Read the following story and consider how this teacher’s language revealed her beliefs.

A specialist teacher who was working in a secondary school to support refugee students in the school community stated in exasperation, “These girls! They have such limited life experiences!”

The question is, however: Did these girls have limited life experiences or different life experiences? The teacher may not have realised that her white middle class beliefs about difference and her expectations about schooling were influencing (in a destructive sense) her plans for an inclusive approach in the school. This anecdote about the specialist teacher may be an example of someone who is unknowingly emphasising the beliefs valued by the dominant group to which she belongs (white middle class), while advocating an inclusive approach in her work in schools.

In a discussion of how to brainstorm for good ideas for essay writing in a secondary school English class, a teacher was discussing imagination and stated, “Some of you have it and some of you don’t. That’s the nicest way of saying it.” This statement would not contribute to the development of a healthy self-esteem for many students in the class. As you might expect, even the brighter students would be questioning whether they have it or don’t. Reluctance by students to take a risk in the classroom was evident when the teacher asked a question after this comment and only one student raised a hand to answer.

This anecdote demonstrates the way language can communicate the value placed on natural ability and inadvertently reinforce the negative view of a student who is not achieving.
Development of an inclusive culture

Traditionally and historically, schools have been hierarchical and based on authoritarian models of governance that alienate and marginalise rather than respect, care for, and include members of the school community. The culture of a school organisation affects the way in which schools operate and the ways that problems are solved. In an organisation there is collective social action that is based on relationships that are informed by collective understandings among members that are related to roles. The individuals’ perspectives direct their behaviour.

School culture can be influenced by beliefs, values, and knowledge relating to the following issues:

- Social justice and equity issues;
- Disability and learning problems;
- Barriers to inclusive schooling;
- The nature of knowledge;
- Teaching and learning;
- The goals of education;
- Organisation and management of student behaviour;
- The nature and delivery of the curriculum;
- Leadership within the school;
- The needs of teachers; and
- The needs of the students

An inclusive school culture assumes that the principal and staff of the school will accept the responsibility for the progress of all students. The ways of organizing a classroom and a school, the construction of the role of teaching, and the delivery of the curriculum influence the way students are taught. An inclusive approach requires an organisational philosophy that is committed to the improvement of strategies, programs, and the use of available resources. Although a school organisation is influenced by social structure, it has properties of its own and will develop in response to its internal dynamic, as the example in Box 12.5 shows.
12.5 A case of withdrawal

This story is about a school principal of a large secondary school who indicated in an interview that he was supportive of inclusive schooling. In practice, however, he continues to emphasise high achievement and standards for each year level in his school. That meant that, if students were not able to meet the high expectations, then opportunities were provided for them to complete modified work or complete the set work with specialist special education support.

In his school, staff time and effort were frequently devoted to the development of the alternative resources and modified teaching programs that were often taught away from the usual teaching program for that year. Students were separated from their peers and received a watered-down version of the curriculum. Teachers in these programs viewed the learners in these withdrawal programs differently to their age peers. Consequently, the students in withdrawal programs often could not meet the requirements of a traditional content-focused curriculum. By ignoring their responsibility to provide active and successful learning experiences of the learners in each class, the teachers continued to reinforce the deficit perception of learners who were not responding appropriately to the set curricula.

It is possible for staff to reconstruct the organisation of a school to meet the needs of the students within it. This requires staff to:

- Communicate;
- Solve problems;
- Demonstrate respect for each other, their students, and families;
- Develop a shared vision or philosophy that will enable them to move out of the boundaries of traditional school organisation and practice;
- Learn about the limitations in current practice; and
- Create new knowledge and skills that are needed to include all students
The story in Box 12.5 highlights the deep change in thinking that is required to facilitate the change toward an inclusive approach in schools. The difficulty comes from not looking deeply inside us to question beliefs and practice about teaching young people from diverse backgrounds and with diverse abilities. The experience of questioning these unspoken truths can be uncomfortable, but it can also be an exciting process as new possibilities and perspectives are considered. The following ideas may be useful for teachers who wish to be inclusive:

- Be reflective and critical about what you observe and experience in schools;
- Seek out and use a critical friend;
- Be open to constructive critique and be ready to engage in debate and discussion that might be uncomfortable; and
- Be committed to pursuing an ongoing development and learning.

The beliefs and understandings that you uncover can be personal but can also be shared views in a social context. Many traditional school routines based on unquestioned beliefs and assumptions can support ongoing patterns of behaviour that block progress to a more inclusive approach to schooling. However, it is very complex. We have all been immersed in our own experiences of schooling and built our own understandings around those experiences. To move toward inclusive practices, we must recognise the impact of our own beliefs and cultural backgrounds on limitations and barriers that exist to inclusive schooling.

**Development of inclusive policy**

The beliefs held within education organisations generated policies that led to practices. These policies also identify a process. Read through School A’s and School B’s behaviour policies in Box 12.6 and think about how each policy may contribute to different practices and expectations. Also, consider the underlying values and ideals for each policy.
### 12.6 School behaviour policies

#### School A behaviour policy

**Students will:**
- Attend school regularly, on time, ready to learn and participate in school activities
- Work hard and comply with requests or directions from all staff
- Abide by school rules, meet homework and assessment requirements
- Be well presented and wear the school’s uniform as prescribed
- Behave in a responsible manner that does not infringe on others’ rights to learn
- Respect the property of the school and others
- Maintain a clean and safe environment

**Parents will:**
- Take an active role in my child’s academic and social development by attending school activities, parent evenings and interviews
- Inform the school if there are any problems that may affect my child’s ability to learn
- Inform the school of the reason for any absence prior to or within 48 hours of the absence
- Make arrangements to enable my child to arrive at school on time
- Treat school staff with respect and tolerance
- Support the authority and discipline of the school

#### School B behaviour policy

Through the understanding of student’s needs and by giving them some control and ownership of the curriculum and learning activities in their classrooms, we not only minimize behaviour issues and develop important social outcomes but also strive to provide the highest quality education that makes a positive different to the lives of all young people in our school community.

At the core of our plan is also a focus upon the individual student and their responsibilities in the learning/behaviour relationship.

We believe that each individual:
1) Makes choices about how they act and treat each other
2) Is responsible for their behaviour and the choices they make
3) Should accept the consequences of their actions and understand the importance of making amends
4) Can choose to change their behaviour

All members of the school community are expected to conduct themselves in a lawful, ethical, safe and responsible manner that recognises and respects the rights of others. Four key elements underpin the creation of a positive climate across the school community:
- **RESPECT:** For self, for others and natural/built environments
- **RESPONSIBILITY:** Cooperation, courtesy and consideration for all
- **RIGHTS:** Every student has the right to learn unhindered
- **REPUTATION:** Promote and enhance the good name of the school
In reading these behaviour management policies you will note the difference in their language. For example, notice the words used in School A’s behaviour policy and then compare this with the language in School B’s behaviour policy. School A has a focus on rules and with an expectation of compliance for both students and parent. School B has a focus on a shared responsibility to ensure positive outcomes for all in the school community. You can see that behaviour policy A articulates traditional power relations, whereas behaviour policy B is empowering for students. Policy B involves the school recognising and valuing each student. The School A behaviour policy, by contrast, constructs students as a homogenous group. It is alienating rather than inviting parental involvement.

Learning about the community and developing partnerships
Here, the focus is on community partnerships that promote active connections, trust, mutual understanding, and shared values and behaviours. It is the shared commitment that binds the community and makes cooperative action possible. Some schools are adopting values-based planning to achieve whole-school teamwork that involves parents and the community in shared decision-making. The key focus is on developing a sense of belonging for all members of the school community alongside coordinated review, planning, and action. This approach was reflected in the case studies earlier in the chapter.

Values-based planning involving parents and the community can be used to develop:

- A school’s vision (i.e., a dream about what could be);
- The school’s mission (i.e., the fundamental reason for the school’s existence); and
- Strategic planning processes (How we are going to get there)

This planning requires an understanding of the value platform for a school culture through developing relationships among staff, between staff and students, and between staff and parents/community. In particular, as noted above, there is a need for respect for the full range of contributions made by parents and the community in contrast to the traditional notions of parent help or community sponsorship. Schools frequently refer to parents as partners in the educative process, but the nature of the involvement of families is superficial in many schools. Indeed, while it is generally accepted that parents play a vital role in children’s education, in some schools, parents are seen to be more part of the problem than part of the solution. With the structure and make-up of families changing, there is a need for a variety of ways in which parents and carers can contribute in a valuable way to schools.

Teachers can consider ways in which parents and other community members can be engaged in and contribute to a school. The important issue is to value a broad range of contributions from parents and provide ongoing opportunities for parent feedback and consultation. Here are some suggestions that might help.

- Listen to parents and make them feel welcome in the school.
- Roster teachers to attend and address Parents and Citizen’s meetings.
- Distribute newsletters for parents about key projects and activities in the school.
- Survey parents to gather information and feedback on a range of topics
• Invite parents to contribute and comment on special project proposals and school review and planning.
• Invite community members, organisations, and business to address staff and students.
• Consider the representation of stakeholders in the school community.

In a school where there is a genuine respect for all family groups, opportunities exist for a variety of contributions that are valued. Irrespective of socioeconomic status, education level, cultural background, or family structure, parents usually want their children to do well in school. If learning is accepted as a social process originating in the meaning-based relationship that begins in the home, valuing the full range of contributions is not only an obligation but a means of tapping into a rich resource. Listening to parents can lead to meaningful participation in resolving collective problems. This connectedness between school and families is a positive factor for educational success and further constitutes social capital that facilitates achieving goals linked to education reform.

In some school communities, key and valued representatives of the cultural community work in partnership with the school principal and teachers. For example, in many Indigenous communities, it is important to speak with the Elders. Taking the time to visit with and talk (or “yarn with”) the senior and respected members of a community can ensure that key issues are shared and discussed. These conversations build respect and understanding and facilitate a shared vision for the children and community. More recently, community involvement has moved beyond the token support roles influenced by the traditional hierarchies of power. In some Indigenous school communities, for example, Elders and community people work collaboratively to enhance student attendance and relevance and connection of the school curriculum to the local context, with the aim of increasing student achievement and progression through the school years (Sarra, 2007). Issues such as language, cultural history, community relationships and protocols, and appreciation for the land are embedded in the school culture, policy, and practice.

When contemplating the contribution of families to a school, it is valuable to consider an inward and outward perspective to transform a school to a school community. For example, inclusive education can be described as inward-directed participation in an education system that includes a focus on changing school culture through reconstructed curriculum and pedagogy. This could mean changing teaching and the curriculum to meet the needs of the learners in the school. However, inclusive education can also promote and direct social inclusion in society. This change means that education is viewed as a form of citizenship, rather than learning about citizenship. Through being socially connected to people from diverse backgrounds, awareness can be raised about power dynamics in our society. Students learn to work and support each other and develop awareness that some people in society need more help in some ways than others. Students learn to become citizen in a community. This learning may influence teachers’ beliefs and values, but could also inform relationships with students and their families and a more inclusive approach to pedagogy and curriculum.

Critical friends
The final principle for the development of more inclusive practices involves the use of a critical friend. For example, most schools have access to an education advisor (Inclusive
Education) or an equivalent person or specialist from a District office who can become involved as a consultant in a school renewal process. Some schools have academic partners from outside the university. A critical friend from outside the school can provide focus and guidance and encourage processes that uncover the deeper aspects of thinking needed for reform. The role of this outsider is to facilitate, observe, and challenge interactions between stakeholders. For example, a critical friend can:

- Confront oppressive and exclusionary behaviour and language in a constructive manner;
- Act as an interrogator to challenge school policy and practice

Through such a process, teachers and administrators have time and ongoing support to consider new ideas and implement new practices. The stakeholders in a school community, with help from a critical friend, might consider how students are grouped in classes. It may become apparent, for example, that a group of children in Year 1 are not ready for traditional teaching of academic literacy and need to spend more time on play-based use of language. Students in a secondary school may be missing too many classes due to outside paid work commitments and the school may consider staggered timetabling to allow for flexibility in school hours. Examples of these types of changes can be found in many early childhood, primary, and secondary schools and demonstrate how school communities work to address students’ needs.

**Learning essentials**

How can a teacher develop a classroom culture that has a student focus and treats young people as citizens and not as tourists drifting through the classroom with no sense of belonging? To answer this question, I draw from Freiberg’s work (1996) where it was suggested that classroom-management systems should be built on trust and support.

Freiberg’s model, *Consistency Management and Cooperative Discipline*, is a research-based, classroom-tested program that combines instruction effectiveness (through consistent classroom organisation) with student self-discipline developed cooperatively with teachers. Students are encouraged to contribute in useful ways to the school community so that cooperation, participation, and support are key factors. In this model, there is a focus on student roles and responsibilities in the classroom so that students feel that they belong to a class. For example, students might perform jobs in the classroom such as organise paper and supplies for the classroom computers, ensure work stations are stocked with appropriate resources, or even take responsibility for briefing supply or relief teachers about the class and the current unit of work. Students work with the teacher to develop shared expectations for behaviour in the classroom so there is a sense of ownership and pride about the activities and performance of the class. This type of approach prevents or minimizes discipline problems. The underlying assumption is that students can be more valued and respected as citizens in a school community and able to participate in school review, planning, and action.

To enable this respectful culture in schools, we need to overcome the traditional power relationships between teachers and students that create barriers to achieving inclusive classrooms. Power relationships and hierarchies in education systems usually reinforce authoritarian teacher-student relationships that alienate many students. These traditional power relationships can even lead to student disengagement from school.
Peer-supported learning can help re-engage students who have lost interest in the education process. Here, as students participate in active ways, there is little need for dominating strategies. Students might work together to solve problems or work on a group project or experiment. With peer-supported learning, students can bring their own knowledge, experiences and interests to bear on their learning. Thus, teachers can invite them to be co-constructors and co-creators of their learning experiences rather than students being merely passive consumers of the curriculum (Smyth, 2000) or disengaging from it. The altered relationship means those students’ perspectives, cultures, and experiences come into the centre of the curriculum because there is communication between the teacher and students. If the teacher has a better understanding of the students’ ongoing experience in the classroom, they can monitor how students are learning. A pedagogy that gives students a sense of belonging can only enhance classroom relationships and opportunities to achieve positive learning outcomes as students have a greater desire to learn. Box 12.7 provides an example of how students were involved as citizens in a secondary school community process for school review and development. The comments illustrate the sense of respect for students’ ideas and suggestions in the process.

To create a learner-centred classroom that is informed by the students’ needs and background, teachers may provide choice in content focus areas or in assessment tasks. Students may be encouraged to choose assessment options that provide the best opportunity for them to demonstrate their strengths and learning. Students are encouraged to be more involved in constructing the learning process. An inclusive program assumes that different students will be doing different activities and learning in different ways.

Treating students with respect and involving them more in decision-making about their learning provides opportunities for them to take the initiative and develop responsibility and commitment to meet goals. Generally, students want to participate actively in learning at school. Teachers can dismantle some of the traditional hierarchies and relationships that prevent teachers and students working together in respectful ways. These strategies are not complex. The tools of collaboration, teamwork and communication based on the inclusive values of care and respect that have been discussed in this chapter can also inform teaching strategies in the classroom. Consideration of student feedback and involvement in problem-solving can open opportunities for more activity-based and peer-supported learning that students find more engaging. Teachers are constantly faced with the challenge of teaching students who have a wide variety of ability levels and come from different backgrounds. In order to be inclusive, teachers need to believe that it is their responsibility to cater for the needs of the students in their classroom.

Conceptual support for the principle of student voice and participation is particularly evident in the extensive literature on the middle years of schooling (Beane 1990; Hill & Crevola 1997; Russell, Mackay, & Jane, 2003).
12.7 The school review

A secondary school community was invited to participate in a school review and development process by the principal. This process established collaboration and teamwork in a culture where students were treated as citizens and not tourists. One student explained that when she first began her schooling at Cotton Tree State High School, she thought, “You just come to school, you learn, you have a great time while you were here and then you go” in the same way that tourists pass through a town. The word “involvement” was mentioned a number of times by students and captured the change to becoming citizens in their school community. Another student said:

We get involved now. We’re looked at a lot of stuff that could be improved in our school. It makes us feel like we belong to the school and that we are part of it, and that we have something to say that can get across and be listened to … It makes us feel like that we are, like the school principal has told us since we first came, family. And the more she involves us in decisions that get made, the more we feel like we are part of a family.

Thus, as the school leaders involved students as active participants in decision-making about their school, the traditional power relationships between teachers and students were altered to relationships that were more akin to those of citizenship.

Further to this, a recent Australian report (Lamb, Walstab, Teese, Vickers, & Rumberger, 2004), which includes a review of international literature relating to factors in retention and early school learning, highlights the need to examine the student perspective on what is valuable in school. Student involvement has been shown to be a powerful and effective force for school improvement (Carrington & Holm, 2005; Flutter & Rudduck 2004; Levin, 1994; Raymond, 2001; Rudduck & Flutter, 1996; Silva, 2001; SooHoo, 1993).

By listening to students’ voices and seeing them as active participants in classroom learning, teachers can cater to students’ diverse needs and interests better. Thus, we have seen that:

- Actively involving students in decision-making about their schools enhances their sense of belonging
- An inclusive school is one in which traditional power structures have been replaced by those of citizenship
- Listening to students’ voice enhances classroom teaching because teachers are more aware of the diverse backgrounds, needs, and interests of their students
Using this chapter in schools
After reading this chapter, you should have some practical ideas about how to develop inclusive relationships with partners in the community, school, and home. The importance of ongoing development of communication, collaboration, and teamwork skills has been stressed and you have read about some cases in schools where people have worked together to solve problems. You should have a good understanding of the dimensions of culture, policy, and practice that inform the *Index for Inclusion* and understand how these dimensions influence the development of inclusive schools. The case students at the start of the chapter and the boxes throughout the chapter illustrate how the dimensions overlap and inform each other.

The teacher
When you are in schools as a preservice teacher and as a beginning teacher, it is important to observe the way staff, students are respected and valued for their strengths. Be conscious of judgmental language and sarcasm that may indicate beliefs and values that are not inclusive. Watch what happens in the school office when parents and visitors are welcomed or not welcomed into the school. As you become more aware and reflective, you will develop your own philosophy about teaching and have clear thoughts on what you value in future relationships with teacher colleagues, students, and their parents or carers. It is important to realize that you may not be able to change policy and whole-of-school practice as a beginning teacher, but you can follow your own ideals and values in your classroom and model your behaviour for others. Gradually, you may become confident to take on leadership roles in the school and influence more inclusive ways of working. You will learn to evaluate how school policy may or may not address the needs of all members of the school community in respectful ways.

Reflection on the observations you make of practices inside and outside of classrooms will also assist your learning and understanding of how schools operate. For example, as a teacher you will need to question and challenge the ways in which school communities work when you see that the needs of students, teachers, and parents are compromised. You can use a critical friend such as an education advisor or you might have access to an advisor within your education system who could help you to challenge and alter traditional practices. Academics can also help, as can specialists from government and non-government organisations. It is your responsibility as a teacher to develop the knowledge, understanding, and skills to support the students in your classroom.

The students’ environment
A teacher who values and respects students is well placed to develop an inclusive classroom. Beginning teachers need to be confident and have clear expectations about how people will work together. Consider how you would describe your classroom culture and list the key principles that will inform how you operate. By modelling and discussing your expectations in the classroom and by inviting input from your students, you will develop a shared sense of ownership that will allow students to develop as citizens. Motivation and engagement in learning are improved when students have a sense of belonging and commitment. Consider how you will plan to achieve this in your classroom.

A classroom and a school that are welcoming for parents and carers invite community participation. Each school community context will be different; therefore it is...
important for beginning teachers to invest time in getting to know the local people. As a teacher, you also need to take the time to get to know your students. Discuss the teaching focus areas and establish what students know, and identify what they need to know to be successful in the school year. Providing opportunity for class discussion and some choice in the class activities will ensure a shared commitment and will help you as the teacher get to know your class. Some schools plan to function to enable parents to meet with new teachers. The important key to success is to be open and respectful of students and their families and be willing to learn and listen.

Summary
The inevitable presence of difference among students means that schools must become comfortable about building links to the broader community and valuing diversity. The school community should foster respect for different views, collaboration, cooperation, and problem-solving among the various stakeholders: students, teachers, and parents. There is also a need to develop partnerships among a range of government and non-government agencies.

These partnerships assist schools to meet the needs of their students, and to ensure that all students are valued and treated equitably. Indeed, it is only when traditional power relationship between teachers and students are altered that an inclusive school culture can be developed and sustained.

Practical activities

Uni-work
1) View a range of school prospectus documents from the internet. Critically analyse the documents for evidence of inclusive and exclusive school policies taking into consideration the content of this chapter. Consider the values and assumptions that inform the various policies. Whose interests are considered or not considered? How is this inclusive or exclusive?

2) Visit the Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education website http://inclusion.uwe.ac.uk/csie [revised URL: http://www.csie.org.uk/index.shtml] and find out how you can use the Index for Inclusion to assist you in the development of an inclusive school classroom. Develop your own student survey to focus on review and development of how well your teaching approach meets all students’ needs in your classroom.

3) In a group with a number of your student colleagues, assume that a school principal has asked you to generate a long-term goal that the school community might develop to achieve a more inclusive approach to schooling. Brainstorm the important considerations that might ensure the achievement and sustainability of the goal. What recommendation would you make to the principal that would lead to joint school-community ownership and commitment?
School-work
Remember that school policies may apply that restrict your ability to complete one or more of the activities suggested below. Before beginning any of the activities, speak to your supervising teacher or a member of the school administration to confirm that you can undertake the activity within existing school guidelines and policies.

1) Observe how teachers, parents, students and members of the school community interact and work together. What are some of the common workplace practices and approaches that you can identify from your observations? What are the model beliefs, values, and behaviours that might guide your future teaching approach?

2) Take notice of and critique the language that teachers use in the staff room to describe students and their families. Make a list of common words and phrases that are used for students who are complying with the expectations of the teacher, and the words and phrases that are used for those who are seen as “difficult students”. Looking at your list, jot down words or phrases that you can substitute for those that have negative connotations that would reflect an inclusive teachers’ disposition.

3) This is a tough one. Make a list of the characteristics of the school culture that you admire and aspire to. Then, make a list of any resources that are available in the school to support the positive school culture. How might the community outside of the school enhance the current school culture? Consider how your school can develop into a more inclusive environment than it is now. What changes can be sustained easily and which might be harder to sustain? You could make a summary of notes and observations that might inform your developing role and character as a teacher.
Suggested reading and resources


References


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Special thanks to Robyn Robinson for her work on the development of the first case study.
The following is an excerpt from 'Causes of Deteriorating Standard of Education in Balochistan' by Jabeen and Malik:

Education is an important factor in economic growth. Many countries invest in education as a human resource. In other words, they think that if people are well educated, they can contribute to a growing economy. Areas such as health, women’s status, and child labour improve when people are educated. The Government of Pakistan has accepted that education is a fundamental human right, but it has yet to realize the dream of education for all. Many women are still illiterate. Schools are not reaching many children who need them. In many cases, parents do not send their children to school when there is a school nearby. Of the children who do go to school, many drop out. The major reason for slow improvement in education sector is low level of public expenditure on education, which was around 2.3 percent of GNP during 1990s. This is significantly short of the minimum of four percent for GNP recommended by the UNESCO for developing countries (Jabeen & Malik, 2003, p.89).

Jabeen and Malik (2003) identify several causes of the deteriorating quality of education in Balochistan:

1) **Quantity and quality of students.** They argue that students leave school because they do not know its value. Schools often have poor teachers who have not been trained. Sometimes students are treated harshly.

2) **Lack of trained teachers.** When teachers do have the proper training, they do not go to the remote areas of Balochistan.

3) **Curriculum is not related to real life.** It does not challenge students to become more creative.

4) **Not enough books.**

5) **Language is usually English or English and Urdu.** Private schools may offer better education, but poor families cannot afford to send their children. Government school teachers are often poorly trained or not qualified, having been appointed for political reasons.

6) **Some private schools do not offer good quality** and charge high fees.

7) **Poor facilities.** Some buildings are overcrowded and/or in poor condition.

8) **Tribal system.** Some tribes oppose education, especially education of women. Or they allow women to be educated, but do not want them to serve the nation (pp. 90–1).
The authors conclude:

From the above discussion it is concluded that the education is the very important element for the development of Balochistan province, but because of the existing problem in education, the province is unable to produce the quality of education. The amount of money allocated in the budget for education is not sufficient. Therefore it should be increased at least 4% to 5%, of the GOP. The monitoring and evaluation of all the educational programs on annual basis also very many essentials for the proper utilization of the funds (p. 91).

Quality of Primary Education in Pakistan

The following is the Executive Summary from a preparatory document for the Ministerial Meeting of the South Asia Education for All Forum 21–23 May 2003.

Executive Summary

Strengthening the quality of education has become a global agenda at all educational levels and more so at the primary level. The quality of basic education is important not only for preparing individuals for the subsequent educational levels but to equip them with the requisite basic life skills. Quality education also ensures increased access and equality and it is mainly due to these reasons that various international forums and declarations have pledged improvements in quality of education. National commitment towards quality education has become significantly visible since the late eighties. From then onwards, the government has experimented a number of initiatives and interventions for improving quality with national and foreign funding.

More than twenty experiences of quality education improvement from the provinces were reviewed. Empirical evidence of improved quality of students learning in terms of their enhanced achievement scores was available only in the case of three projects, i.e. Primary Teaching Kit, Supplementary Readers, and Primary Education Project-Improved Learning Environment (PEP-ILE). The impact of other projects was evident in the form of improved classroom teaching learning strategies and motivated communities for establishing, managing and improving the schools.

After a careful review and analysis it was found that the experiences with one or more of the following characteristics were the most successful:

1) Interventions reaching directly to the classrooms and students. Examples are the Primary Teaching Kit, Supplementary Readers, and other learning material.

2) Experiences developed with the community and parents’ support. Such strategies proved as catalyst for the development of the project into a programme owned and managed by the community. Examples are Community Support Process in Balochistan, Sindh and NWFP and Fellowship School Programme in Balochistan and Sindh.

3) Scientifically developed learning materials and teacher guides can change the classroom teaching-learning environment and infuse confidence among teachers. Examples are PEP-ILE and Curriculum Reform Project.

4) Provision of training facilities near the teachers’ homes/posting places under decentralized cascade training model are very effective for in-service continuous teacher training. PEP-ILE is a good case.

5) Follow-up, monitoring and support has been very effective to intensify teacher training and to ensure its application in the classrooms. The conclusion is drawn from PEP-ILE and some other experiences not included in the text of the report.
On the basis of findings it is considered that the following experiences can be replicated cost effectively with certain modifications:

1) Teaching Kit: Updated Teaching Kit with provisions of replacement and necessary teacher training at center school level. The preparation cost per Teaching Kit is Rs. 3000/-. 

2) Supplementary Readers: A library of 100 titles with five copies of each can be established at a cost of Rs. 4000/- only. Additional cost may be required for providing a cupboard for the readers.

3) Improved Learning Environment (PEP-ILE): A coherent decentralized plan of continuous teacher training, monitoring and evaluation can be established at the pattern of PEP-ILE in other provinces.

4) Scientific Preparation of Textbooks and Teacher Guides: Books should be tested before scale implementation. The programme be linked with teacher training and follow-up in the classrooms.

5) The National Education Assessment System should be developed for the purpose of monitoring learning achievement and providing feedback on various elements of the educational system and process.

6) Fellowship School Programme: It has special value for remote areas which do not have a school. For four years, the government funds a subsidy of Rs.2,500 per student; and subsequently the school is handed over to the community.

7) School Community Participation: Programmes and formal structures involving community and parents such as PTAs, school councils, village education committees, women village education committees, parent education councils etc. can be established according to the local needs and context.

The full document, Quality of Primary Education in Pakistan (Islamabad: UNESCO, May 2003) is available at:

Problems in Universalization of Primary Education in Pakistan: A Review of Khan (2010)


In the abstract of an article on universalization of education in Pakistan, Khan (2010) writes:

‘Education for all’ is a global slogan and government of Pakistan is committed to achieve the goal of Universalization of primary education. For this government is establishing new schools in remote areas so that more and more children can get access to school. Public-private partnership and collaboration with non-government organizations are the steps to attain the level of Universalization of primary education. Government is trying to make schools attractive for children, and is introducing schemes to attract parents as well. There are number of problems like poverty, ignorance, low quality teaching, which affects the government efforts (Khan 2010, p. 147).

The author goes on to remind us that education is the right of every child. Moreover, education contributes to economic development and to the ability to participate as citizens of the nation and the world. Pakistan has had the goal of a universal, free education for all children, but that goal has yet to be achieved. Kahn cites the UNESCO publication ‘The Education for All Assessment (2000)’ to illustrate the situation in Pakistan:

Investment in primary education has increased from Rs.9563 million in 1990–91 to Rs 38674 million in 1998–99. It is a record increase of 304% in a short period of 9 years. … In spite of these achievements net enrolment /participation rate could not exceed 60% against the Jomtein target of 100% net enrolment by the years 2000. It shows that around 8 million children of 5–9 age group are never enrolled in school and half (50%) of those (12 million enrolled) may drop out before completing primary education. At this rate total number of out of school children may reach 14 (8 + 6) million by the year 2002–03 (cited in Khan, 2010, p. 150).
Kahn’s research aimed to shed light on the situation in Pakistan. One hundred primary school teachers from rural areas of Bahawalnagar District were given a short questionnaire. Half of the group were men and half were women. In concluding the study, Khan writes that there are many issues that have kept Pakistan from achieving the goal of universalization: poverty, children needing to help earn money for the family, fear of harsh punishment, and limited resources to educate children beyond primary school makes learning a trade preferable:

> Teachers are of the orated that Cultural values, shortage of teachers are the reasons of low enrollment at the primary level, they speaks out that role of community and high level efficiency of educational are very important for accelerating the number of students in primary. Teachers orate that Evening shifts in schools can accommodate those schools who remain busy in some work in the morning time (Khan, p. 154).

Kahn does not speculate on how schools and communities can work together to help achieve the goal of universalization. It seems critical that they do so, however, if Pakistan’s children are to have the knowledge, skills, and dispositions that will equip them to contribute to their own homes, schools, and communities as active participants.
Problems in Universalization of Primary Education


In ‘Problems in Universalization of Primary Education in Pakistan’ (2010), Khan lists what he suggests are some of the problems in trying to achieve universal primary education in Pakistan. Many of these issues have their root cause in poverty or low household income. Here are some of them:

- Some families are unaware of the benefits of education or do not value those benefits.
- The school environment is too strict.
- Families need income that children can earn.
- Families cannot afford education beyond primary school, so they think it is better to get their children involved in a trade.
- Culture and traditions do not support girls’ education.
- There is a shortage of teachers in primary schools.

Can you think of similar problems from your own schooling experience?
Fact Sheet: A Summary of the Rights Under the Convention on the Rights of the Child

This fact sheet is included for your reference. It emphasizes the rights that support the claim that every child is entitled to an education. It can also be downloaded from http://www.unicef.org/crc/files/Rights_overview.pdf.

**Article 1 (Definition of the child):** The Convention defines a ‘child’ as a person below the age of 18, unless the laws of a particular country set the legal age for adulthood younger. The Committee on the Rights of the Child, the monitoring body for the Convention, has encouraged States to review the age of majority if it is set below 18 and to increase the level of protection for all children under 18.

**Article 2 (Non-discrimination):** The Convention applies to all children, whatever their race, religion or abilities; whatever they think or say, whatever type of family they come from. It doesn’t matter where children live, what language they speak, what their parents do, whether they are boys or girls, what their culture is, whether they have a disability or whether they are rich or poor. No child should be treated unfairly on any basis.

**Article 3 (Best interests of the child):** The best interests of children must be the primary concern in making decisions that may affect them. All adults should do what is best for children. When adults make decisions, they should think about how their decisions will affect children. This particularly applies to budget, policy and law makers.

**Article 4 (Protection of rights):** Governments have a responsibility to take all available measures to make sure children’s rights are respected, protected and fulfilled. When countries ratify the Convention, they agree to review their laws relating to children. This involves assessing their social services, legal, health and educational systems, as well as levels of funding for these services. Governments are then obliged to take all necessary steps to ensure that the minimum standards set by the Convention in these areas are being met. They must help families protect children’s rights and create an environment where they can grow and reach their potential. In some instances, this may involve changing existing laws or creating new ones. Such legislative changes are not imposed, but come about through the same process by which any law is created or reformed within a country. Article 41 of the Convention points out the when a country already has higher legal standards than those seen in the Convention, the higher standards always prevail.

**Article 5 (Parental guidance):** Governments should respect the rights and responsibilities of families to direct and guide their children so that, as they grow, they learn to use their rights properly. Helping children to understand their rights does not mean pushing them to make choices with consequences that they are too young to handle. Article 5 encourages parents to deal with rights issues ‘in a manner consistent with
the evolving capacities of the child”. The Convention does not take responsibility for
children away from their parents and give more authority to governments. It does
place on governments the responsibility to protect and assist families in fulfilling their
essential role as nurturers of children.

**Article 6 (Survival and development):** Children have the right to live. Governments
should ensure that children survive and develop healthily.

**Article 7 (Registration, name, nationality, care):** All children have the right to a
legally registered name, officially recognised by the government. Children have the
right to a nationality (to belong to a country). Children also have the right to know
and, as far as possible, to be cared for by their parents.

**Article 8 (Preservation of identity):** Children have the right to an identity – an offi-
cial record of who they are. Governments should respect children’s right to a name, a
nationality and family ties.

**Article 9 (Separation from parents):** Children have the right to live with their
parent(s), unless it is bad for them. Children whose parents do not live together have
the right to stay in contact with both parents, unless this might hurt the child.

**Article 10 (Family reunification):** Families whose members live in different countries
should be allowed to move between those countries so that parents and children can
stay in contact, or get back together as a family.

**Article 11 (Kidnapping):** Governments should take steps to stop children being taken
out of their own country illegally. This article is particularly concerned with parental
abductions. The Convention’s Optional Protocol on the sale of children, child prostitu-
tion and child pornography has a provision that concerns abduction for financial gain.

**Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child):** When adults are making decisions
that affect children, children have the right to say what they think should happen and
have their opinions taken into account. This does not mean that children can now tell
their parents what to do. This Convention encourages adults to listen to the opinions
of children and involve them in decision-making – not give children authority over
adults. Article 12 does not interfere with parents’ right and responsibility to express
their views on matters affecting their children. Moreover, the Convention recognizes
that the level of a child’s participation in decisions must be appropriate to the child’s
level of maturity. Children’s ability to form and express their opinions develops with
age and most adults will naturally give the views of teenagers greater weight than
those of a preschooler, whether in family, legal or administrative decisions.

**Article 12 (Respect for the views of the child):** When adults are making decisions
that affect children, children have the right to say what they think should happen and
have their opinions taken into account.

**Article 13 (Freedom of expression):** Children have the right to get and share informa-
tion, as long as the information is not damaging to them or others. In exercising the
right to freedom of expression, children have the responsibility to also respect the rights,
freedoms and reputations of others. The freedom of expression includes the right to share information in any way they choose, including by talking, drawing or writing.

**Article 14 (Freedom of thought, conscience and religion):** Children have the right to think and believe what they want and to practise their religion, as long as they are not stopping other people from enjoying their rights. Parents should help guide their children in these matters. The Convention respects the rights and duties of parents in providing religious and moral guidance to their children. Religious groups around the world have expressed support for the Convention, which indicates that it in no way prevents parents from bringing their children up within a religious tradition. At the same time, the Convention recognizes that as children mature and are able to form their own views, some may question certain religious practices or cultural traditions. The Convention supports children’s right to examine their beliefs, but it also states that their right to express their beliefs implies respect for the rights and freedoms of others.

**Article 15 (Freedom of association):** Children have the right to meet together and to join groups and organisations, as long as it does not stop other people from enjoying their rights. In exercising their rights, children have the responsibility to respect the rights, freedoms and reputations of others.

**Article 16 (Right to privacy):** Children have a right to privacy. The law should protect them from attacks against their way of life, their good name, their families and their homes.

**Article 17 (Access to information; mass media):** Children have the right to get information that is important to their health and well-being. Governments should encourage mass media – radio, television, newspapers and Internet content sources – to provide information that children can understand and to not promote materials that could harm children. Mass media should particularly be encouraged to supply information in languages that minority and indigenous children can understand. Children should also have access to children’s books.

**Article 18 (Parental responsibilities; state assistance):** Both parents share responsibility for bringing up their children, and should always consider what is best for each child. Governments must respect the responsibility of parents for providing appropriate guidance to their children – the Convention does not take responsibility for children away from their parents and give more authority to governments. It places a responsibility on governments to provide support services to parents, especially if both parents work outside the home.

**Article 19 (Protection from all forms of violence):** Children have the right to be protected from being hurt and mistreated, physically or mentally. Governments should ensure that children are properly cared for and protect them from violence, abuse and neglect by their parents, or anyone else who looks after them. In terms of discipline, the Convention does not specify what forms of punishment parents should use. However any form of discipline involving violence is unacceptable. There are ways to discipline children that are effective in helping children learn about family and social expectations for their behaviour – ones that are non-violent, are appropriate to the child’s level of development and take the best interests of the child into consideration.
In most countries, laws already define what sorts of punishments are considered excessive or abusive. It is up to each government to review these laws in light of the Convention.

**Article 20 (Children deprived of family environment):** Children who cannot be looked after by their own family have a right to special care and must be looked after properly, by people who respect their ethnic group, religion, culture and language.

**Article 21 (Adoption):** Children have the right to care and protection if they are adopted or in foster care. The first concern must be what is best for them. The same rules should apply whether they are adopted in the country where they were born, or if they are taken to live in another country.

**Article 22 (Refugee children):** Children have the right to special protection and help if they are refugees (if they have been forced to leave their home and live in another country), as well as all the rights in this Convention.

**Article 23 (Children with disabilities):** Children who have any kind of disability have the right to special care and support, as well as all the rights in the Convention, so that they can live full and independent lives.

**Article 24 (Health and health services):** Children have the right to good quality health care – the best health care possible – to safe drinking water, nutritious food, a clean and safe environment, and information to help them stay healthy. Rich countries should help poorer countries achieve this.

**Article 25 (Review of treatment in care):** Children who are looked after by their local authorities, rather than their parents, have the right to have these living arrangements looked at regularly to see if they are the most appropriate. Their care and treatment should always be based on “the best interests of the child”. (see Guiding Principles, Article 3).

**Article 26 (Social security):** Children – either through their guardians or directly – have the right to help from the government if they are poor or in need.

**Article 27 (Adequate standard of living):** Children have the right to a standard of living that is good enough to meet their physical and mental needs. Governments should help families and guardians who cannot afford to provide this, particularly with regard to food, clothing and housing.

**Article 28: (Right to education):** All children have the right to a primary education, which should be free. Wealthy countries should help poorer countries achieve this right. Discipline in schools should respect children’s dignity. For children to benefit from education, schools must be run in an orderly way – without the use of violence. Any form of school discipline should take into account the child’s human dignity. Therefore, governments must ensure that school administrators review their discipline policies and eliminate any discipline practices involving physical or mental violence, abuse or neglect. The Convention places a high value on education. Young people should be encouraged to reach the highest level of education of which they are capable.
Article 29 (Goals of education): Children’s education should develop each child’s personality, talents and abilities to the fullest. It should encourage children to respect others, human rights and their own and other cultures. It should also help them learn to live peacefully, protect the environment and respect other people. Children have a particular responsibility to respect the rights their parents, and education should aim to develop respect for the values and culture of their parents. The Convention does not address such issues as school uniforms, dress codes, the singing of the national anthem or prayer in schools. It is up to governments and school officials in each country to determine whether, in the context of their society and existing laws, such matters infringe upon other rights protected by the Convention.

Article 30 (Children of minorities/indigenous groups): Minority or indigenous children have the right to learn about and practice their own culture, language and religion. The right to practice one’s own culture, language and religion applies to everyone; the Convention here highlights this right in instances where the practices are not shared by the majority of people in the country.

Article 31 (Leisure, play and culture): Children have the right to relax and play, and to join in a wide range of cultural, artistic and other recreational activities.

Article 32 (Child labour): The government should protect children from work that is dangerous or might harm their health or their education. While the Convention protects children from harmful and exploitative work, there is nothing in it that prohibits parents from expecting their children to help out at home in ways that are safe and appropriate to their age. If children help out in a family farm or business, the tasks they do be safe and suited to their level of development and comply with national labour laws. Children’s work should not jeopardize any of their other rights, including the right to education, or the right to relaxation and play.

Article 33 (Drug abuse): Governments should use all means possible to protect children from the use of harmful drugs and from being used in the drug trade.

Article 34 (Sexual exploitation): Governments should protect children from all forms of sexual exploitation and abuse. This provision in the Convention is augmented by the Optional Protocol on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography.

Article 35 (Abduction, sale and trafficking): The government should take all measures possible to make sure that children are not abducted, sold or trafficked. This provision in the Convention is augmented by the Optional Protocol on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography.

Article 36 (Other forms of exploitation): Children should be protected from any activity that takes advantage of them or could harm their welfare and development.
**Article 37 (Detention and punishment):** No one is allowed to punish children in a cruel or harmful way. Children who break the law should not be treated cruelly. They should not be put in prison with adults, should be able to keep in contact with their families, and should not be sentenced to death or life imprisonment without possibility of release.

**Article 38 (War and armed conflicts):** Governments must do everything they can to protect and care for children affected by war. Children under 15 should not be forced or recruited to take part in a war or join the armed forces. The Convention's Optional Protocol on the involvement of children in armed conflict further develops this right, raising the age for direct participation in armed conflict to 18 and establishing a ban on compulsory recruitment for children under 18.

**Article 39 (Rehabilitation of child victims):** Children who have been neglected, abused or exploited should receive special help to physically and psychologically recover and reintegrate into society. Particular attention should be paid to restoring the health, self-respect and dignity of the child.

**Article 40 (Juvenile justice):** Children who are accused of breaking the law have the right to legal help and fair treatment in a justice system that respects their rights. Governments are required to set a minimum age below which children cannot be held criminally responsible and to provide minimum guarantees for the fairness and quick resolution of judicial or alternative proceedings.

**Article 41 (Respect for superior national standards):** If the laws of a country provide better protection of children's rights than the articles in this Convention, those laws should apply.

**Article 42 (Knowledge of rights):** Governments should make the Convention known to adults and children. Adults should help children learn about their rights, too. (See also Article 4.)

**Articles 43–54 (implementation measures):** These articles discuss how governments and international organizations like UNICEF should work to ensure children are protected in their rights.
One of the great, historic debates among psychologists who study children is nature versus nurture, a debate you may have discussed in your study of child development. Most psychologists agree that both are important. It is clear that there are some things we inherit from our parents such as physical characteristics, talents, and skills. But it is equally clear that we are deeply influenced by how we are reared.

Many of the characteristics that define us as individuals are the result of the environment in which we are born and raised. We are socialized to have a particular language, certain beliefs, values, ways of acting, and food preferences. Even the games and sports that we enjoy are influenced by socialization. From the moment we are born, our parents, brothers and sisters, extended family, and even our community are all shaping us. Our parents have a particular status in the community. Their status influences how others see us and how we see ourselves.

We may have been born into a family where there is plenty. Or we may have been born into a family that had to work hard just to make sure there was sufficient food to eat. We may have been born in a rural village or a big city – and as such, our surroundings would contribute significantly to how we understand the world. We may have been born into a family with strong religious beliefs, and those religious beliefs and practices shape us. We may have been born into a family that enjoys reading or a family where people do not read. This too influences who we are. (Research has demonstrated that children who are born into families where parents are educated and read to them, are more likely to do well in school and go on to higher education.)

We are influenced by popular culture, too. Advertising through media manipulates us to want things we have seen advertised, even though we may not need them! The music we listen to, the books we read, the television we watch, and the movies we see all influence us. If our family spends time watching television, we have been shaped by television in some way. Social media influences us. For example, some researchers think that our language is becoming limited by text messaging and that, over time, this will affect the range of words we use for self-expression – another example of social influence on development.

School helps to shape us too. Teachers, other children, and the opportunities we have at school help us to develop in certain ways. Not only are we taught knowledge, skills, and values in school, but we take on a particular social status because of the school we attend. Graduates of a highly ranked private school may have access to more opportunities than graduates of a public village school, for example.
As teachers, we need to understand how socialization influences learning. Children have knowledge of the world based on their experiences. What they already know and believe influences their ability to learn in school. For example, when we look at the faces of seven-year-olds in our classroom, we see clearly that they do not all look the same. But sometimes we are tempted to treat them as if they were the same in experience and capability. They may come from the same community. They may be the same age. But it is important to remember that they are not the same. Their experiences of socialization will be different. The funds of knowledge that they have will not be equal. Their attitudes towards you as teacher, towards the other children, and towards school will be different.

Today, schools recognize that they need to work with parents and communities in order to provide the best education for children. School staff understands that they have a strong socializing influence on children, too. They know that they may be working against what children have learned at home and in the community. Socialization of children to be successful in school will be more powerful and positive if it is done with parents and with the community. When schools, teachers, parents, and communities work together, everybody benefits.
Models of the Communication Process

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Abstract
We teach the same models of communication today that we taught forty years ago. This can and should be regarded as a mark of the enduring value of these models in highlighting key elements of that process for students who are taking the process apart for the first time. It remains, however, that the field of communication has evolved considerably since the 1960’s, and it may be appropriate to update our models to account for that evolution. This paper presents the classic communication models that are taught in introducing students to interpersonal communication and mass communication, including Shannon’s information theory model (the active model), a cybernetic model that includes feedback (the interactive model, an intermediary model (sometimes referred to as a gatekeeper model of the two-step flow), and the transactive model. It then introduces a new ecological model of communication that, it is hoped, more closely maps to the range of materials we teach and research in the field of communication today. This model attempts to capture the fundamental interaction of language, medium, and message that enables communication, the socially constructed aspects of each element, and the relationship of creators and consumers of messages both to these elements and each other.

Introduction
While the field of communication has changed considerably over the last thirty years, the models used in the introductory chapters of communication textbooks (see Adler, 1991; Adler, Rosenfeld, and Towne, 1996; Barker and Barker, 1993; Becker and Roberts, 1992; Bittner, 1996; Burgoon, Hunsaker, and Dawson, 1994; DeFleur, Kearney, and Plax, 1993; DeVito, 1994; Gibson and Hanna, 1992; Wood, 2002) are the same models that were used forty years ago. This is, in some sense, a testament to their enduring value. Shannon’s (1948) model of the communication process (Figure 1) provides, in its breakdown of the flow of a message from source to destination, an excellent breakdown of the elements of the communication process that can be very helpful to students who are thinking about how they communicate with others. It

1 An earlier version of this paper was written, published on the web, and used in teaching classes in Interpersonal Communication, while the author was a visiting professor at Oswego State University/SUNY Oswego. It has subsequently evolved into one of the most viewed papers on my web sites, and is routinely viewed many hundreds of times a month.
remains, however, that these texts generally treat these models as little more than a baseline. They rapidly segue into other subjects that seem more directly relevant to our everyday experience of communication. In interpersonal communication texts these subjects typically include the social construction of the self, perception of self and other, language, nonverbal communication, listening, conflict management, intercultural communication, relational communication, and various communication contexts, including work and family. In mass communication texts these subjects typically include media literacy, media and culture, new media, media industries, media audiences, advertising, public relations, media effects, regulation, and media ethics.

There was a time when our communication models provided a useful graphical outline of a semester’s material. This is no longer the case. This paper presents the classic models that we use in teaching communication, including Shannon’s information theory model (the active model), a cybernetic model that includes feedback (the interactive model, an intermediary model (sometimes referred to as a gatekeeper model of the two-step flow), and the transactive model. Few textbooks cover all of these models together. Mass Communication texts typically segue from Shannon’s model to a two-step flow or gatekeeper model. Interpersonal texts typically present Shannon’s model as the “active” model of the communication process and then elaborate it with interactive (cybernetic) and transactive models. Here we will argue the value of update these models to better account for the way we teach these diverse subject matters, and present a unifying model of the communication process that will be described as an ecological model of the communication process. This model seeks to better represent the structure and key constituents of the communication process as we teach it today.

**Shannon’s Model of the Communication Process**

Shannon’s (1948) model of the communication process is, in important ways, the beginning of the modern field. It provided, for the first time, a general model of the communication process that could be treated as the common ground of such diverse disciplines as journalism, rhetoric, linguistics, and speech and hearing sciences. Part of its success is due to its structuralist reduction of communication to a set of basic constituents that not only explain how communication happens, but why communication sometimes fails. Good timing played a role as well. The world was barely thirty years into the age of mass radio, had arguably fought a world war in its wake, and an even more powerful, television, was about to assert itself. It was time to create the field of communication as a unified discipline, and Shannon’s model was as good an excuse as any. The model’s enduring value is readily evident in introductory textbooks. It remains one of the first things most students learn about communication when they take an introductory communication class. Indeed, it is one of only a handful of theoretical statements about the communication process that can be found in introductory textbooks in both mass communication and interpersonal communication.
Shannon’s model, as shown in Figure 1, breaks the process of communication down into eight discrete components:

1) An information **source**. Presumably a person who creates a message.

2) The **message**, which is both sent by the information source and received by the destination.

3) A **transmitter**. For Shannon’s immediate purpose a telephone instrument that captures an audio signal, converts it into an electronic signal, and amplifies it for transmission through the telephone network. Transmission is readily generalized within Shannon’s information theory to encompass a wide range of transmitters. The simplest transmission system, that associated with face-to-face communication, has at least two layers of transmission. The first, the mouth (sound) and body (gesture), create and modulate a signal. The second layer, which might also be described as a channel, is built of the air (sound) and light (gesture) that enable the transmission of those signals from one person to another. A television broadcast would obviously include many more layers, with the addition of cameras and microphones, editing and filtering systems, a national signal distribution network (often satellite), and a local radio wave broadcast antenna.

4) The **signal**, which flows through a channel. There may be multiple parallel signals, as is the case in face-to-face interaction where sound and gesture involve different signal systems that depend on different channels and modes of transmission. There may be multiple serial signals, with sound and/or gesture turned into electronic signals, radio waves, or words and pictures in a book.

5) A carrier or **channel**, which is represented by the small unlabeled box in the middle of the model. The most commonly used channels include air, light, electricity, radio waves, paper, and postal systems. Note that there may be multiple channels associated with the multiple layers of transmission, as described above.

6) **Noise**, in the form of secondary signals that obscure or confuse the signal carried. Given Shannon’s focus on telephone transmission, carriers, and reception, it should not be surprising that noise is restricted to noise that obscures or obliterates some portion of the signal within the channel. This is a fairly restrictive notion of noise, by current standards, and a somewhat misleading one. Today we have at least some media which are so noise free that compressed signals are constructed with an absolutely minimal amount information.
and little likelihood of signal loss. In the process, Shannon’s solution to noise, redundancy, has been largely replaced by a minimally redundant solution: error detection and correction. Today we use noise more as a metaphor for problems associated with effective listening.

7) A receiver. In Shannon’s conception, the receiving telephone instrument. In face to face communication a set of ears (sound) and eyes (gesture). In television, several layers of receiver, including an antenna and a television set.

8) A destination. Presumably a person who consumes and processes the message.

Like all models, this is a minimalist abstraction of the reality it attempts to reproduce. The reality of most communication systems is more complex. Most information sources (and destinations) act as both sources and destinations. Transmitters, receivers, signals, and even messages are often layered both serially and in parallel such that there are multiple signals transmitted and received, even when they are converged into a common signal stream and a common channel. Many other elaborations can be readily described. It remains, however, that Shannon’s model is a useful abstraction that identifies the most important components of communication and their general relationship to one another. That value is evident in its similarity to real world pictures of the designs of new communication systems, including Bell’s original sketches of the telephone, as seen in Figure 2.

**Figure 2:** Bell’s drawing of the workings of a telephone, from his original sketches (source: Bell Family Papers; Library of Congress; [http://memory.loc.gov/mss/mcc/004/0001.jpg](http://memory.loc.gov/mss/mcc/004/0001.jpg))

Bell’s sketch visibly contains an information source and destination, transmitters and receivers, a channel, a signal, and an implied message (the information source is talking). What is new, in Shannon’s model (aside from the concept of noise, which is only partially reproduced by Bell’s batteries), is a formal vocabulary that is now generally used in describing such designs, a vocabulary that sets up both Shannon’s mathematical theory of information and a large amount of subsequent communication theory. This correspondence between Bell’s sketch and Shannon’s model is rarely remarked (see Hopper, 1992 for one instance).
Shannon’s model isn’t really a model of communication, however. It is, instead, a model of the flow of information through a medium, and an incomplete and biased model that is far more applicable to the system it maps, a telephone or telegraph, than it is to most other media. It suggests, for instance, a “push” model in which sources of information can inflict it on destinations. In the real world of media, destinations are more typically self-selecting “consumers” of information who have the ability to select the messages they are most interested in, turn off messages that don’t interest them, focus on one message in preference to other in message rich environments, and can choose to simply not pay attention. Shannon’s model depicts transmission from a transmitter to a receiver as the primary activity of a medium. In the real world of media, messages are frequently stored for elongated periods of time and/or modified in some way before they are accessed by the “destination”. The model suggests that communication within a medium is frequently direct and unidirectional, but in the real world of media, communication is almost never unidirectional and is often indirect.

**Derivative Models of the Communication Process**

One of these shortcomings is addressed in Figure 2’s intermediary model of communication (sometimes referred to as the gatekeeper model or two-step flow (Katz, 1957)). This model, which is frequently depicted in introductory texts in mass communication, focuses on the important role that intermediaries often play in the communication process. Mass communication texts frequently specifically associate editors, who decide what stories will fit in a newspaper or news broadcast, with this intermediary or gatekeeper role. There are, however, many intermediary roles (Foulger, 2002a) associated with communication. Many of these intermediaries have the ability to decide what messages others see, the context in which they are seen, and when they see them. They often have the ability, moreover, to change messages or to prevent them from reaching an audience (destination). In extreme variations we refer to such gatekeepers as censors. Under the more normal conditions of mass media, in which publications choose some content in preference to other potential content based on an editorial policy, we refer to them as editors (most mass media), moderators (Internet discussion groups), reviewers (peer-reviewed publications), or aggregators (clipping services), among other titles. Delivery workers (a postal delivery worker, for instance) also act as intermediaries, and have the ability to act as gatekeepers, but are generally restricted from doing so as a matter of ethics and/or law.

![Gatekeeper Model](image)

*Figure 3: An Intermediary Model.*

Variations of Figure 3’s gatekeeper model are also used in teaching organizational communication, where gatekeepers, in the form of bridges and liaisons, have some ability to shape the organization through their selective sharing of information. These variations are generally more complex in depiction and often take the form of social network diagrams that depict the interaction relationships of dozens of people. They network diagrams often presume, or at least allow, bi-directional arrows such that they are more consistent with the notion that communication is most often bidirectional.
The bidirectionality of communication is commonly addressed in interpersonal communication text with two elaborations of Shannon’s model (which is often labeled as the action model of communication): the interactive model and the transactive model. The interactive model, a variant of which is shown in Figure 4, elaborates Shannon’s model with the cybernetic concept of feedback (Weiner, 1948, 1986), often (as is the case in Figure 4) without changing any other element of Shannon’s model. The key concept associated with this elaboration is that destinations provide feedback on the messages they receive such that the information sources can adapt their messages, in real time. This is an important elaboration, and as generally depicted, a radically oversimplified one. Feedback is a message (or a set of messages). The source of feedback is an information source. The consumer of feedback is a destination. Feedback is transmitted, received, and potentially disruptable via noise sources. None of this is visible in the typical depiction of the interactive model. This doesn’t diminish the importance of feedback or the usefulness of elaborating Shannon’s model to include it. People really do adapt their messages based on the feedback they receive. It is useful, however, to notice that the interactive model depicts feedback at a much higher level of abstraction than it does messages.

![Figure 4: An Interactive Model](image)

This difference in the level of abstraction is addressed in the transactional model of communication, a variant of which is shown in Figure 5. This model acknowledges neither creators nor consumers of messages, preferring to label the people associated with the model as communicators who both create and consume messages. The model presumes additional symmetries as well, with each participant creating messages that are received by the other communicator. This is, in many ways, an excellent model of the face-to-face interactive process which extends readily to any interactive medium that provides users with symmetrical interfaces for creation and consumption of messages, including notes, letters, C.B. Radio, electronic mail, and the radio. It is, however, a distinctly interpersonal model that implies an equality between communicators that often doesn’t exist, even in interpersonal contexts. The caller in most telephone conversations has the initial upper hand in setting the direction and tone of a telephone call than the receiver of the call (Hopper, 1992). In face-to-face head-complement interactions, the boss (head) has considerably more freedom (in terms of message choice, media choice, ability to frame meaning, ability to set the
rules of interaction) and power to allocate message bandwidth than does the employee (complement). The model certainly does not apply in mass media contexts.

Figure 5: A Transactional Model

The “masspersonal” (xxxxx, 199x) media of the Internet through this implied symmetry into even greater relief. Most Internet media grant everyone symmetrical creation and consumption interfaces. Anyone with Internet access can create a web site and participate as an equal partner in e-mail, instant messaging, chat rooms, computer conferences, collaborative composition sites, blogs, interactive games, MUDs, MOOs, and other media. It remains, however, that users have very different preferences in their message consumption and creation. Some people are very comfortable creating messages for others online. Others prefer to “lurk”; to freely browse the messages of others without adding anything of their own. Adding comments to a computer conference is rarely more difficult than sending an e-mail, but most Internet discussion groups have many more lurkers (consumers of messages that never post) than they have contributors (people who both create and consume messages). Oddly, the lurkers sometimes feel more integrated with the community than the contributors do (Baym, 2000).
A New Model of the Communication Process

Existing models of the communication process don’t provide a reasonable basis for understanding such effects. Indeed, there are many things that we routinely teach undergraduates in introductory communication courses that are missing from, or outright inconsistent with, these models. Consider that:

- we now routinely teach students that “receivers” of messages really “consume” messages. People usually have a rich menu of potential messages to choose from and they select the messages they want to hear in much the same way that diners select entrees from a restaurant menu. We teach students that most “noise” is generated within the listener, that we engage messages through “selective attention”, that one of the most important things we can do to improve our communication is to learn how to listen, that mass media audiences have choices, and that we need to be “literate” in our media choices, even in (and perhaps especially in) our choice of television messages. Yet all of these models suggest an “injection model” in which message reception is automatic.

- we spend a large portion of our introductory courses teaching students about language, including written, verbal, and non-verbal languages, yet language is all but ignored in these models (the use of the term in Figure 5 is not the usual practice in depictions of the transactive model).

- we spend large portions of our introductory courses teaching students about the importance of perception, attribution, and relationships to our interpretation of messages; of the importance of communication to the perceptions that others have of us, the perceptions we have of ourselves, and the creation and maintenance of the relationships we have with others. These models say nothing about the role of perception and relationship to the way we interpret messages or our willingness to consume messages from different people.

- we spend large portions of our introductory courses teaching students about the socially constructed aspects of languages, messages, and media use. Intercultural communication presumes both social construction and the presumption that people schooled in one set of conventions will almost certainly violate the expectations of people schooled in a different set of expectations. Discussions of the effects of media on culture presume that communication within the same medium may be very different in different cultures, but that the effects of the medium on various cultures will be more uniform. Existing general models provide little in the way of a platform from which these effects can be discussed.

- when we use these models in teaching courses in both interpersonal and mass communication; in teaching students about very different kinds of media. With the exception of the Shannon model, we tend to use these models selectively in describing those media, and without any strong indication of where the medium begins or ends; without any indication of how media interrelate with languages, messages, or the people who create and consume messages, without addressing the ways in which they are while these media describe, in a generalized way, media,

The ecological model of communication, shown in Figure 6, attempts to provide a platform on which these issues can be explored. It asserts that communication occurs in the intersection of four fundamental constructs: communication between people (creators and consumers) is mediated by messages which are created using language within media; consumed from media and interpreted using language. This model is, in
In many ways, a more detailed elaboration of Lasswell’s (1948) classic outline of the study of communication: “Who ... says what ... in which channel ... to whom ... with what effect”. In the ecological model, the “who” are the creators of messages, the “says what” are the messages, the “in which channel” is elaborated into languages (which are the content of channels) and media (which channels are a component of), the “to whom” are the consumers of messages, and the effects are found in various relationships between the primitives, including relationships, perspectives, attributions, interpretations, and the continuing evolution of languages and media.

**Figure 6: A Ecological Model of the Communication Process**

A number of relationships are described in this model:

1) Messages are created and consumed using language

2) Language occurs within the context of media

3) Messages are constructed and consumed within the context of media

4) The roles of consumer and creator are reflexive. People become creators when they reply or supply feedback to other people. Creators become consumers when they make use of feedback to adapt their messages to message consumers. People learn how to create messages through the act of consuming other peoples messages.

5) The roles of consumer and creator are introspective. Creators of messages create messages within the context of their perspectives of and relationships with anticipated consumers of messages. Creators optimize their messages to their target audiences. Consumers of messages interpret those messages within the context of their perspectives of, and relationships with, creators of messages. Consumers make attributions of meaning based on their opinion of the message creator. People form these perspectives and relationships as a function of their communication.

6) The messages creators of messages construct are necessarily imperfect representations of the meaning they imagine. Messages are created within the expressive limitations of the medium selected and the meaning representation space provided by the language used. The message created is almost always a partial and imperfect representation of what the creator would like to say.

7) A consumers interpretation of a messages necessarily attributes meaning imperfectly. Consumers interpret messages within the limits of the languages
used and the media those languages are used in. A consumer’s interpretation of a message may be very different than what the creator of a message imagined.

8) People learn language by through the experience of encountering language being used within media. The languages they learn will almost always be the languages when communicating with people who already know and use those languages. That communication always occurs within a medium that enables those languages.

9) People learn media by using media. The media they learn will necessarily be the media used by the people they communicate with.

10) People invent and evolve languages. While some behavior expressions (a baby’s cry) occur naturally and some aspects of language structure may mirror the ways in which the brain structures ideas, language does not occur naturally. People invent new language when there is no language that they can be socialized into. People evolve language when they need to communicate ideas that existing language is not sufficient to.

11) People invent and evolve media. While some of the modalities and channels associated with communication are naturally occurring, the media we use to communicate are not.

A medium of communication is, in short, the product of a set of complex interactions between its primary constituents: messages, people (acting as creators of messages, consumers of messages, and in other roles), languages, and media. Three of these constituents are themselves complex systems and the subject of entire fields of study, including psychology, sociology, anthropology (all three of which study people), linguistics (language), media ecology (media), and communication (messages, language, and media). Even messages can be regarded as complex entities, but its complexities can be described entirely within the scope of languages, media, and the people who use them. This ecological model of communication is, in its most fundamental reading, a compact theory of messages and the systems that enable them. Messages are the central feature of the model and the most fundamental product of the interaction of people, language, and media. But there are other products of the model that build up from that base of messages, including (in a rough ordering to increased complexity) observation, learning, interpretation, socialization, attribution, perspectives, and relationships.

Discussion: Positioning the study of media in the field of communication

It is in this layering of interdependent social construction that this model picks up its name. Our communication is not produced within any single system, but in the intersection of several interrelated systems, each of which is self-standing necessarily described by dedicated theories, but each of which is both the product of the others and, in its own limited way, an instance of the other. The medium is, as McLuhan famously observed, a message that is inherent to every message that is created in or consumed from a medium. The medium is, to the extent that we can select among media, also a language such that the message of the medium is not only inherent to a message, but often an element of its composition. In what may be the most extreme view enabled by the processing of messages within media, the medium may also be a person and consumes messages, recreates them, and makes the modified messages available for further consumption. A medium is really none of these things. It is fundamentally a system that enables the construction of messages using a set of languages such that they
can be consumed. But a medium is also both all of these things and the product of their interaction. People learn, create, and evolve media as a vehicle for enabling the creation and consumption of messages.

The same might be said of each of the constituents of this model. People can be, and often are, the medium (insofar as they act as messengers), the language (insofar as different people can be selected as messengers), or the message (one’s choice of messenger can be profoundly meaningful). Fundamentally a person is none of these things, but they can be used as any of these things and are the product of their experience of all of these things. Our experience of messages, languages, media, and through them, other people, is fundamental in shaping who we become and how we think of ourselves and others. We invent ourselves, and others work diligently to shape that invention, through our consumption of messages, the languages we master, and the media we use.

Language can be, and often are, the message (that is inherent to every message constructed with it), the medium (but only trivially), the person (both at the level of the “language instinct” that is inherent to people (following Pinker, xxxxx) and a socialized semiotic overlay on personal experience), and even “the language” (insofar as we have a choice of what language we use in constructing a given message). Fundamentally a language is none of these things, but it can be used as any of these things and is the product of our use of media to construct messages. We use language, within media, to construct messages, such as definitions and dictionaries) that construct language. We invent and evolve language as a product of our communication.

As for messages, they reiterate all of these constituents. Every message is a partial and incomplete precis of the language that it is constructed with, the medium it is created in and consumed from, and the person who created it. Every message we consume allows us to learn a little more about the language that we interpret with, the medium we create and consume messages in, and the person who created the message. Every message we create is an opportunity to change and extend the language we use, evolve the media we use, and influence the perspective that consumers of our messages have of us. Yet fundamentally, a message is simply a message, an attempt to communicate something we imagine such that another person can correctly interpret the message and thus imagine the same thing.

This welter of intersecting McLuhanesque/Burkean metaphors and interdependencies provides a second source of the models name. This model seeks, more than anything, to position language and media as the intermediate building blocks on which communication is built. The position of language as a building block of messages and and communication is well understood. Over a century of study in semantics, semiotics, and linguistics have produced systematic theories of message and language production which are well understood and generally accepted. The study of language is routinely incorporated into virtually all programs in the field of communication, including journalism, rhetoric and speech, film, theater, broadcast media, language arts, speech and hearing sciences telecommunications, and other variants, including departments of “language and social interaction”. The positioning of the study of media within the field of communication is considerably more tenuous. Many departments, including most of those named in this paragraph, focus almost entirely on only one or two media, effectively assuming the medium such that the focus of study can be constrained to the
art of message production and interpretation, with a heavy focus on the languages of
the medium and little real introspection about what it means to use that medium in
preference to another or the generalized ways in which all media are invented, learned,
evolved, socialized, selected or used meaningfully.

Such is, however, the primary subject matter of the newly emerging discipline of media
ecology, and this model can be seen as an attempt to position media ecology relative to
language and messages as a building block of our communication. This model was cre-
ated specifically to support theories of media and position them relative to the process
of communication. It is hoped that the reader finds value in that positioning.

**Conclusion: Theoretical and Pedagogical Value**

Models are a fundamental building block of theory. They are also a fundamental tool
of instruction. Shannon’s information theory model, Weiner’s Cybernetic model, and
Katz’ two step flow each allowed scholars to decompose the process of communica-
tion into discrete structural elements. Each provides the basis for considerable
bodies of communication theory and research. Each model also provides teachers with
a powerful pedagogical tool for teaching students to understand that communication is
a complex process in which many things can, and frequently do, go wrong; for teaching
students the ways in which they can perfect different skills at different points in the
communication process to become more effective communicators. But while Shannon’s
model has proved effective across the primary divides in the field of communication, the
other models Katz’ and Weiner’s models have not. Indeed, they in many ways exemplify
that divide and the differences in what is taught in courses oriented to interpersonal
communication and mass communication.

Weiner’s cybernetic model accentuates the interactive structure of communication.
Katz’ model accentuates its production structure. Students of interpersonal com-
munication are taught, through the use of the interactive/cybernetic and transactive
models that attending to the feedback of their audience is an important part of being
an effective communicator. Students of mass communication are taught, through the
intermediary/gatekeeper/two-step flow model, that controlled production processes
are an important part of being an effective communicator. The difference is a small
one and there is no denying that both attention to feedback and attention to detail are
critical skills of effective communicators, but mass media programs focus heavily on
the minutiae of production, interpersonal programs focus heavily on the minutiae of
attention to feedback. Despite the fact that both teach both message production the
languages used in message production, and the details of the small range of media that
each typically covers, they discuss different media, to some extent different languages,
and different approaches to message production. These differences, far more than more
obvious differences like audience size or technology, are the divides that separate the
study of interpersonal communication from mass communication.

The ecological model of communication presented here cannot, by itself, remediate
such differences, but it does reconstitute and extend these models in ways that make
it useful, both pedagogically and theoretically, across the normal disciplinary bound-
aries of the field of communication. The author has made good use of the model in
teaching a variety of courses within several communication disciplines, including on
interpersonal communication, mass media criticism, organizational communication,
communication ethics, communication in relationships and communities, and new communication technologies. In introductory Interpersonal Communication classes the model has shown considerable value in outlining and tying together such diverse topics as the social construction of the self, verbal and non-verbal languages, listening, relationship formation and development, miscommunication, perception, attribution, and the ways in which communication changes in different interpersonal media. In an Organizational Communication class the model has proved value in tying contemporary Organizational models, including network analysis models, satisficing, and Weick’s model to key organizational skills like effective presentation, listening, and matching the medium to the goal and the stakeholder. In a communication ethics class it has proved valuable in elaborating the range of participants in media who have ethical responsibilities and the scope of their responsibilities. In a mass media criticism class it has proved useful in showing how different critical methods relate to the process of communication and to each other. In each course the model has proved valuable, not only in giving students tools with which they can decompose communication, but which they can organize the course materials into a cohesive whole.

While the model was originally composed for pedagogical purposes, the primary value for the author has been theoretical. The field of communication encompasses a wide range of very different and often unintegrated theories and methods. Context-based gaps in the field like the one between mass media and interpersonal communication have been equated to those of “two sovereign nations,” with “different purposes, different boundaries”, “different methods”, and “different theoretical orientations” (Berger and Chaifee, 1988), causing at least some to doubt that the field can ever be united by a common theory of communication (Craig, 1999). The author repeatedly finds these gaps and boundaries problematic.

It may be that complex model of the communication process that bridges the theoretical orientations of interpersonal, organizational, and mass media perspectives can help to bridge this gap and provide something more than the kind of metamodel that Craig calls for. Defining media directly into the process of communication may help to provide the kind of substrate that would satisfy Cappella’s (1991) suggestion we can “remake the field by altering the organizational format”, replacing contexts with processes that operate within the scope of media. This perspective does exactly that. The result does not integrate all of communication theory, but it may provide a useful starting point on which a more integrated communication theory can be built. The construction of such theory is the author’s primary objective in forwarding this model for your comment and, hopefully, your response.
References

Reference list in progress.


Social Interaction

Schools are places where many social interactions occur. Some are between teachers and students. Others are between students and students. These interactions spill over into the community as well. Students and teachers both have social interactions within a community that includes parents, families, neighbours, friends, and acquaintances. Sometimes these interactions involve things going on at school.

When we talk about social interaction, we are usually thinking about the way in which people engage and react to each other. One person acts in response to another. Through social interaction, people and groups are able to work together to meet goals and overcome problems. These are positive social interactions.

Sometimes social interactions involve competition over goals or resources. This can be positive or it can be negative. Sometimes conflict occurs. When people are unable to manage conflict in positive ways, social interactions become negative.

Social interactions begin when people meet each other. They happen at home as well as in the world outside of the home. Sometimes social interactions are just by chance. For example, two people happen to meet in passing. Or sometimes social interactions are planned, such as when a teacher prepares for classes. The teacher decides the kinds of questions to ask students and to put them in groups to discuss the questions. The teacher is making a plan for social interaction. Whether social interactions are planned or unplanned, the people who interact influence each other in some way.

Types of social interaction

There are many ways to think about social interaction. One way is to think of types of social interaction, such as the ways people cooperate, the kinds of conflict they have and how they resolve their conflicts. People who study social interaction often identify many different kinds of interactions, but one way to think about interactions is to categorize them into five categories: cooperation, conflict, competition, assimilation, and accommodation.

Cooperation is a type of interaction where individuals or groups work together to accomplish a goal or task. Cooperation can be positive or negative. For example, members of a gang might engage in cooperative behaviour in order to rob an elderly man. This is negative cooperation, or cooperation towards a negative goal. Positive cooperation occurs when people work together towards democratic goals.

Conflict happens when people disagree with each other. Conflict can become violent if they cannot agree on how to resolve their differences or neither side will give up its claim on something they both want. Conflict does not have to be a bad thing, though. Conflict can be stimulating when people can agree to disagree. It challenges them to really think about their ideas.
Competition is an interaction where people want something that is in limited supply. It might be competition to win a game or a prize. Or it might be over something very serious, such as water or farmland. Competition may involve conflict when the ‘prize’ is of great worth or when only one side can enjoy the rewards of winning.

Accommodation happens when people adjust their behaviour and language in order to get along or to resolve a conflict. Sometimes an individual accommodates to the group and sometimes the group makes room for the individual.

Assimilation is the gradual process of taking on the language, values, and goals of another group. When you can no longer tell the difference between a new member and other members of a group, you can say that the new member has been assimilated. The habits, values, ways of speaking, ways of dressing, and the like of the group have become those of the new member.

Children and social interaction
Children spend a great deal of their time in school. This is a time to learn how to interact with others outside the family in positive ways. Most children have good and bad experiences with others at school. Sometimes they disagree with others, compete for friends, or feel left out. But there are usually more good interactions than bad. Teachers need to be aware of the kinds of social interactions that are happening among children. It is important for them to know families and be able to talk with parents and caregivers about children’s social interaction.

When children practise cooperation and appropriate conflict management at school, they are likely to have a better experience at school. They are also preparing for life outside school in the years beyond. When children do not know how to engage in positive social interaction, it can be destructive to the classroom environment and make it difficult for a teacher to build a classroom community. The quotation below is from a psychologist who has studied children’s experiences in school.

> When there is substantial negative behavior in a classroom, it affects everyone. When students are harmed by their peers, and no one does anything to stop it or to support the person who was harmed, it teaches everyone that this is an unkind world. It also interferes with learning. It is not always easy to know where to draw the line between playful if somewhat negative interactions, letting children deal with their own problems, or taking positive action (Staub, 2003).

Most teachers will encounter children who have limited ability to interact socially in their classrooms. Most teachers will find an occasional child who engages in negative social behaviour that disrupts learning and community building. When social interactions within the school and community are strong and positive, the teacher has many resources to draw on in helping children who need to learn appropriate ways to interact with each other and with adults around them.
References


E. Staub, ‘Many Students Are Happy, Others Bullied, Some Excluded, Active Bystandership Helps’, *Psychology Today* (published 29 April 2012)

The following resource is adapted from a working paper about peace education. The full paper can be downloaded at:

- http://www.spaceforpeace.net/pe.phtml

More resources for peace education to download and use are available on the same website, Space for Peace.

**What Is Peace Education?: Working Paper**

**Thoughts about peace**

Peace is a way of living together in which people give their fellow creatures the space and, if necessary, the mutual support to live their lives to the fullest.

This ‘space’ and these activities can and should happen on different levels:

- spiritual
- on the level of the psyche
- interpersonal
- social
- economical
- political.

Peace is a very wide concept indeed. It has to do with the deepest roots of our being human and with the world at large. To make this reality concrete within a definition is far from simple.

It can mean the absence of war, terror, violence – and the absence of oppression and discrimination by political or economic powers.

More actively formulated peace might be understood as respect for the right of every human being.

Peace can also refer to a viable ecological balance.

Peace is possible when people try to communicate beyond barriers and create mutual understanding.

We might also make a distinction between two kinds of peace: small peace and big peace.

- Small is the kind of peace between people as individuals.
- Big peace is the one between societies, civilizations, nations, and powers.

Peace is appealing and inspiring.

It is something that cannot ever be achieved fully – it is a permanent engagement.
What do we mean by ‘peace education’?

Trying to define ‘peace’ is in itself a form of peace education.

Peace education means to learn about and to learn for peace.

Learning about peace means obtaining knowledge and understanding of what contributes to peace, what damages it, what leads to war, what does ‘peace’ mean on each level anyway, what is my role in it, and how are the different levels connected.

Learning for peace means learning the skills, attitudes, and values that one needs in order to contribute to peace and help maintain it. For example, this means learning to deal with conflict without the recourse of violence, learning to think creatively, learning to apply the methods of active non-violence, or learning to deal with cultural differences in a constructive way.

Peace education focuses on creating mental changes or conditions. It should enable people to live together in a peaceful way, to resolve conflicts in a non-violent manner.
Language and Thought Processes

Language is more than just a means of communication. It influences our culture and even our thought processes. During the first four decades of the 20th century, language was viewed by American linguists and anthropologists as being more important than it actually is in shaping our perception of reality. This was mostly due to Edward Sapir and his student Benjamin Whorf who said that language predetermines what we see in the world around us. In other words, language acts like a polarizing lens on a camera in filtering reality—we see the real world only in the categories of our language.

Cross cultural comparisons of such things as color terms were used by Sapir and Whorf as evidence of this hypothesis. When we perceive color with our eyes, we are sensing that portion of electromagnetic radiation that is visible light. In fact, the spectrum of visible light is a continuum of light waves with frequencies that increase at a continuous rate from one end to the other. In other words, there are no distinct colors like red and green in nature. Our culture, through language, guides us in seeing the spectrum in terms of the arbitrarily established categories that we call colors. Different cultures may divide up the spectrum in different ways. This can be seen in the comparison of some English language colors with their counterparts in the Tiv language of Nigeria:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Tiv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>green</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blue</td>
<td>(high value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gray</td>
<td>pupu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gray</td>
<td>(low value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brown</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>red</td>
<td>nyian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yellow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: value refers to the lightness or darkness of a color. High value is light and low value is dark.
Sapir and Whorf interpreted these data as indicating that colors are not objective, naturally determined segments of reality. In other words, the colors we see are predetermined by what our culture prepares us to see. This example used to support the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis was objectively tested in the 1960’s. That research indicated that they went too far. All normal humans share similar sense perceptions of color despite differences in color terminology from one language to another. The physiology of our eyes is essentially the same. People all over the world can see subtle gradations of color and can comprehend other ways of dividing up the spectrum of visible light. However, as a society’s economy and technology increase in complexity, the number of color terms usually also increases. That is to say, the spectrum of visible light gets subdivided into more categories. As the environment changes, culture and language typically respond by creating new terminology to describe it.

NOTE: In 1976 Paul Kay, a University of California, Berkeley linguistics professor, led a team of researchers in collecting color terms used by 110 different languages around the world. Reexamining these data in 2006, Delwin Lindsey and Angela Brown of Ohio State University, Columbus discovered that most languages in this study do not make a distinction between green and blue. Further, the closer the homeland of a language group is to the equator the less likely they are to distinguish between green and blue. Lindsey suggests as a possible explanation that people in intensely sunny environments, such as open country near the equator, have had their ability to see color altered due to the yellowing of the eye lens caused by excessive ultraviolet radiation.

It is now clear that the terminology used by a culture primarily reflects that culture’s interests and concerns. For instance, Indians in Canada’s Northwest Territories typically have at least 13 terms for different types and conditions of snow, while most non-skiing native Southern Californians use only 2 terms—ice and snow. That does not mean that the English language only has 2 terms. Quite the contrary, there are many more English words that refer to different states of frozen water, such as blizzard, dusting, flurry, frost, hail, hardpack, powder, sleet, slush, and snowflake. The point is that these terms are rarely if ever used by people living in tropical or subtropical regions because they rarely encounter frozen water in any form other than ice cubes. The distinctions between different snow conditions are not relevant to everyday life and children may not even have the words explained to them. However, people in these warmer regions make fine distinctions about other phenomena that are important to them. For instance, coastal Southern Californians often have dozens of surfing related words that would likely be unknown to most Indians in the Northwest Territories or to people living in Britain for that matter.
The number of terms related to a particular topic also may be greater or smaller depending on such social factors as gender. For example, North American women generally make far more color distinctions than do men. This may be largely due to the fact that subtle color differences are important factors in women’s clothing and makeup. Parents and peers usually encourage and train girls early to be knowledgeable about these distinctions.

The cultural environment that people grow up in can have surprising effects on how they interpret the world around them. This became apparent during a Washington D.C. murder trial in 2002. A deaf man was convicted of stabbing to death two of his classmates at Gallaudet University. At his trial, the defendant said that he was told to do it by mysterious black-gloved hands. His delusions did not come in the form of spoken language. He was told to commit these brutal murders through sign language—his mode of communication. Another example is provided by Guugu Timithirr language speakers of the Cape York Peninsula in northeastern Australia. This group of Aborigines do not have words for left, right, front, or back. They use absolute rather than relative directions. When they refer to people or objects in their environment, they use compass directions. They would say “I am standing southwest of my sister” rather than “I am standing to the left of my sister.” Critics of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis would point out that the Aborigines who speak this language also usually learn English and can use left, right, front, and back just as we do. However, if they do not learn English during early childhood, they have difficulty in orienting themselves relatively and absolute orientation makes much more sense to them.
Ethnoscience

Anthropologists have found that learning about how people categorize things in their environment provides important insights into the interests, concerns, and values of their culture. Field workers involved in this type of research refer to it as ethnoscience. These ethnoscientists have made a useful distinction in regards to ways of describing categories of reality. Visitors to another society can bring their own culture’s categories and interpret everything in those terms. However, there will be little understanding of the minds of the people in the society being visited. In contrast, the visitors can suspend their own culture’s perspective and learn the categories of reality in the new society. By doing this, they gain a much more profound understanding of the other culture. Ethnoscientists define these two different approaches as being etic and emic. Etic categories involve a classification according to some external system of analysis brought in by the visitor. This is the approach of biology in using the Linnaean classification system to define new species. It assumes that ultimately, there is an objective reality and that is more important than cultural perceptions of it. In contrast, emic categories involve a classification according to the way in which members of a society classify their own world. It may tell us little about the objective reality but it is very insightful in understanding how other people perceive that reality through the filter of their language and culture.

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In 1932, the sociologist Willard Waller wrote what became a classic book for students of education, *The Sociology of Teaching*. In the book, he looked at schools as organizations, each with its own unique context and culture. He talked about the school as a system of social relationships. Teachers get caught up in these relationships and often do not realize how much they affect the school, students, and their ability to work in the school. Relationships are both interpersonal and professional. These include: teacher–pupil, teacher–parent, and teacher–other colleagues, among others. The way people view teachers, students, and schools influences their relationships within and outside school. How school people think about people, particularly children, who are different influences relationships within and outside school as well.

Waller also pointed out how school people often work against, rather than with, the communities that surround them. He argued that you cannot change schools without involving teachers; it is teachers who can ultimately bring about reform. Schools that do not welcome difference are unlikely to change unless teachers insist that all children are educated with respect and dignity.

Since Waller’s time, sociologists have continued to think about the school as a unique culture. The culture of the school surrounds and shapes teachers’ work. Teachers are influenced by the schools in which they work and schools are influenced by teachers. Schools are influenced by the communities in which they are located and communities are influenced by their schools.

Many years after Waller, the sociologist Seymore Sarason wrote *The Culture of the School and the Problem of Change* (1996). This too became a classic in education. Sarason began by talking about schools as miniature societies, asking how visitors from outer space could make sense of what they observed about a school and its community. Sarason wrote that a school will reflect the society around it, but it develops its own regular ways of doing things. Two schools in the same community will have their own culture reflecting the community, but also reflecting the relationships that go on within the school.

A school culture is the way that people relate to each other in the school. It is made up of the norms, values, procedures, assumptions, beliefs, traditions, and expectations of those within. It is easy to enter a school and get caught up in its culture without realizing what is happening. All the rituals and routines – such as how the day begins, the schedule for the whole school, how teachers are expected to use their time, how classrooms are arranged – all seem to be just the way things are. We seldom stop to consider how the culture has developed. Sarason argued that because our own
assumptions about education are implicit, we go on about our work as if things are the way they should be. Sarason (1996) noted that before one can begin to tackle the challenges within a particular school or think about how best to approach nationwide school reform, one must recognize that schools are, in fact, community settings. As such, schools have their own distinct cultures and characteristics – and these are often difficult for those not involved with the school to understand.

Nobody comes to school as a blank page. Teachers have had hundreds of hours of experience in classrooms from the time they were students. This prior experience has shaped their ideas about what teachers should do, how schools should be run, how children learn, whose ideas are valuable, who to include and exclude, and the role of parents. All this is coupled with impressions gathered from the mass media and classes on education. The same is true for students – that is, they come with ideas and opinions about what school is and should be.

If you think about the schools you know, you can begin to identify what Sarason called ‘behavioural regularities’ – that is the ways you can count on people to behave during the school day/week. Every school has them, but they are not always the same from school to school. Some behavioural regularities will reflect influences from the community around the school. Others are the result of what happens within the school. Often, these regularities have gone on for years in the same way with little change. Some contribute to positive outcomes and some to negative outcomes for teachers and for children.

School culture can be damaging to teachers and students who are perceived as ‘outsiders’. If the school is not welcoming of cultural diversity, those who do not fit in can have a miserable experience. Sometimes students of another race, tribal group, religion, or social class are made to feel inferior by teachers and students. This happens in hundreds of small ways as they are overlooked, excluded, or treated as a stereotype rather than a real person.

Schools that are concerned about educational and social equity attempt to create a school culture that promotes cultural diversity through multicultural education. Usually, multicultural education is seen broadly to include all forms of diversity, including diversity in race, class, gender, religion, intellectual, emotional, and physical ability.

According to Banks (2004), multicultural education has three major aims:

- to reform schools and other educational institutions so that students from diverse racial, ethnic, and social class groups will experience educational equity
- to give male and female students an equal chance to experience success and mobility
- to understand how the interaction of race, class, and gender influences education.
In order to promote multicultural aims, however, educators need to think about what supports school culture where exclusion is practised. Who benefits from the way things are within a community or within the school? How does exclusion or prejudice show up in the classroom, the school, or the community?

The school as an organization, its curriculum, the human interactions within the school – all of these can be thought about in terms of promoting or repressing cultural diversity. By becoming aware of the culture of a school and its community, teachers can begin to uncover ways to bring about change so that all students are treated fairly and justly.

References


Is Media Changing Society and Culture in Pakistan?

It doesn’t take a skilled researcher or a policy analyst to see that media is changing the way society functions in most of the world. Zaidi and Sharif say, ‘Digital media brings revolutionary changes which are silently practiced in our society. Digital media is a part of everyday life, and it [exerts] influence on us as a consumer’ (p. 2). Media influence is everywhere: television, mobile phones, radio, interactive computer games, the Internet, e-mail, social networks, YouTube – to name a few. It isn’t a question of if media is changing society and culture, but to what extent is media changing Pakistani society and culture.

Some people worry about the negative influence of media. They point to negative values of violence, consumerism, and exploitation that are apparent in modern films, television, and games. The fear is that the media will lead to erosion of values. They worry that people believe everything they see in the press or read online. The fear is that extremists will capitalize on misinformation and gain power. They are concerned that there is a great divide separating those who have access to digital media and those who don’t have access. The fear is that society will become more and more fragmented. Others talk about flexible work schedules as people are able to work from home and about the availability of information at our fingertips. They argue that one of the advantages of mass media today is that we can be aware of the needs of a world larger than the one immediately around us and we can see ourselves as part of a world community, caring for one another.

Zaidi and Sharif note that:

> Digital media has a connection all over the world it is a mass communication technique that entertains, informs and influences people. Emphasize [sic] on information or communication is also making the world more critical than ever before. It creates de-centralization in society. It also creates cultural diversity and communication gap among masses so there is a decline of public sphere as the lives are becoming individualized (p. 2).

Zaidi and Sharif go on to argue that media is changing Pakistani society in both negative and positive ways.

In addressing fears that media is changing society in negative ways, Khan (2010) points out that there is no empirical evidence for ‘[t]he impression that the media could solely and independently play a role in making society and the people [behave] in a certain way’. Of more importance is how the Pakistani government can and should support media policies that promote both responsible use and freedom of expression.
In a democratic country like Pakistan where freedom of speech and expression is guaranteed to every citizen by the Constitution. This fundamental right has to be exercised by all with due care to ensure that it may not incite violence, terrorism, racial, ethnic or religious discrimination, sectarianism, extremism, militancy, hatred, pornography, obscenity, vulgarity or anything offensive to the commonly accepted standards of decency. Similarly, the sanctity of national institutions needs to be respected at all costs (Khan, 2010).

Ideally, media can create a bond between the many ethnic groups within Pakistan, bringing them closer together and contributing to national cohesiveness. It can be a tool for reaching remote areas with needed services, including education.

References
A. Khan, Electronic Media in Pakistan (published in 2010)


Questions to think about

1) How has print media influenced you and your family?
2) In what ways do you make use of electronic media?
3) How might teachers use social media to strengthen school and community ties?
Culturally Responsive Pedagogy

The following quotations are from a practitioner brief by Richards, Brown, and Forde about diversity in classrooms. You might separate the statements and give one to small groups of students (i.e. six students). Organize a readers theatre to present the ideas (see ‘Methods and Strategies’ section in the Course Guide). Give students an opportunity to consider each reading and discuss how it relates to them personally. What are ways teachers might implement the ideas discussed?

You could also create a handout to use in class, asking students to work in small groups to read and discuss each statement. Ask them to think about examples from their own experience that illustrate the ideas expressed.

1) Because teachers’ values impact relationships with students and their families, teachers must reconcile negative feelings towards any cultural, language, or ethnic group. Often teachers are resistant to the notion that their values might reflect prejudices or even racism towards certain groups (p. 5).

2) It is important that teachers learn about the lives and experiences of other groups in order to understand how different historical experiences have shaped attitudes and perspectives of various groups. Further, by learning about other groups, teachers begin to see differences between their own values and those of other groups (p. 6).

3) By continuing a traditional “conform-or-fail” approach to instruction, teachers perpetuate a monocultural institution. By questioning traditional policies and practices, and by becoming culturally responsive in instruction, teachers work toward changing the institution (p. 8).

4) Teachers can be role models, demonstrating fairness and reminding students that difference is normal. Further, teachers need to monitor what types of behaviors and communication styles are rewarded and praised. Oftentimes these behaviors and ways of communicating are aligned with cultural practices. Care must be taken so as not to penalize a student’s behavior just because of a cultural difference (p. 9).

5) Teachers must encourage students to become active learners who regulate their own learning through reflection and evaluation. Students who are actively engaged in their learning ask questions rather than accept information uncritically (p. 10).

6) Although the curriculum may be dictated by the school system, teachers teach it. Where the curriculum falls short in addressing the needs of all students, teachers must provide a bridge; where the system reflects cultural and linguistic insensitivity, teachers must demonstrate understanding and support (p. 11).
Resources

