DOKinsight 2

Department of International Projects in Education
Zurich University of Teacher Education

Learning across Borders
in Teacher Education:

Experiences with the Swiss-North African Academic Network (SINAN) Project

Edited by
Samir Boulos and
Mònica Feixas

DOK insight 2

PHZH ZURICH UNIVERSITY OF TEACHER EDUCATION

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Foreword

Teacher education as a field is typically oriented towards a national context, yet teacher education programs have a duty to prepare future teachers for an engagement with global issues. The Swiss-North African Network (SINAN) was a cooperation project between teacher educators from Tunisia, Egypt, and Switzerland, designed to foster exchanges between their institutions. In the best of circumstances, participation in an international project is a double-edged sword: It can be an exciting eye-opener, deepening the understanding of other approaches and social realities in the given field – but it frequently comes on top of regular work responsibilities and demands openness and flexibility.

In the case of the SINAN project, this last aspect was particularly tested, as the outbreak of the Corona pandemic in February 2020 changed the nature of the network activities. The SINAN project managers and participants had to modify the activities, were forced to adapt to the drill of Zoom exchanges and webinars. But all persevered and the project was brought to a conclusion with a symposium in November 2021.

The contributions in this volume are one manifestation of the SINAN project. They address diverse questions, from a Tunisian-Swiss poetry slam contest and reflections on the role of creative writing, to how the involved countries address transcultural education. Less visible, but no less important, is the strengthening of this network of peers spanning Tunisia, Egypt, and Switzerland. Other initiatives and follow-up projects on specific subjects have already been developed from the group of SINAN participants. As an institution, the Zurich University of Teacher Education is dedicated to sustainability, so this is a highly positive outcome.

With global challenges mounting, it is high time for teacher education to build ties, sharpen awareness of the situation in the various countries and to use exchanges to improve the quality of teaching together. Bottom-up projects like SINAN, conceived by teacher educators for teacher educators and their students, can provide additional motivation for teacher educators. In that sense, SINAN will have made a lasting contribution to the internationalization of teacher education in Egypt, Tunisia, and Switzerland.

Corinne A. Pernet, Head of Department International Projects in Education (IPE), Zurich University of Teacher Education, Switzerland

Introduction

Samir Boulos
Department International Projects in Education (IPE),
Zurich University of Teacher Education
samir.boulos@phzh.ch

Mònica Feixas
Centre for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education
(ZHE), Zurich University of Teacher Education
monica.feixas@phzh.ch

▶ "One [lesson learnt] for me was:
stay flexible. Planning is not
everything. You fix a day, you fix
a plan and it comes differently.
And this was going on and on."

Clemens W. Pachlatko

1. Introduction

Early in the morning of March 7 2020, a group of Swiss participants and the project team of the Swiss-North African Academic Network (SINAN) waited at the gates at Zurich airport. They were excited as they embarked on a journey to Egypt to attend the third SINAN network meeting. It was a flight with a stopover in Vienna and the group was already making plans for dinner in Cairo. The project team had spent weeks preparing this network meeting together with the SINAN-coordinators in Egypt. The group also discussed the increasing number of Covid-19 patients, although the disease and its consequences for the group were still something which they were only just hearing about through the media.

The gate opened and the passengers started entering the plane. As the members of the SINAN group scanned their boarding pass, a red light flashed and they were stopped from entering the gate. What was wrong? The officer at the gate started to make phone calls and investigate why our group was not free to enter the plane. He then explained: "Just this morning, Egypt introduced a mandatory 10-day quarantine upon arrival for travellers coming from Switzerland".

How was this possible? Just two days before, the Egyptian Embassy in Bern stated that there were no travel restrictions for people coming from Switzerland. And the Swiss Embassy in Cairo as well as the Federal Office of Public Health confirmed this information was correct. But on that Saturday morning all public offices were closed and the official hotline had no information on the issue of quarantine. The SINAN group in Zurich debated the options and weighed up the risks. Thankfully the plane delayed take-off, giving us a few extra minutes to make our decision. What about our colleagues travelling from Geneva? Our colleague from Frankfurt was also about to embark on their flight to Cairo; no-one had any official information on the quarantine there either. If the Swiss group was not going to be able to travel, what should the Tunisian SINAN participants do?

Finally, the Swiss group decided not to take the risk of being quarantined in Egypt and went back to wait for their suitcases at the baggage claim. The Tunisian SINAN participants, however, travelled to Egypt and enjoyed two days of workshops together with the Egyptian colleagues. The Swiss SINAN participants met in Zurich for one day, had a dedicated exchange on the workshop topic and connected through videoconference with their

Egyptian and Tunisian colleagues in Cairo. Zoom was introduced by our Egyptian colleagues to us for the first time. Once in Cairo, the Tunisians were also alerted to the existence of some unsubstantiated messages regarding the closing of borders and quarantine obligations. The trip to Asyut was cancelled.

Although only a limited number of academics could take part in all the network meetings, the SINAN project aimed to create value for the universities participating. With the help of the academics joining in the project, the universities' awareness should be increased regarding current international discussions in teaching and learning in higher education and in teacher education. Furthermore, SINAN offered an opportunity for the professional development of participating academics, whose acquired knowledge can be passed on while acting as multipliers within their institution. Finally, as international corporations are considered an asset in academia, the universities participating in SINAN formalised their collaboration in an agreement with the Zurich University of Teacher Education.

2. Context and objectives of the SINAN project

'Staying flexible' has been an important virtue for participants as well as for the project team throughout the SINAN project. In many ways, SINAN has been a pioneer project and required open-mindedness, patience as well as the ability to adapt to circumstances and to improvise.

The foundations for the SINAN project were laid at the highest political level. In February 2016, Tunisian President Béji Caid Essebsi was on state visit to Switzerland. On that occasion, President Essebsi signed together with Johann N. Schneider-Ammann, the then president of the Swiss Federal Council, a declaration of intent on closer cooperation in the fields of professional education, research, and innovation (EAER, 18/02/2018). The government body promoting education and research in Switzerland is the State Secretariat for Education, Research and Innovation (SERI). One of the main aims of SERI is to encourage Swiss universities to take the lead or be part in international academic networks. In 2016, there was hardly any formalised academic cooperation between Swiss institutions of higher education and North African universities.

The Department of International Projects in Education (IPE) at the Zurich University of Teacher Education had already successfully implemented academic network projects supported by the SERI in Eastern Europe and in the Balkans. When IPE applied for funding for the "Learning Cultures in Universities – LECU" academic network project in 2016, the SERI accepted IPE's proposal. LECU is a project which brings together academics working in teacher training universities and educational experts from ministries in Albania, Kosovo, and Switzerland. The SERI furthermore asked IPE to implement an academic network project with North African universities, particularly with Tunisia, following the signed letter of intent between Tunisia and Switzerland. Egypt was chosen as the second country to participate in the academic exchange. In addition to being the largest Arab country, Egypt has traditionally played a very important cultural and political role in the region.

The "Swiss-North African Academic Network – SINAN" project was launched in 2017 with the support of the SERI and in cooperation with the Centre for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education at Zurich University of Teacher Education. The SINAN project pursues four main objectives:

- To establish and explore opportunities for academic cooperation between universities of Switzerland, Tunisia, and Egypt;

- To initiate and facilitate academic exchange among teacher training universities in the participating countries;

- To share teaching competences in the field of teacher education and exchange educational experiences as well as best practices and

- To promote transcultural learning and a deeper experience of international cooperation in education.

The SINAN project furthermore intended to create a sustainable network among academics and experts involved in teacher education. The established personal and institutional relationships should result in further collaborations. The cooperation should materialise in new national as well as international project in education and research, also after the SINAN project has concluded.

Although only a limited number of academics could take part in all the network meetings, the SINAN project aimed to create value for the universities participating. With the help of the academics joining in the project, the universities' awareness should be increased regarding current international discussions in teaching and learning in higher education and in teacher education. Furthermore, SINAN offered an opportunity for the professional development of participating academics, whose

acquired knowledge can be passed on while acting as multipliers within their institution. Finally, as international corporations are considered an asset in academia, the universities participating in SINAN formalised their collaboration in an agreement with the Zurich University of Teacher Education.

3. Establishing the Swiss–North African Network

SINAN was primarily aimed at lecturers and professors at teacher education institutions in Switzerland, Tunisia and Egypt. They work mainly as teachers in undergraduate education but also as professionals in other university services such as coordinators in professional development centres. Furthermore, the academic network was also open to experts from ministries of education. SINAN offered the opportunity for around eight academics or experts from each participating country to become part of the network.

As the Zurich University of Teacher Education had no contacts in Tunisian and Egyptian universities, the first two years of the project were dedicated to identifying potential partners and establishing the network. Obtaining information on the educational and teacher training system was crucial for this task. The SERI offered the SINAN project team the opportunity to join an official delegation visiting Tunisia. This delegation was composed of around ten academics, and the mission was headed by state secretary Mauro Dell'Ambrogio. The visits to various Tunisian universities and research institutions proved very fruitful for establishing valuable contacts for the SINAN project. A key person we met during this mission was Kawthar Ayed.

Kawthar Ayed was Director of the *Institut supérieur des études appliquées en humanités de Zaghouan* (ISEAHZ) until early 2021. The ISEAHZ is part of the University of Tunis and trains primary school teachers. Kawthar Ayed was convinced from the beginning of the importance of the SINAN project for Tunisian teacher trainers and education. Her support resulted in dedication and energy searching for Tunisian colleagues that were interested and suitable for this type of academic exchange. She managed to involve teacher educators from the *Institut supérieur des cadres de l'enfance* (part of the University of Carthage), from the *Institut supérieur de l'éducation et de la formation continue* (part of the Virtual University of Tunis) as well as an important official and expert from the Ministry of Education. These academics became active participants in the SINAN project along with further colleagues from the ISEAHZ, such as Amel Meziane. Kawthar Ayed and Amel Meziane acted as the Tuni-

sian coordinators for SINAN and organised the network meeting in Tunisia.

In the case of Egypt, the SINAN project team received initial potential contacts to professors at faculties of education through researchers who had published on the Egyptian educational system. The teacher educators from Asyut University, Alexandria University, the American University in Cairo and Ain Shams University, as well as a representative of the Ministry of Higher Education expressed a clear interest in cooperating with the SINAN project. It proved, however, to be an immense challenge to receive the approval of the Deans of the faculties of education and the universities' presidencies. Alexandria University was very involved in SINAN while the project team was still establishing the network and the university leadership also gave its formal approval to cooperation with the SINAN project. However, when the colleagues from Alexandria wanted to travel to the first SINAN network meeting in Zurich, they did not receive permission to leave. The reasons for the university's withdrawal from SINAN has never been clarified. The leadership of the Asyut University as well as the American University in Cairo have been supportive and interested in cooperation from the beginning. The SINAN project team would have hoped to include more Egyptian universities, however this was not possible. The final participating colleagues come from Asyut University and the American University in Cairo which were heavily involved in exchange within the network and actively contributed to its success. Zakaria Henawy from Asyut University and Mohammed Rizkallah from the American University of Cairo took on the role of SINAN project coordinators for Egypt.

In the case of Switzerland, it was important for the SINAN project team to have participants from teacher education universities of at least two different language regions, which fortunately was possible. The French-speaking part of Switzerland was represented through the participation of the *Haute Ecole Pédagogique BE-JUNE* (Berne, Jura, Neuchâtel) and the *Haute Ecole Pédagogique du canton de Vaud*. From the German speaking part, the University of Applied Sciences and Arts Northwestern (FHNW) and, of course, the Zurich University of Teacher Education formed part of the SINAN network. Moreover, a secondary school principal from Zurich joined as part of the Swiss team. It was no challenge to gain institutional approval for the participants to cooperate in the SINAN network. It was, however, more difficult to find Swiss teacher trainers who were able and willing to dedicate their (in most cases) free time to engage in an international network.

The SINAN group consisted of around 24 participants. Most of the participants contributed to the exchange

from the first network meeting in 2019 until the end of the project in 2021. Only a few participants were unable to remain active participants during the entire duration of the project. In these cases, the project coordinators found a colleague willing to take the vacant place of the leaving SINAN participant.

The requirements to become SINAN member and the expectations were as follows:

- Occupation in the field of higher education (e.g. faculty of education or teacher training university);

- Active involvement in teaching in teacher training or the professional development of teachers;

- Readiness to be actively engaged for the entire duration of the project;

- Readiness to participate in all meetings, take part in the organised activities and work on individual tasks between the meetings;

- Very good comprehension in English (oral and written) (ability to lead discussion in English was a strong plus);

- Readiness to act as multipliers and make findings from the network available to colleagues and

- Passive knowledge of French was a plus.

The participation of younger scholars was explicitly desired, as well as a balanced ratio of male to female participants. Both of these were possible.

4. The underlying pedagogical approach of the SINAN network

Our SINAN community was built around academics from universities of teacher education. The main goal of the network was to promote the exchange and reflection on current pedagogical theories and effective teaching practices for the further development of university teachers. The selected overarching topic was competency-based teaching and learning in higher education (Bachmann, 2018), including subtopics such as competency-based course planning, active learning methods or enhancing student participation. Due to its international setting, development of transcultural competences was also expected.

Given the extensive teaching experience of the selected academics and in order to achieve the goals, the network called upon the principles of experiential learning, reflective practice, learning through enquiry and collaborative learning:

1. **Experiential learning:** there is a popular saying: *"one can have ten years of experience or one year of experience ten times"*. Experience can be overrated. Thus, to avoid having the same kind of teaching experience repeated over time, individuals should learn and transform knowledge from the experience. Taking Kolb's experiential learning approach (1984) as a reference where learning is understood as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (41), the network pursued activities based on reflecting personal teaching and learning experiences and that of others.

2. **Reflective practice** is learning through and from experience towards gaining new insights of oneself and practice. The ultimate goal of reflection is to make teachers more aware of their own professional knowledge and action by "challenging assumptions of everyday practice and critically evaluating practitioners' own responses to practice situations" (Finlay, 2008). This has been achieved through the work of duos and trios, but also by the formulation of an individual reflection through the writing of their teaching philosophy (TP). A TP is *"a systematic and critical rationale that focuses on the important components defining effective teaching and learning in a particular discipline and/or institutional context"* (Schönwetter, *et al.*; 2002: 98).

   Teaching philosophies of university teachers, and those specially of faculties of education, are very powerful statements representing beliefs, values and practices that are well rooted in their own (past and present) personal, family and professional experiences as educators, coaches, counsellors, educational administrators, and parents, as well as in the theories which they firmly believe should guide their teaching practice. Given that all teachers have a teaching philosophy but that it has rarely been made explicit, in the network this exercise was proposed and discussed, reflecting not only personal beliefs about teaching and learning, but also disciplinary cultures, institutional structures and cultures, as well as expectations.

   An analysis of LECUs TPs (Feixas and Berzi, 2020) showed that teaching philosophies proved to be a useful roadmap through which teachers' socio-constructivists theories, as well as specific discipline-related theories, were didactically and critically re-

flected. In a teaching philosophy, students are at the forefront of the teaching experience and their learning needs are considered in the planning of courses, in devising the educational environment, promoting sound interactions and designing authentic assessments. Finally, reflecting about teaching philosophies was a way of making private theories more acceptable, since it allowed the identification of pedagogical strengths and weaknesses, which in the words of Brookfield (2015), leads to a healthy challenging of "espoused theories".

3. **Learning though enquiry:** as experienced academics, engaging in the systematic analysis of our teaching for the benefit of our students learning was key. The *scholarship of teaching and learning* (SoTL) is an invitation to look closely into pedagogical practice, and to engage deeply in an evidence-based analysis of how our students learn effectively. Academics in teacher education can become SoTL practitioners when they undertake a process of 'going-meta' – a kind of standing back from daily teaching and learning activity in order to deliberately frame and investigate what works – and what doesn't – in relation to deepening learning, improving teaching, and advancing practice (Huber and Hutchings, 2005; Paulson, 2002). This endeavour entails intellectual work and is not a soft option (Andresen, 2000), thus the same rigorous processes of research apply to scholarship: design, inquiry, collection of evidence, analysis, documentation, contribution to knowledge and critical review. The SoTL practitioner is at once both scholar of his or her discipline and a scholar of learning and teaching within that discipline. In our network, many duos and trios have followed this scheme.

4. **Collaborative learning:** the international context of the networks suggested a need for collaborative learning which provided the benefits of interacting and engaging in peer or group work with academics from different countries. Collaborative learning is defined as both a pedagogical method and a psychological process, and involves four elements (Huber and Hutchings, 2005):

a. a situation where participants need to work together. This requires symmetry – of action, knowledge and status, shared goals and a degree of horizontal division of labour;

b. interaction among participants. These involve interactivity – degree of influence of the peer's cognitive process, synchronicity – to scaffold mutual modelling – and negotiability which requires both grounding and a space for misunderstanding to allow for both meta-cognitive and task negotiation (opposed to hierarchical interactions, for instance);

c. processes that participants need to develop involving induction – to build a common representation that integrates all individual representations, watching for cognitive load – which can be lowered for group regulation for instance but can also lead to cognitive overload regarding content, and managing socio-cognitive conflict – discrepancy occurs regarding knowledge or conceptions and leads to conflicting positions towards the task; and

d. effects centred on the development of some generic ability to collaborate, for instance, or group performance.

All in all, we sought for the network to provide extensive opportunities to exchange among participants' teaching and learning experiences in person (including keynotes, workshops, group work and individual work and visits to university classrooms and primary and secondary schools) and online (with webinars and asynchronous activities). A big part of the experiential and collaborative learning took place during the three-day meetings in each country involved. The activities were organised in order to understand each country's system of teacher training at university level and to experience the actual preparation and challenges of teachers working in primary and secondary schools. A joint reflective activity took place at the end of each visit. The value of the sociocultural activities to get to know more about the memorable history, socioeconomic situation and numerous fascinating cultural settings reinforced the understanding of the current teaching and learning standards and how they conditioned the institutional and teaching contexts. Work was also conducted at a distance according to an agreed upon scenario, boosting individual reflexion, national peer teaching exchanges and trio international scientific reflection.

5. Results: Network meetings, work in trios and publications

The SINAN project has produced results at different levels. While some of the impacts are tangible at an individual level, others are visible to the public. We will focus here on the four major results of the exchange in SINAN that were relevant for the whole group of participants. These four results were:

- The handbook "Competency-based Teaching and Learning in Higher Education – Essentials" that has been translated into Arabic and is available as an open access publication on the repository Zenodo[1].

- Three network meetings, each taking place in a different country of the SINAN network.

- This edited volume with the SINAN participants' contributions. This book is the result of a collaborative work by national duos and international trios.

- A concluding symposium during the final stage of the SINAN project, bringing together the participants in SINAN with the participants in the "Learning Cultures in Universities – LECU" project.

Each of these results will be presented and briefly discussed in the following section:

The "Competency-based Teaching and Learning in Higher Education – Essentials" handbook was written by colleagues from the Centre for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education at the Zurich University of Teacher Education. The book's editor and author of some of its chapters was Heinz Bachmann, who was part of the SINAN project team until his retirement at the end of 2019. The handbook concentrates on the question: what is the essence of good teaching and learning in contemporary higher education? It offers a selection of basic topics relevant for effective teaching and learning, with chapters about formulating learning outcomes, strategies for content reduction, competence-based assessment and active learning methods. Overall, the book provides teaching strategies to optimise student learning. As part of the SINAN project, this handbook was translated into Arabic and it has provided the theoretical foundation for the discussion of competence-based teaching in higher education, and particularly in teacher training.

A core element of the SINAN project is the network meetings. A total of three face-to-face network meetings, each in a different country, have taken place. All the participants came to these meetings that usually lasted three to four days. SINAN followed a cyclical scheme alternating network meetings and individual working periods. The face-to-face network meetings usually had a comparable structure. Crucial elements of these meetings were presentations on the educational and teacher training system of the country hosting the meeting, visits to classes at teacher training universities and schools, reflections on the observations gained through the classroom visits, inputs on teaching and learning methods by the project team or external experts, plenary discussions on teaching practices as well as sharing of experiences. Furthermore, the so-called trios had time to work in groups on the topic of their choice. A trio typically consisted of a participant from Tunisia, Switzerland, and Egypt. These trios played a crucial role for the international exchange in SINAN. Finally, cultural, and social events such as a city tours, visits of historic sites or museums as well as dinners as whole group were also important elements of the SINAN network meetings, contributing crucially to the informal exchange.

The periods between the face-to-face meetings were dedicated to individual work. The participants combined the tasks involved with the SINAN project with the teaching activities at their university. Reflection on their own teaching was an important task during these periods. The participants wrote, for example, a teaching philosophy and hence a reflection on their own teaching ideals and values. Excerpts of these teaching philosophies can be found between the chapters of this book. The reflection on teaching was not only done individually, but also together with a colleague from the same institution, in the so-called duos. Many of these duos focused their exchange on an aspect relevant to their institution or to their teaching. A few duos decided to publish the results of their work in this volume; other duos preferred to present the outcome of their reflections at the concluding LECU-SINAN symposium.

The individual working periods were also crucial for the collaboration between the institutional duos and the international trios. A major part of their work took place in the time between the meetings. The duos and trios were formed during the first network meeting in Zurich, with SINAN participants matching with their trio-partners through topics of common interest. They then agreed on one topic to have an in-depth exchange over the course of the entire project. During the second meeting in Tunis, the duos and trios were finally consolidated. Although the word 'trio' implies three people, there were also some groups with only two academics. One of the

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1   Bachmann, H., *et al.* (2019).
اساسيات التدريس والتعلم القائم على الكفاءة في التعليم العالي
[Competency-based Teaching and Learning in Higher Education – Essentials]. Bern: hep. Retrieved from: https://zenodo.org/record/3546042#.YUehSrgzY2w.

First network meeting
in Switzerland March 2019

Individual working period

Second network meeting
in Tunisia November 2019

Individual working period

Third network meeting
in Egypt March 2020

Individual working period

Concluding symposium
in Zurich November 2021

Figure 1: Cycle of meetings and individual working

reasons for these bi-national groups was the fact that there were less participants from Egypt than from Tunisia and Switzerland. Duos chose to analyse a topic relevant for the institutions for two participants in the same country. Trios, on the other hand, chose to conduct a comparative study on a relevant aspect of teacher education. Other trios, such as the group on creative writing in pre-service teacher training, focused on developing and reflecting a joined teaching project. The results of some duos and the trio exchanges are published in this edited volume.

Even before the first SINAN network meetings, the project team met with the Tunisian and Egyptian coordinators in December 2018. Together, we discussed the structure of the upcoming SINAN network meetings as well as possible topics of interest. The topic of the first SINAN network meeting was "Introduction to SINAN: Educational Systems and Teacher Education". The meeting took place at the Zurich University of Teacher Education in March 2019. In addition to providing an introduction to SINAN, the participants had the opportunity to get to know each other and form international trios.

Further important components of the meeting had been presentations on the major reform of the Swiss school curriculum "Lehrplan21", on competency orientation as well as on the educational system of all the three countries involved. The participants visited modules at Zurich University of Teacher Education as well as classes at the primary school Sihlfeld or the secondary School Aemtler B in Zurich. These visits were followed by lively debriefing discussions. After the official closure of the meeting, many SINAN participants gathered for a leisure trip to the Rhine Falls, Europe's most powerful waterfall.

The Tunisian colleagues hosted the second SINAN network meeting in November 2021. At the first meeting in Zurich, the participants decided to discuss on the second meeting the topic "Reflective Analysis and Construction of the Professional Identity of the Teacher: Towards a Change of Attitudes". The first two days took place at the *Institut Supérieur des études Appliquées en Humanités de Zaghouan* (ISEAHZ). The SINAN participants had to opportunity to visit classes at ISEAHZ. For the school visits, three group were formed and each group visited a different primary school in Zaghouan and its surroundings. This provided the SINAN group with material to discuss observations from classes in rural and in more urban areas, and hence get a wider impression of the school reality in Tunisia. Presentations and discussions revolved around the topic of professional identities of teachers and the role of reflective practice, and the topic learning outcomes. The third day of the meeting took place in the picturesque facilities of the *Centre de Formation des Formateurs en Education* (CENAFFE) in Carthage. This day was dedicated to the work in trios and the discussion of their ideas in plenum. Furthermore, in the later afternoon of this concluding day, the SINAN group had the opportunity to explore the ruins of ancient Carthage, visit the Punic port as well as the beautiful town of Sidi Bou Said.

As mentioned in the introductory sections of this chapter, the third meeting in Egypt in March 2020 took place as a hybrid event due to the Covid pandemic. The SINAN participants chose to have an exchange on the topic "How do we integrate the voices of the students? Experiences from teaching, curriculum and evaluation of lecturers". The meeting was planned over four days, the first two days at the American University in Cairo and then two days at Asyut University. Due to the development of the Covid situation, the Tunisian colleagues had to leave Egypt earlier than planned and were not able to travel to Asyut. Still, the participants that were able to meet in Cairo had an in-depth exchange about the Egyptian educational system, current developments in teacher training and the role of student participations. They also had the opportunity to visit classes at the

graduate school of education of the American University in Cairo. The Swiss participants were not able to join the colleagues in Egypt and gathered for a meeting in Zurich. In addition, teacher educators from Ain Shams University and Alexandria University joined the group in Cairo for the network meeting. They had been interested in the project from the beginning, but were only able to join the network as members at a later date.

After the outbreak of the Covid pandemic, online network meetings for both SINAN and LECU participants were organised in autumn 2020 and spring 2021 to continue the exchange in smaller groups. As part of this, Mònica Feixas from the project team of both networks gave a webinar in October 2020. The topic interactive was "The challenging landscape of assessment: experiences with online assessment in higher education". Also in the spring semester, Farouk Bahri, a Tunisian SINAN participant, offered an online workshop to LECU and SINAN participants dedicated to the topic of "Learning through playing: Integrating online gamification into teaching".

The SINAN and LECU projects were concluded through a joint symposium which took place at the Zurich University of Teacher Education at the beginning of November 2021. Teacher trainers and educational experts from Tunisia, Albania, Egypt, Kosovo and Switzerland attended to this public event entitled "Across Borders: Transcultural Experiences and Pedagogic Insights in Teacher Education". The objective was twofold: on the one hand, the symposium was meant to be a festive conclusion to the two academic network projects, providing the participants with the opportunity to discuss major insights learnt from their participation in the network, and consider ideas on how to continue international exchange after the end of the two projects. On the other hand, the symposium also aimed to establish exchange between academics from the SINAN project with colleagues from the LECU network. This involved the organisation of workshops in groups with trios from LECU and SINAN, and the duos had the opportunity to demonstrate their findings in a poster presentation. The symposium was rounded off by a keynote address from Professor Abdeljalil Akkari of the University of Geneva on international mobility in teacher education.

This edited volume is also a major result that the SINAN group has achieved through the academic exchange described above. The majority of the contributions are written in English, but some are also in French. Having this edited volume in more than one language reflects the multilingual reality of the SINAN project. While the official language of the meetings and communication was English, at least four languages (Arabic, English, French, German) were spoken at the meetings. All SI-NAN participants had a good passive knowledge of English, but some colleagues preferred to contribute to the discussion in French or Arabic. Neither French nor Arabic was understood by all participants. Therefore, we worked with interpreters in each meeting. Often SINAN participants stepped in to provide interpretation, especially when an accurate terminology was important.

It is worth mentioning that some of the trios also cooperated in three languages. This was, for example, the case for the trio working on the topic of life skills in the academic training programs for preschool educators. Rym Laribi is fluent in French and Arabic, Adel El-Nagdy speaks Arabic and Judith Egloff knows English and French. Not only were they able to understand each other, but they even had productive exchange on this extremely important topic for teacher education and wrote an article together. This achievement not only shows how dedicated the participants were to the SINAN project, but it is also evidence of their creativity to find ways to understand each other and, of course, of their flexibility.

6.   The content of the edited book

The book is divided into three parts. Part I is devoted to the description of the educational systems and teacher training systems of the three participant countries. It continues with the presentation of three extraordinary and research-relevant duos (Part II) and trio projects (Part III). They address various topics including the analysis of institutional policies, comparison of different types of competences in different teacher education curricula, exploring didactical strategies to support intercultural education, peer coaching or the reception of novice teachers and the teaching of maths didactics with dramaturgical methods. The final chapter (Part IV) provides an insight into the community values created as a result of SINAN and LECU networks.

The first three chapters introduce the structure of the educational systems of Switzerland, Tunisia and Egypt, including all stages of mandatory schooling and post-secondary education until higher education. They also describe the system of primary and secondary school teacher initial training in tertiary and higher education, as well as the continuous professional development and its challenges. Thank you to Sara Benini for the Swiss presentation, Kawthar Ayed and Rym Laribi for the Tunisian and Adel Rasmy El-Nagdy and Zakaria Gaber Henawy for the Egyptian chapter.

Part II starts with the duo *"From institutional policies to teaching practices: Analysis of a curricular design to promote research in education"* from Francesco Arcidiacono

and Josianne Veillette which focus on the relationship between the institutional policies at the University of Teacher Education BEJUNE and the current teaching practices in the field of research education for pre-service teachers. They look at the principles of the foundational Charter of the University and the extent to which they can be implemented to develop meaningful curricular designs. They analyse these principles in the context of research education and address the appropriateness of the Charter and its role in the current teaching methods at their institution. A final reflection entails a discussion on the process of adaptation in sustaining a research culture.

Marie Jacobs and Paola Ricciardi Joos are based in the Swiss Romandy (the French-speaking region of Switzerland) also contributed with a duo project: *"Mise en œuvre d'une directive institutionnelle sur les évaluations certificatives à la HEP Vaud (Suisse) : quelle appropriation par les acteurs concernés ?"* ("Implementation of an institutional directive on assessment at the HEP Vaud (Switzerland): What appropriation from the actors' perspective?"). They examine the university's policy dealing with student evaluations, by first analysing the different articles addressing procedures (requirements and criteria for certification), the role of the actors (teachers, students) and university services in the preparatory work for assessment certification; the role of teachers and the academic service in determining and processing results; fraud and plagiarism; and the period of students' grade consultation. Second, they conduct an empirical study aiming to find out how the different actors involved (students, teachers and responsible teaching and research units) perceive the directive with regard to: its coherence with a student-centred approach to teaching, the degree of compassion and the subjective interpretation in assessment, the period and time of consultation and the type of feedback received. Results show a rich diversity of viewpoints with potential to suggest a revision of the policy.

A duo project based in Tunisia examines the relationship between teaching practices and emotions. Rym Laribi and Abdelmajid Naceur's French article *"Pratiques enseignantes et Emotivité. Une étude exploratoire auprès des futurs enseignants"* ("Teaching Practices and Emotionality. An exploratory study with future teachers") examines the role of emotions in the understanding of different cognitive processes, that is motivation and decision-making. More concretely, they try to understand the dimension of teacher emotionality in relation to the conception of teaching practice. They analyse emotional behaviour, i.e. the motivational dimension and the emotional commitment, through their EML (Emotional and Motivational Learning) model. The model allows them to study the contextualised decision-making behaviour in

students in relation to their emotional and motivational engagement. The study contributes to a better understanding of the decision-making processes, and in concrete how teachers adopt decisions on the basis of their emotional commitment.

The trios in Part III start with a Swiss-Tunisian work between Erik Altorfer and Amel Meziane *"'The Sea Between Us'. A report on the teaching of creative writing to pre-service teachers in Tunisia and Switzerland"* investigates the effect of a series of creative writing sessions on a sample population comprising Tunisian and Swiss pre-service teachers. Creative writing workshops have been organised in both countries, along with a slam poetry competition. The winning texts, written by Tunisian and Swiss students and lecturers, are published in a booklet available online [2]. As Erik and Amel put it, the collected corpus of reflective accounts sheds lights on the importance of creative writing in building up human personalities, blocking negative affective factors and developing future teachers' competences. The article also addresses the challenges of incorporating a creative writing course into a teacher education programme.

Katrin Tovote, Francesco Arcidiacono and Nadia Lahiani present a trio project named: *"Supporting novice teachers at career entry: a cross-cultural and systemic analysis"*. The goal of the study is to analyse the professional development of novice primary and secondary teachers from a cross-cultural perspective. For this purpose, the authors identify similarities and differences between the strategies used to support novice teachers when they start working as teachers in Tunisia or in the French or German speaking part of Switzerland. Three case studies were conducted to find out the postures that novice teachers adopt during the first two years of teaching in order to cope with the difficulties related to the beginning of their career. The findings contribute to understanding how professional experiences are subjectively and collectively co-constructed and rely on various factors that evolve in a lifelong learning perspective.

"How can constructive teamwork be established? Experiences and reflections from peer coaching interventions on an international level" is the title of Dagmar Engfer, Farouk Bahri, and Clemens W. Pachlatko's work. In this article, three different approaches to peer coaching are described and analysed. They carry out three different peer coaching interventions and analyse the method, tool and the extent to which the group work is constructive and self-guided. They use a questionnaire to draw

2   Altorfer, E. & Meziane, A. (Eds.) (2021). The Sea Between Us. Pädagogische Hochschule Zürich, Schreibzentrum. Retrieved from: https://tiny.phzh.ch/the-sea-between-us

information from the participants. Important results are drawn from the study. First, the results reinforce the need to keep a structure in the discussions on practised approaches. Secondly – and equally relevant – the authors bring in individual self-reflection on the teamwork within the trio group and analyse the challenges that they had as a group. Their reflection can also represent the challenges other trio groups had as well as the additional burden placed by Covid-19 on group work. Conclusions are useful to all: they remind us of the importance of establishing a trusting and confidence-based relationship as a basis for collaborative work, the need to clarify expectations on the collaboration in the beginning and during a project and the relevance an open and clear communication to avoid misunderstandings.

Another chapter analysing official university documents, in this case at a Swiss and an Egyptian higher education institution, is the one by Mohammed W. Rizkallah and Paola Ricciardi Joos. In their project: *"Are university teachers' teaching competencies visible? Analysing institutional documents in Haute école pédagogique (HEP) Vaud and American University in Cairo (AUC)"*, they aim to discover if their respective universities have a visible teaching competence profile. The study seeks to outline the institutions' frameworks for teaching and learning by examining and comparing the institutional values, job requirements and institutional objectives. Before the analysis, an interesting review of competency models is made. The analysis is finally discussed against a "teaching competence model for teachers of higher education" (Bachmann, 2019) to understand the extent to which the university documents integrate elements of a competence model. In their concluding remarks, they argue that some elements are visible within the requirements and expectations of faculty members. Another innovative project between Switzerland, Tunisia and Egypt has as focus the teaching of mathematical didactics with methods used in drama education. Zakaria G. Henawy, Selina Pfenniger and Andira Radi's work *"Theatre in mathematics education"* exemplify an interesting and creative collaboration between the didactics of mathematics and theatre education. They present two subprojects based on a common understanding of good mathematics teaching. In the first subproject, the teachers of maths didactics ask to rework exemplary tangible moments of mathematics in accordance with the concept of *Lehrkunst* or the art of teaching as dramaturgy. The second subproject brings in a pedagogical theatre perspective: the drama teacher gives an insight into the work with teacher trainers in preschool education and brings mathematics onto the stage in a personalised way where the learners are encouraged to engage in a linguistic exchange to stimulate their communicative and argumentative skills in mathematics. Written originally in English, Arabic, French and German, the article is a clear example of the linguistic complexity in the conception and writing of this project.

The international duo Kawthar Ayed and Olivia Franz-Klauser compare how cultural diversity is addressed in two very different countries: *"Diversity and intercultural education in Tunisia and Switzerland – a comparative study"*. They reflect upon the concept and emergence of diversity and trace its influence on the school system. To understand how diversity is approached in schools, they first provide an insightful historical and sociocultural foundation about what cultural diversity in both countries looks like. They then present how intercultural education is introduced to schools and finally they explore the educational strategies schools use to further promote intercultural competences. Aspects of language support, promotion of equal opportunities or facilitating and teaching religious diversity are reflected. Some concrete examples from both countries show that implementing widely accepted goals is not always easy, despite legal frameworks and coordinated learning plans.

Rym Laribi, Adel Rasmi Hamed Al-Nagdy, and Judith Egloff examine *"The presence of life skills in the preschool education curriculum: an analysis of academic training programs in Egypt, Tunisia and Switzerland"*. Their project examines the concept and types of life skills identified by international organisations such as the World Health Organization and in relevant literature. The paper presents a very rigorous and systematic analysis that allows us to identify the most important life skills in the content of early childhood education curricula in Egypt, Tunisia and Switzerland. Results show the presence of cognitive, social and emotional skills, with a clear preponderance of the first one, followed by the second, and to a much lesser extent the last one. Complementary, they can determine discrepancies in the inclusion of life skills in the relevant programmes.

The final article *"From Asyut, over Shkodra to Zug: Creating values by connecting teacher trainers in international academic networks"* presents a research study conducted by Samir Boulos, Barbara Class, Mònica Feixas and Sandra Lang on the value created in communities of practice, concretely in LECU and SINAN international networks. Following Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner (2020) and based on qualitative data produced in the three online focus groups and in the debriefings after the school and university classroom visits, the authors identify which activities in the networks provided immediate value, potential value, realised value or strategic value.

Finally yet importantly, you can read between the chapters personal testimonies by some of the authors. They

express in a condensed way some of their core believes about education in general and meaningful teaching and learning in teacher education in particular. These testimonies reflect their practices and values blended by their disciplines and personal experiences. The subjectivity expressed in the excerpts of the teaching philosophies enriches and complements the scholarly contribution of the chapters.

Not acknowledging in the volume of hours, resources and immense patience to overcome the challenges to write alongside international partners in the context of this network would be incredibly unfair. We are immensely grateful for persisting and providing such qualitative contributions. These excellent projects show not only a great commitment of the authors toward fulfilling the outcomes of the network, but also make a great contribution to advance the scholarship of teaching and learning in higher education. Thank you all for your invaluable help, we hope you enjoy the reading!

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Part I:
Educational and Teacher Training Systems

1   Overview of the Swiss educational and teacher training system

Sara Benini
Department of Teaching and Learning,
University of Applied Sciences and Arts of Southern
Switzerland (SUPSI), Locarno, Switzerland
sara.benini@supsi.ch

1.   One country – different systems

In Switzerland, which is a federal country, managing the education system is the responsibility of each individual canton. There are a total of 26 cantons and 2'202 municipalities (Swiss Confederation, 2021). However, the Confederation is co-responsible for the post-compulsory education sector: particularly for vocational education and training (VET) and higher education. The municipalities assume various tasks such as the organisation and management of the schools, especially in the case of compulsory education. There is also a Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK), which has the ultimate task of ensuring a certain degree of coordination through legally binding intercantonal agreements. Attendance at public school in Switzerland is free of charge up to and including upper secondary education (ISCED3) [3].

In 2009, the Intercantonal Agreement on Harmonisation of Compulsory Education (HarmoS Agreement) entered into force with the aim of further harmonising compulsory school education while maintaining cantonal sovereignty over the school system. Each Swiss pupil is now taught in the same disciplines during their compulsory schooling. The HarmoS Agreement defines the disciplines that are part of basic education at national level for the first time. These disciplines are: languages (school language, a second national language and another foreign language – usually English), mathematics and natural sciences, humanities and social sciences, music, art and design, and physical education. Countrywide educational standards have been set in order to harmonise teaching objectives at a national level. These describe the basic skills that pupils must possess in certain subjects (school language, second languages, mathematics and natural sciences) and at certain times of compulsory schooling (EDK, 2007). In order to implement this harmonisation, new curricula have been developed for the three language regions and, since 2011, the EDK has specified regular monitoring of the defined minimum skills. The French-speaking cantons introduced their curriculum from the 2011/2012 school year onwards. In the (Italian-speaking) canton of Ticino, the new curriculum was introduced in 2015/2016, and in the German-speaking cantons it was rolled out in 2017/2018.

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3   ISCED stands for "International Standard Classification of Education".
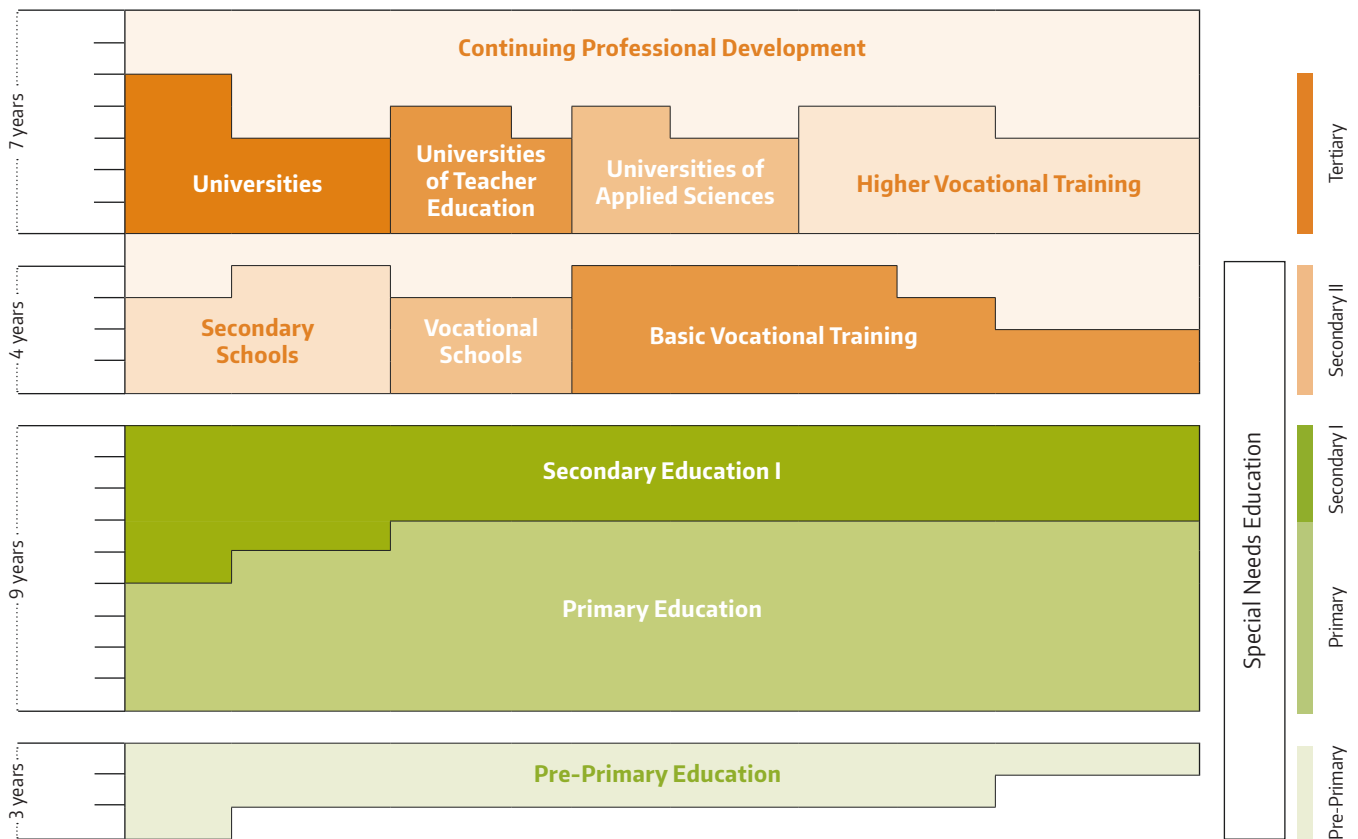
Figure 1: Schematic overview of the Swiss educational system (Zurich University of Teacher Education, 2018).

2.   Compulsory education

Pupils attend compulsory school in their local area; families are generally not free to choose which school they can send their children to. Compulsory education consists of pre-primary (ISCED 02), primary (ISCED 1) and lower secondary education (ISCED 2), and lasts 11 years. Pupils enter school (pre-primary) at the age of 4, where they stay for two years. In addition to the two compulsory years of kindergarten, the canton of Ticino offers an initial, optional year for children from age 3 onwards. Primary school lasts five or six years (depending on the canton), after which pupils enter lower secondary education (which lasts three or four years). Lower secondary education (ISCED 2) is organised differently depending on the canton in question: in most cantons, secondary education is structured according to separate ability tracks (two or three tracks). In a small number of cantons (e.g. Jura, Neuchâtel, Ticino and Valais), however, lower secondary school is characterised by heterogeneous classes for many – or most – disciplines, with division of classes into ability groups for only a few subjects (e.g. mathematics, language 1 or 2, sciences).

3.   Upper secondary education

At the end of compulsory schooling, pupils must choose what kind of upper secondary training (ISCED 34 and 35) they wish to undertake. Students can choose between basic vocational training (dual or full-time) and general training schools (baccalaureate schools, specialised schools). In the case of dual vocational training (apprenticeships), students work 3 to 4 days a week in a company and go to school for the other 1 or 2 days. Upon completion of their vocational training, the student receives a certificate of proficiency (Federal VET Diploma) in a specific field (Swiss Education, 26.07.2021). During (or after) vocational training, young people can also choose to complete the Federal Vocational Baccalaureate (FVB). The FVB gives them the opportunity to study at a university of applied sciences or a university of teacher education. The majority of young people choose vocational training after lower secondary school. Countrywide, at the end of the school year 2017/2018, 25.7% of the pupils chose a baccalaureate school and 6.3% a specialist school. The remaining 68% of pupils entered some form of vocational training (BSI, 2019). These per-

centages may vary depending on the canton. Swiss policy has set itself the medium-term goal that at least 95% of all 25-year-olds in Switzerland should have completed upper-secondary education. However, success rates at upper-secondary level vary according to origin – young people of Swiss nationality born in Switzerland almost reached the target 95%, achieving a completion rate of 94% (2015). The rate for migrants, however, varies between 70% and 81% regardless of whether they were born in Switzerland or not (SKBF, 2018), and is therefore quite a way from the target set by politicians.

4.   Tertiary education

After completing their upper-secondary education, students can move on to tertiary education. The Swiss higher education sector (ISCED 6 to 8) includes universities (cantonal universities and Federal Institutes of Technology), universities of teacher education (UTE), universities of applied sciences (UAS), colleges of higher education and several educational programmes to prepare for Federal Diploma of Higher Education and Advanced Federal Diploma of Higher Education (professional and technical) examinations (Swiss education, 26.07.2021). In 2016, around half of the population aged 30 – 34 in Switzerland had a tertiary degree (SKBF, 2018.). In Switzerland, universities are largely publicly financed; Swiss students pay an average fee of 800 Swiss Francs per semester.

The Swiss education system is characterised by high permeability between different types of educational paths. Usually, general upper-secondary training courses lead to universities and teacher education universities, and the vocational baccalaureate leads to universities of applied sciences. However, thanks to additional and bridging courses, transition to other types of higher education institutions is also possible. As an example, admission to a university of applied sciences with a general baccalaureate usually requires a year of work experience (SKBF, 2018).

5.   Special needs education

In 2008, the cantons assumed full legal, financial and professional responsibility for the education of children and young people with special educational needs. At a national level, this change is accompanied by the Intercantonal Agreement on cooperation in the field of special needs education of 25 October 2007 (Special Needs Education Concordat), which stipulates that the integration of children and young people with special needs into mainstream schools should be promoted. The Agreement entered into force on 1 January 2011. The Concordat does not aim to regulate services and measures that still fall within the competence of the individual cantons, but it does regulate cooperation between the cantons in this area.

The cantons that adopt the Concordat undertake to provide the basic services described in the Concordat, which guarantee the education and care of children and young people with special needs, and to apply common instruments.

In addition, all cantons, regardless of their membership of the Special Needs Education Concordat, must develop a cantonal concept for special needs education. The cantons decide how they wish to organise the support measures; in particular, they decide to what extent and in what form special classes or small classes should be run.

6.   Teacher training system

As mentioned above, teacher-training takes place at universities of teacher education (UTE). Universities of teacher education were established at the start of the 2000s and integrated into the tertiary education system. The cantons place a lot of emphasis on teacher training, so much so that, even if the UTEs are designed in a similar way to universities of applied sciences (and, to some extent, are also affiliated to them), their financing is entirely provided by the cantons (Ambühl & Stadelmann, 2010).

Teachers for pre-primary and primary education complete a Bachelor's degree. These students are trained to become general teachers, teaching several subjects (six or more) to the same class. To be admitted to pre-primary or primary school teacher training, students must have at least a high school baccalaureate or a specialist baccalaureate with a pedagogical focus. It is also possible to obtain a study place with other qualifications by completing the necessary bridging training or by taking admission examinations.

The curriculum usually includes several courses of disciplinary and general teaching methodology, educational science and practical vocational training. A total of 180 ECTS credits are necessary in order to receive the qualification, of which approx. 36–54 ECTS credits consist of practical training. Compared to other tertiary education formats, the training of future teachers is characterised by a high incidence of practical experience, since part of

	1st semester	2nd semester	3rd semester	4th semester	5th semester	6th semester
Practical training	1 day / week internship 3 weeks internship	1 day / week internship 3 weeks internship	1 day / week internship 3 weeks internship	1 day / week internship 3 weeks internship	50% internship (2 half- days/ week) 2 weeks internship	50% internship (2 half- days/ week) 2 weeks internship
Curriculum structure	▪ Practical training: 18 ECTS ▪ Science of education: 9 ECTS ▪ Disciplinary teaching methodology: 33 ECTS		▪ Practical training: 14 ECTS ▪ Science of education: 13 ECTS ▪ Disciplinary teaching methodology: 37 ECTS		▪ Practical training: 30 ECTS ▪ Science of education: 4 ECTS ▪ Disciplinary teaching methodology: 8 ECTS ▪ Optional courses: 8 ECTS ▪ Bachelor thesis: 6 ECTS	

Table 1: Overview of the primary teacher Bachelor's degree structure at the Department of Teaching and Learning of the University of Applied Sciences and Arts of Southern Switzerland (SUPSI). (SUPSI, 2020).

the training takes place directly in the classroom. During the practical experience the students are closely mentored by UTE lecturers and their practice teacher (usually the teacher in the host class).

To teach at lower secondary level, teachers must have a Master's degree from a UTE. The curricula for future teachers at secondary level require subject-specific training in the intended subjects, and these future teachers will only teach certain subjects (usually 1–4 subjects) to multiple classes. Secondary school teacher training in Switzerland is structured according to two main models: an integrated model and a consecutive model. In the consecutive model, which is particularly widespread in French-speaking and Italian-speaking Switzerland, students need to obtain specialist scientific training in one or more disciplines (the ones they intend to teach) before embarking on a course of study at a UTE, as a university Bachelor's degree is the minimum requirement for admission to teacher-training courses. In this case, the duration of studies is generally 2 years. According to the integrated model, which is mainly found in German-speaking Switzerland, this specialist training takes place mainly at the UTE, with studies consequently lasting 9 semesters (5 years).

Teachers at upper secondary level teach at a Gymnasium, a specialised secondary school or – with a supplementary Vocational Education Certificate – at a voca-tional baccalaureate school throughout Switzerland. For this education path (depending on the chosen UTE), there is also the possibility to follow an integrated or consecutive curriculum. In the first case, students can complete their studies at the UTE parallel to their specialist studies (in the chosen disciplines) at the university (total duration: around 7 semesters). In the second case, they must first complete a Master's degree in a specific subject (e.g. mathematics) at university. They can then enrol for upper secondary teacher training. Depending on the canton, this training takes place either at the UTE or the university (total duration: around 2 semesters).

To teach pupils with special needs, teachers need a Master's degree in special needs education that can be obtained in some UTEs. A teaching diploma is required for admission to this course of study. Cross-entry is possible for persons with a university degree (Bachelor's or Master's degree in a study-related field) after passing additional examinations.

Graduates of universities of teacher education receive a professional diploma for a specific level (teaching diploma for pre-school or primary school level, secondary schools and upper secondary schools) together with their basic academic title (Bachelor, Master). All degree programmes for teaching at pre-school and primary school level have now received national recognition by the Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education

(EDK), which allows access to the profession at the corresponding school level throughout Switzerland. Teachers choose the educational content and plan their lessons, taking into account the curricula and developments in their respective subject. They are largely free to organise their lessons as they see fit. Depending on the task, topic and class, they use different teaching methods such as workshop or frontal teaching, group and project work.

There are currently 17 legally independent cantonal or inter-cantonal universities of teacher education in Switzerland, of which two are integrated into universities of applied sciences and one into the University of Geneva. About three-quarters of UTE students are women (SKBF, 2018). The proportion of women attending universities of teacher education has remained invariably high for years, reaching more than 80% in pre-school and primary level, as well as in special pedagogy. For higher school levels, the proportion of women falls to around 50%. Overall, foreign students accounted for 10% (SKBF, 2018).

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Teaching philosophy:

▶ I try to adopt and implement a competence-oriented approach from the beginning.
My courses mainly cover educational research methodologies and for this topic I find it
especially important that the students – the future teachers – not only learn a range of
concepts and theories, but that they are encouraged to independently consult research
results and evidence for the reflection and resolution of complex problems in different
situations in their daily practice. This is why when students ask questions not just relat-
ed to the topic, but also related to some real-life situations, I have the feeling that I am
being effective in my teaching.

Sara Benini

2   Overview of the Egyptian educational and teacher training system

Adel Rasmy El-Nagdy
Faculty of Education, Asyut University, Asyut, Egypt
adel.ali@edu.aun.edu.eg

Zakaria Gaber Henawy
Faculty of Education, Asyut University, Asyut, Egypt
zakariahenawy@yahoo.com

1.   Egypt's vision for education

Egypt prioritises education, considering it a national security issue. This is clear from Egypt's Vision 2030, which includes a special section devoted to education. Education is considered an urgent necessity because it builds competencies, mobilises human energies to become supportive in development and prepares individuals for the future. Egyptian education derives its curricula and goals from past experiences and a future vision related to human development. Hence, education aims to reduce unemployment and to contribute to increasing rates of economic growth and overall development. The articles on education in the 2014 Constitution refer to the growing importance attached to education, the emphasis on solving educational issues and finding ways to develop education, allocating resources to increase its financing and providing the requirements for human and economic development.

Article 19 of the Constitution stipulates that the Egyptian state commits to allocating a percentage of government spending for education not less than 4% of the national income, which gradually increases until it is in line with global averages. The state oversees the educational system to ensure that all public and private schools and institutes adhere to their educational policies. Article 20 also stipulates that the state commits to encouraging and developing technical education and vocational training and expanding all types of technical education in accordance with international quality standards and the needs of the labour market.

Article 21 stipulates that the state guarantees the independence of universities and provides higher education in accordance with international quality standards. It also works towards develop higher education and guarantees free education at state universities and institutes in accordance with the law. The state commits to allocating a percentage of government spending for university education not less than 2% of the national income, which gradually rises until it matches global averages.

2.   One country – different systems

In Egypt, there is more than one type of education and schooling:

1.   Governmental schools – includes two types:

■   Arabic language schools which provide government education curricula in the Arabic language.

■   Experimental schools which provide government education curricula in the English language, as well as teaching in French.

2.   Private schools which provide a special education service for pupils and are divided into:

■   Private schools that teach curricula in the Arabic language with curricula similar to those used by the government but usually taking more interest in students than government schools due to the financial support available.

■   Private schools teaching the curricula in English; these follow similar curricula to government schools, but may additionally teach French and German.

■   International schools: schools whose certificates are equivalent to the Egyptian high school diploma and the corresponding high school diploma in the foreign country to which they belong. They guarantee enrolment in universities in both countries.

3.   Al-Azhar religious education schools:

The educational system in Al-Azhar is administered through the Supreme Council of Al-Azhar Institute. It is independent from the Egyptian Ministry of Education and it is monitored by the Egyptian Prime Minister. Al-Azhar schools are usually referred to as 'Institutes' and include the following stages: elementary, preparatory and secondary. In these institutes, non-religious educational curricula are taught to a certain degree, but not as extensive as in public education. All students in these institutes are Muslims. Male and female students are separated in the preparatory and secondary stages of Al-Azhar. Al-Azhar institutes are spread all across Egypt, especially in the countryside and villages. Students completing the Azharite high school can go on to complete university education at Al-Azhar University.

3.   The Egyptian education system framework

The structure of the education system in Egypt includes several different educational stages according to the age of those enrolled. The following figure shows the education system in Egypt according to age and stage of education.

Basic education stage (elementary and preparatory): basic education includes six years for the elementary stage and three years for the preparatory stage. The Egyptian constitution guarantees the rights to basic education to every Egyptian child from the age of six. After the ninth year, students move on to one of the following two tracks: general secondary schools, or technical secondary schools.

General secondary education stage: this three-year stage begins with the tenth school year. It aims to prepare students for work after continuing education. Graduates of this path usually enrol in higher institutes and university colleges through a highly competitive process that is mainly based on the results of the secondary school completion examination (General Secondary School). General secondary education in Egypt aims to prepare students for life as well as higher and university education and participation in public life, and emphasises the consolidation of religious, behavioural and national values.

Technical secondary education (industrial, agricultural and commercial): technical secondary education has two tracks. The first track offers technical education in technical secondary schools, which have a duration of three years. The second track provides advanced technical education through an integrated model in which the study extends over five years. The first three years are similar to the first track, with the two additional years preparing the graduates to work as advanced technicians. Graduates of both tracks are able to enrol in higher education depending on their final examination results. However, their transfer rates to higher education institutions are low compared to graduates of general secondary education. Technical education in Egypt also aims to prepare a graduate who possesses a high level of knowledge and skills consistent with the national standards for skills and thus has the ability to raise their professional, social, academic and technological level and to adapt to the labour market.

Al-Azhar education: Al-Azhar education follows the same trend as general education with regard to school hours for each field of study. However, Al-Azhar offers religious instruction as an integral part of the curriculum.

Pre-school education	Basic education (compulsory)	Secondary	Higher education

| 3 | 4 | 5 | | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | | 15 | 16 | 17 | | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 |

Nurseries and Kindergartens

Primary | **Preparatory**

General

Industrial 3 and 5 year programs

Agricultural

Commercial

Vocational Preparatory | **Vocational Technical**

Universities 4, 5 and 6 year programs

| 4 | 5 | 6 |

Postgraduate Studies

Non-University Middle and Higher Technical Institutes 2, 4 and 5 year programs

| 2 | | 4 | 5 |

Labor Market and Society

Figure 1: Educational system in Egypt (El Badawy, 2012)

Education for people with special needs: education for people with special needs in Egypt clearly focuses on the three main disabilities: visual, intellectual and auditory, especially in government institutions. The main structures for education for people with special needs are classified as follows:

Schools and classes for visually impaired students: they include:

1. Schools of Light and Hope for the Blind (Al-Nour and Al-Amal) and

2. National Schools and classes for eyesight preservation (visually impaired). Schools and classes for students with a hearing impairment. Schools and classes for students with learning difficulties.

The education of people with special needs in Egypt aims to enhance personal competence and promote independence, self-sufficiency, self-direction and self-reliance. It also aims to achieve social competence by achieving interaction and building social relationships. Moreover, it aims at fostering professional competences by providing people with special needs with some manual skills and technical expertise appropriate to the nature of the disability.

University and higher education: this type of education is offered in universities or specialised higher institutes. The duration of the study ranges from two years in intermediate technical institutes to four, five or six years in university colleges and higher institutes. To achieve a Master's or Doctoral degrees requires at least two or three years of study, respectively.

Universities specialise in everything related to university education and scientific research that their colleges and institutes carry out for the sake of serving society and cultural advancement. They aim to contribute to the advancement of reasoning and science, the development of science and human values, the provision of the country with specialists, technicians and experts in various fields, and preparing students equipped with knowledge assets, advanced scientific research methods and soft values. Furthermore, university should contribute to building and strengthening society, creating the future of the homeland and serving humanity. Thus, universities are considered a bastion of human thought at its highest levels, a source of investment, and the development of the most important and most valuable wealth of society: human wealth. Universities also work towards resurrecting Arab civilisation and the historical heritage of the Egyptian people and their authentic traditions, considering the high level of religious, moral and patriotic education. Eventually, they aim also to strengthen cultural and scientific ties with Arab and foreign universities and scientific bodies (ARE, 1987).

Secondary (high) school (3 years)

Preparatory (middle) school (3 years)

Primary (elementary) school (6 years)

Kindergarten (2 years)
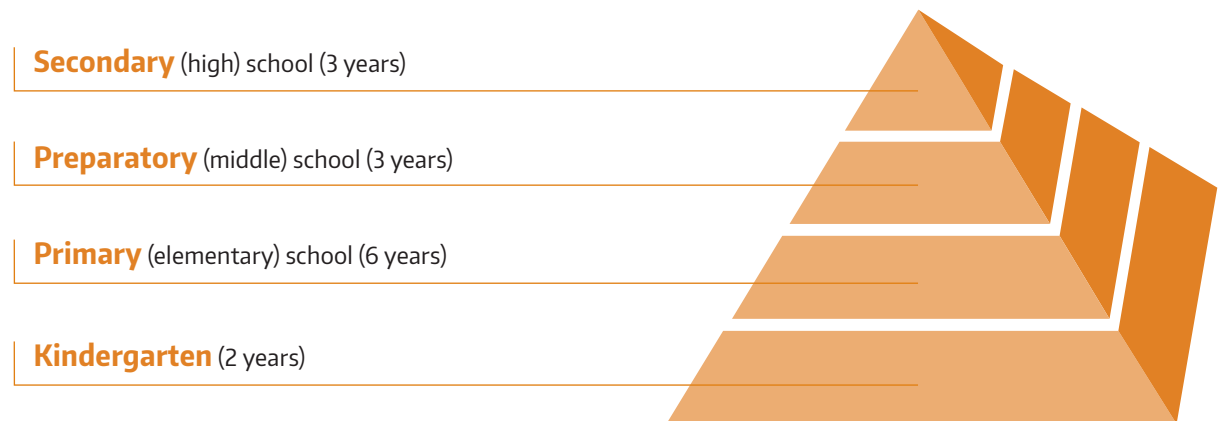
Figure 2: Stages of education in Egypt

Universities in Egypt are separated into public universities, national universities, and private universities. In addition to Al-Azhar University and the military colleges, which follow the Ministries of Defence and Interior, there are five branches of Egyptian universities affiliated outside the country, as well as academies and higher institutes.

Egyptian universities include three basic types of universities:

1. Public universities: universities that are financially built from the Egyptian government.

2. National universities: government universities, and the fees are not for profit.

3.   Private universities: universities owned by the private sector.

There are also a number of governmental and private academies specialised in certain fields. Military colleges are administered and supervised by the Ministry of Defence and their students, after graduation, join the Egyptian Armed Forces.

4.   Teacher initial training system or pre-service education

The future vision of pre-service education in Egypt is based on several axes. The most prominent axis is to train distinguished teachers with a high level of professionalism and experience. Their training aims to enable them to display educational leadership, good planning, and reflection. They should become an effective and positive element of change in society (Ministry of Education, 2016).

Some provisions of the Education Law promulgated by Law No. 139 of 1981 have been modified through Law No. 155 of 2007 under the title of members of the Education Authority. Among the most prominent articles included in the law is the article that deals with the conditions that must be met by anyone holding a job as a teacher. A further crucial article is concerned the employment of assistant teachers. Assistant teachers must obtain a certificate to validate their teaching practice so that it can be considered for their practical education. The law is concerned with the professional development of teachers as it provides the legal basis for the establishment of a professional academy for teachers.

The teacher should be prepared before service through high-quality programmes in all disciplines of public education from kindergarten to the end of secondary education according to the integrative system and the consecutive system in the Faculties of Education. Consideration should be given to preparing teachers who are able to master their academic specialisation, are skilled in presenting their material and who know how to interact with their students. They should work to create a democratic educational climate in their classrooms and schools. Their students are expected to become familiar with cooperative work and self-learning. The teachers should be committed to the ethics of the profession and the values of Egyptian society and progress, and they should be able to use technology in general and education technology in particular.

Teachers are required to complete four years as pre–service courses at the university through the faculty of education in order to enter the teaching profession.

Programme	School grade	Degree	Study time
Kindergarten	Kindergarten	Bachelor of Arts and Science	8 semesters
Basic education teacher (Primary)	Primary schools	Bachelor of Arts and Science	8 semesters
Preparatory and secondary teacher	Preparatory and secondary schools	Bachelor of Arts and Science	8 semesters
General diploma	Primary & preparatory	Postgraduate	2 semesters
Special programme for maths, science and English teacher	Primary, preparatory and secondary	Bachelor of Arts and Science	8 semesters
Professional diploma	Primary, preparatory and secondary	Postgraduate	2 semesters
Special diploma	Primary, preparatory and secondary	Postgraduate	2 semesters
Special programme for special education	Primary, preparatory and secondary	Postgraduate	4 semesters
Master programme		Master	2 semesters and thesis
Doctoral Programme		Doctoral	2 semesters and thesis

Table 1: Study programmes in initial teacher education (faculty of education)

5. Continuous professional development FOR teachers

The Professional Academy for Teachers (PAT) is responsible for training in-service teachers. It is a governmental institute which belongs to the Ministry of Education that ensures the quality of the professional development system for members of the education body to become skilled professional cadres that achieve the effectiveness of educational processes and the quality and distinction of educational outputs. These programmes are limited to several forms:

■ Training programmes for nomination of promotion to higher positions.

■ Training programmes for academic subjects which aims to increase the efficiency of teachers, especially in the basic education stage.

■ Technical training programmes for teachers to be informed of new developments in the field of education and culture.

■ Administrative training programmes which are provided to those in charge of senior management functions and candidates. They aim to improve the level of performance and help identify the various problems related to the educational process, and work to develop solutions to them.

Teachers in Egypt also face the following challenges in their professional development:

■ There is a lack of teachers in many schools. As a result, they are unable to leave their school to have the opportunity to receive professional development.

■ The high costs of the professional development training courses.

- The high number of pupils per class does not allow the teacher to apply modern strategies in teaching. Methods learned in professional development courses therefore do not seem effective for the teachers.

- Long waiting periods for teachers to obtain a job. This affects their performance as they cannot gain professional experience and exchange with co-teachers.

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Teaching philosophies:

▶ University education requires special attention to train students on communication skills and on seeking and employing knowledge rather than acquiring it.
This can be achieved through self-learning, collaborative learning and peer teaching. Moreover, it can also be achieved through the use of technology in seeking information, the use of skills in projects related to majors and to practice-based training during academic study.

Adel Rasmy El-Nagdy

▶ Teaching is generally a complex practice, requiring substantial knowledge and skills and involving relationships not only with learners but with other professionals, parents and community members. My teaching philosophy revolves around helping students to be responsible for their learning, helping them to build an integral personality and become effective teachers, and to prepare them to contribute to the quality of the professional practice in the future.

Zakaria Gaber Henawy

3   Présentation du système éducatif tunisien et de la formation des enseignants

Kawthar Ayed
Ecole Nationale Supérieure d'Ingénieurs de Tunis,
Université de Tunis, Tunisie
kawthar.ayed@ensit.u-tunis.tn

Rym Laribi
Institut supérieur des Cadres de l'Enfance (ISCE),
Dermesh, Université de Carthage, Tunisie
rymlaribi67@gmail.com

1.   Introduction

Dans l'histoire de la Tunisie, l'éducation a toujours été considérée comme un facteur important de l'évolution de la société et de sa modernisation. Selon le livre blanc, le projet de réforme du système éducatif en Tunisie (Ministère de l'éducation, 2016), l'école tunisienne a été depuis le XIXe siècle la locomotive du mouvement modernisateur de la société. Ce mouvement a été inauguré par Ahmad Bey, fondateur de l'école militaire de Bardo en 1840, poursuivi par Khair-Eddine qui a créé l'école Sadiki en 1875 et raffermi par les mouvements réformateurs qui ont modernisé l'enseignement zitounien[4]. Ces tentatives visaient à faire de l'école tunisienne une école patriotique qui œuvrait au renouveau intellectuel, social et économique du pays. La réforme de l'enseignement zitounien, qui a abouti à la fondation de la khaldounia[5], a reflété le désir d'adapter l'école tunisienne à la réalité intellectuelle et culturelle de la société dans le cadre d'une vision modernisatrice.

Avec l'instauration du protectorat en 1881, les français ont créé la Direction de l'Instruction Publique (DIP) qui va avoir pour mission d'implanter des écoles franco-arabes dans les régions où les colons se sont installés. Mais le nombre de tunisien scolarisés ne dépassait pas les 13 % et demeurait fonction des places libres restantes dans les écoles après l'admission des fils des colons et des étrangers (Ayachi, 2019). Un grand nombre de jeunes tunisiens n'avait pas la possibilité d'accéder à l'école pendant la colonisation.

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[4]   Le terme fait référence à l'enseignement religieux assuré à la mosquée Zitouna.

[5]   Première école moderne et laïque de Tunisie fondée le 22 décembre 1896 à Tunis.

2.   Les principales réformes après l'Indépendance

Ce n'est qu'après l'indépendance que les réformes du système éducatif ont repris. Etat souverain, la Tunisie a annoncé les grandes orientations de la réforme du système éducatif en 1958 qui permettra de voir des élites remplacer les fonctionnaires français. L'école de l'indépendance est, depuis sa création, une école publique qui considère la scolarisation comme sa principale priorité. C'est ainsi que l'Etat, avec le concours des citoyens, implante alors des écoles primaires dans les zones rurales pour remédier aux disparités enregistrées pendant l'époque coloniale.

L'école sera, pendant des décennies, un véritable ascenseur social qui permet à la classe moyenne et aux plus pauvres de réaliser des changements de cap de leurs conditions sociales et économiques. L'école tunisienne a largement contribué à transformer la société et à assurer une massification de l'enseignement (Ayachi, 2019).

2002:

Mise en œuvre du projet « Ecole de demain » pour un enseignement de qualité pour tous.

1991:

Redéfinition des finalités et mission de l'école. Mise en place d'un enseignement de base de 9 ans gratuit et obligatoire.

1958:

Après l'Indépendance Réforme fondatrice « l'école pour tous ».

Figure 1: Principales réformes du système éducatif tunisien.

Depuis, trois autres réformes ont suivi: en 1991, en 2002 modifiée en 2008 [6] et un projet de réforme en 2016. « Les réformes de 1991, et 2002 stipulent la nécessité d'avancer vers une pédagogie de l'autonomie, de la communication et du respect mutuel des différences. » (Bahloul, 1996, 31).

3.   Description du système éducatif tunisien

Le système éducatif tunisien renferme quatre grands cycles: le préscolaire, le cycle de base, le cycle secondaire et le cycle supérieur.

La langue officielle de l'enseignement à l'école est l'arabe ; le français et l'anglais sont introduits comme langues étrangères à partir de la 3e et 4e année du cycle primaire. L'enseignement des sciences sera assuré en langue française à partir de la 1re année du cycle secondaire.

3.1   L'éducation préscolaire

L'éducation préscolaire est relativement nouvelle, facultative et payante. Elle est dispensée aux enfants âgés de 3 à 6 ans. Elle est couronnée par une année préparatoire qui fait partie intégrale de l'enseignement de base destinée aux enfants âgés de 5 ans. Le ministère de l'Education est chargé du programme de cette année préparatoire. En 2017, le taux de préscolarisation des enfants de 5 ans s'est élevé à 85,5 % (UNICEF, 2020).

L'éducation préscolaire est assurée principalement par les trois dispositifs suivants:

- Les écoles primaires publiques et privées qui incluent des classes préparatoires

- Les jardins d'enfants qui sont des institutions socio-éducatives privées ou publiques

- Les kottebs qui sont des structures associées à des mosquées qui dépendent du ministère des affaires religieuses et qui ont pour rôle d'initier à l'apprentissage du Coran, ainsi qu'à écrire, lire et compter.

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6   « Il s'agit plus précisément de combattre, par le biais de l'école, toutes les formes d'intégrisme et de prémunir ainsi la société tunisienne contre les projets passéistes, le plus souvent générateurs de fanatisme et d'obscurantisme. » Mahjoubi, 2010.

Disciplines enseignées au cycle de base				
Langues	**Humanités**	**Sciences**	**Arts**	**Education religieuse**
Arabe 1re – 9e année	**Histoire-géographie** 5e – 9e année	**Mathématiques** (enseignées en arabe)	**Musique** 1re – 9e année	1re – 9e année
Français 3e – 9e année	**Éducation civique** 5e – 9e année	**Sciences de la vie et de la terre** 1re – 9e année **Physique** 4e – 9e année **Chimie** 7e – 9e année	**Dessin** 1re – 9e année	
Anglais 5ème – 9e année		**Education technologique** 1re – 9e année **Sciences informatiques** 7e – 9e année		

Tableau 1: Disciplines enseignées au cycle de base.

3.2 L'enseignement de base

Les années de l'enseignement de base sont obligatoires pour tout enfant âgé de 6 à 16 ans, selon la réforme de 1991. L'enseignement de base comporte deux cycles complémentaires: le primaire dans les écoles primaires jusqu'à la 6e année, et le préparatoire dans les collèges qui s'étend sur trois ans. Les matières enseignées sont variées.

Cet enseignement permet d'assurer un même socle de formation jusqu'à 16 ans. Le Ministère de l'éducation assurait un enseignement technique et professionnel comme alternative aux élèves en abandon scolaire mais ce programme a été supprimé progressivement à partir de 1991 et remplacé par la création d'un cursus de formation professionnelle (ONEQ, 2013).

Il est à noter que l'enseignement de l'Education Artistique et de l'Education technologique, dont le volume horaire est très réduit, se limite à des activités occasionnelles. Ces enseignements sont peu encouragés et valorisés dans le cursus de formation au cycle de base (La nouvelle réforme du système éducatif tunisien. 2002).

Avec l'instauration des collèges et lycées d'élites dits pilotes (50 au total), et pour pouvoir y accéder, un concours a été exigé en fin de la 6e année primaire et en fin du cycle de l'enseignement de base. Les écoles pilotes bénéficient d'un appui logistique du Ministère de l'éducation qui est bien plus important que celui apporté aux autres écoles publiques.

3.3 L'enseignement secondaire

L'enseignement secondaire s'étale sur quatre ans qui sont repartis en deux phases: une année de tronc commun et trois années de spécialisation où les élèves sont orientés vers l'une des sections suivantes: lettres, économie et gestion, sciences de l'informatique, mathématiques, sports, sciences expérimentales et sciences techniques. (La nouvelle réforme du système éducatif tunisien. 2002).

Le cycle secondaire est couronné par un concours national: le baccalauréat. Les élèves qui réussissent ce concours accèdent à l'enseignement supérieur.

Il est important de mentionner que les enseignants du primaire, du collège et du secondaire suivent un programme unifié préétabli par le Ministère de l'éducation, selon les orientations stratégiques de l'état. Les inspecteurs veillent à ce que ces programmes soient minutieusement suivis et appliqués par les enseignants, et très

Le système éducatif tunisien:
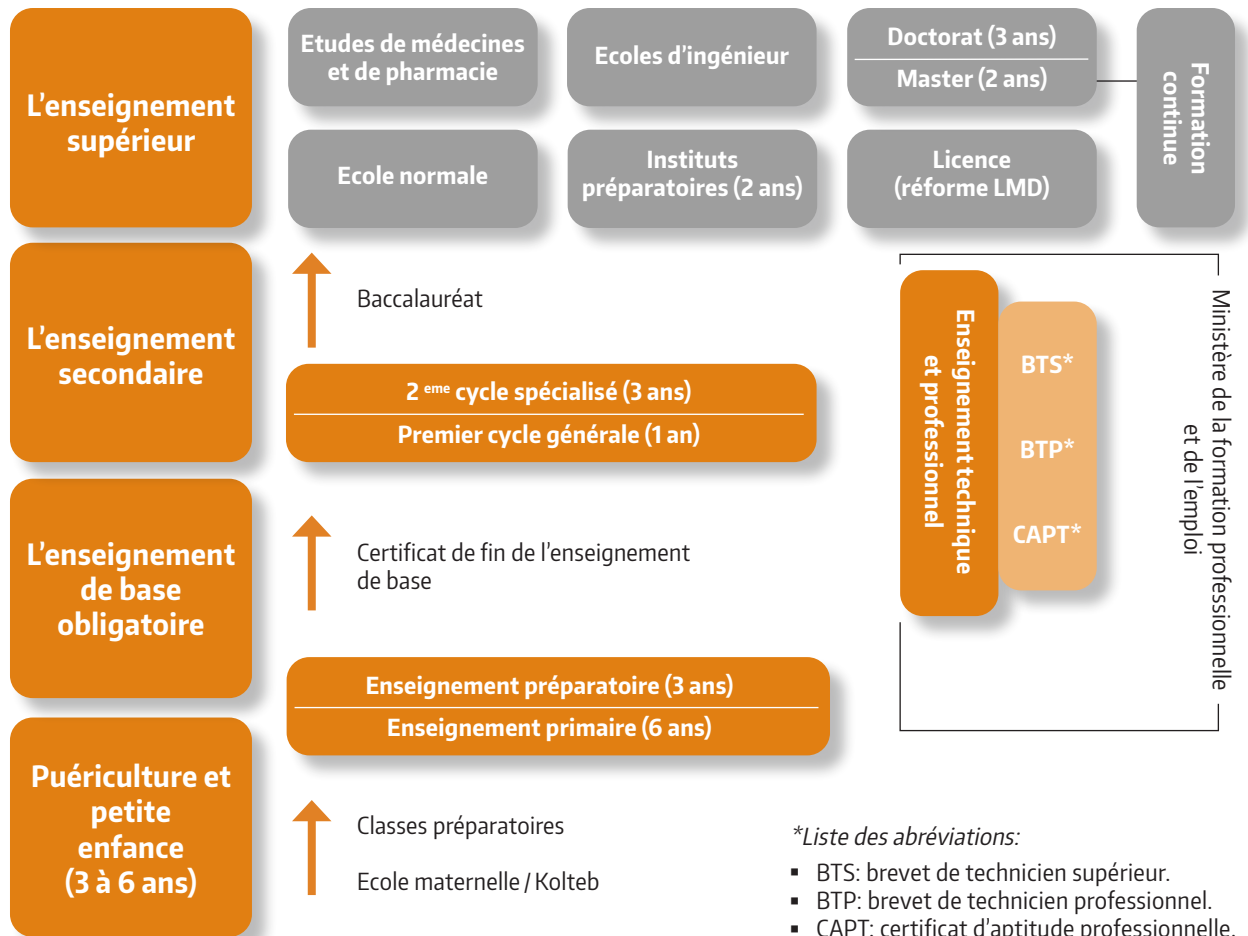
Figure 2: Schéma récapitulatif du système éducatif tunisien

peu de liberté est tolérée. Les programmes n'ont pas été actualisés depuis 2002, ce qui fait actuellement l'objet d'un large débat en Tunisie donnant lieu au projet d'une nouvelle réforme par le Ministère de l'éducation, annoncé en décembre 2021 (L'Economiste Maghrébin, 2021).

3.4   L'enseignement supérieur

En Tunisie, l'enseignement supérieur est organisé dans le cadre d'universités pluridisciplinaires (13 universités comprenant 203 facultés, écoles ou instituts supérieurs publics), d'un réseau de 24 Instituts Supérieurs d'Etudes Technologiques (ISET) et de 76 établissements privés (MES, 2019–2020).

L'enseignement supérieur est régi par le système LMD, acronyme de Licence – Master – Doctorat. Ainsi et conformément aux normes définies par le Processus de

Bologne, le système actuel d'enseignement supérieur délivre les diplômes suivants: Bachelor (Licence): 3 années d'études, Master (Mastère): 2 années d'études, Doctorat: de 3 à 5 ans. Mais il est à noter que certains domaines d'études spécifiques prévoient des régimes et des durées d'études différents telles les études d'ingénierie, de médecine et de médecine dentaire et les études pharmaceutiques.

La plupart des établissements publics peuvent délivrer un ou plusieurs diplômes, de la Licence au Doctorat (du premier au troisième cycle). Quant aux établissements d'enseignement supérieur privés, ils peuvent délivrer la Licence et/ou le Master, mais aucun d'entre eux n'a actuellement le droit de délivrer le Doctorat[7].

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7   Nous tenons à remercier Mme Kaouther Maroueni, directrice des réformes à la DGRU (MES) pour les précisions qu'elle nous a fournies.

Le système de l'enseignement supérieur tunisien demeure cependant, dans son profil classique, lacunaire dans la mesure où il n'a pas réussi à atteindre les objectifs visés par l'Etat surtout pour ce qui est du renforcement de l'insertion des jeunes diplômés du cycle supérieur dans le marché de l'emploi. C'est pourquoi une nouvelle réforme a été lancée en 2015 et suivie de l'organisation des assises nationales en décembre 2017. A la rentrée 2019–2020, une nouvelle licence, conçue selon une approche par compétences, supplante l'ancienne et ce à l'échelle nationale pour mieux répondre aux besoins du marché de l'emploi tunisien (Maroueni, 2020, 12). 3.4 L'enseignement supérieur

4.   Formation initiale des enseignants

4.1   La formation des éducateurs de l'enfance

La formation des éducateurs des jardins d'enfants a lieu dans l'institut supérieur des cadres de l'enfance (ISCE) sous l'égide du Ministère de la Famille, de la Femme, de l'Enfance et des Personnes Âgées et le Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur. A la fin des années 1990, l'ISCE était intégré dans le système d'enseignement supérieur et délivre le diplôme national de licence en éducation préscolaire. Pour accéder à cette formation il faut avoir un diplôme de baccalauréat.

Au total, 180 crédits ECTS répartis sur six semestres, dont presque 25 % sont consacrés à la formation pratique.

L'employeur principales des diplômés de l'ISCE est le Ministère de la Famille, de la Femme, de l'Enfance et des Personnes âgées. Ces diplômés sont recrutés en tant qu'éducateurs de petite enfance en préscolaire (Cahier des charges des jardins d'enfants 2009, 644) et éducateurs de jeunes enfants (Cahier des charges des clubs d'enfants, s.d.).

	Semester 1	Semester 2	Semester 3	Semester 4	Semester 5	Semester 6
Formation pratique	Connaissance du métier : Témoignages de professionnels	Stage 2 jours / semaine pendant 10 semaines	Stage 2 jours / semaine pendant 10 semaines	Stage 2 jours / semaine pendant 10 semaines	Stage (3 jours / semaine pendant 10 semaines) Stage massé de 2 semaines	Stage en responsabilité de 6 semaines
Structure du programme	▪ Science de l'éducation 13 ECTS ▪ Connaissance du jeune enfant 12 ECTS ▪ Pratiques Professionnelles 19 ECTS ▪ Enseignements optionnels 8 ECTS ▪ Enseignement transversal 8 ECTS		▪ Science de l'éducation 11 ECTS ▪ Connaissance du jeune enfant 10 ECTS ▪ Médiation éducative 13 ECTS ▪ Pratiques Professionnelles 10 ECTS ▪ Enseignements optionnels 8 ECTS ▪ Enseignement transversal 8 ECTS		▪ Science de l'éducation 12 ECTS ▪ Connaissance du jeune enfant 8 ECTS ▪ Médiation éducative 11 ECTS ▪ Pratiques Professionnelles 13 ECTS ▪ Enseignements optionnels 8 ECTS ▪ Enseignement transversal 8 ECTS	

Tableau 2: Vue d'ensemble de la structure de la licence en sciences de l'éducation de l'Institut Supérieur des Cadres de l'Enfance (ISCE). Source: programmes de LI522198 et LI522102 (MES, s.d.).

Concernant les kottabs, ils sont tenus par des mouaddibs (éducateurs) titulaires de diplômes en sciences religieuses.

4.2 La formation des professeurs des écoles

Après l'indépendance et avec la promulgation en 1958 de la loi pour l'unification, la généralisation et la gratuité de l'enseignement, la formation des instituteurs était une priorité nationale. Des filières courtes ont été ouvertes pour combler le besoin. Diverses réformes ont mené entre 1990 et 1998 à l'ouverture des Institutions Universitaires Supérieures de Formation des Maîtres (ISFM) sous la double tutelle du Ministère de l'enseignement supérieur et le Ministère de l'éducation. Cette coopération vouée à l'échec mènera à la fermeture définitive des ISFM en 2007. De 2007 à 2016, la Tunisie ne disposait d'aucune formation initiale pour former les instituteurs.

En 2016, une nouvelle formation voit le jour : une licence professionnelle en Education et Enseignement qui est assurée dans 9 institutions à l'échelle nationale [8]. Elle s'articule autour d'une formation théorique et une autre pratique. Aux semestres 1 et 2, une formation théorique est assurée avec un renforcement linguistique en arabe, français et anglais. Les matières de spécialité apparaissent réellement au semestre 3 et ce jusqu'au semestre 6 dont principalement : la didactique, les théories d'apprentissage, les pratiques réflexives, l'éducation spécialisée, l'éducation à la santé et à l'environnement, l'évaluation etc. Les cours sont assurés par des universitaires mais aussi par des professionnels du métier du Ministère de l'éducation. Les stages commencent au semestre 3 jusqu'au semestre 6. Les stages se font en blocs de deux semaines par semestre et sont uniquement supervisés par les inspecteurs qui remplissent des grilles d'évaluation et attribuent des notes à chaque stagiaire. Ces notes sont communiquées aux établissements de formations initiales et sont comptabilisées dans leurs moyennes générales (DGRU, 2017).

Les diplômés sont recrutés par le Ministère de l'éducation.

4.3 La formation des professeurs de lycée

Pour remplacer les enseignants français, après la fin de la colonisation française, l'Etat tunisien a ouvert l'Ecole Normale Supérieure de Tunis (ENS, 1956) et l'Ecole Normale des Professeurs Adjoins (ENPA, 1958). Jusqu'à 1974, on comptera 18 écoles normales chargées de former les professeurs dans les différentes disciplines. Mais à partir de 1989, date de la fermeture de toutes les Ecoles Normales excepté celle de Tunis, et jusqu'à aujourd'hui la formation des professeurs de lycée n'est pas assurée. Depuis, le recrutement des professeurs se fait via le concours du Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement du second degré (CAPES). Tout enseignant de toute discipline confondue et qui détient une maîtrise ou une licence peut candidater (livre blanc, 2016).

L'absence de formations initiales spécifiques en éducation et enseignement pendant de longues années, la suppression des écoles normales, les programmes surchargés et non actualisés ainsi que la suppression de la formation professionnelle représentent des facteurs importants de l'inefficacité du système éducatif tunisien. Laquelle se traduit par un taux de redoublement important, un taux de décrochage élevé et des classifications à la baisse dans les évaluations internationales.

Cependant, l'éducation publique demeure, en Tunisie, la promesse d'un avenir meilleur en assurant à tous accès à une éducation de qualité qui intègre les compétences de vie et l'éducation à la citoyenneté et aux valeurs démocratiques, d'où les appels incessants à des réformes structurelles (Ben Rais, 2017).

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8   La licence Education et enseignement est l'une des filières de formation assurées majoritairement dans des Instituts supérieurs des études appliquées en humanités telles que ISEAH Zaghouan, KEf, Jendouba, Gabes, Mahdia, Touzer et Kairouan. Il n'y a pas de faculté d'éducation ou de Haute école pédagogique en Tunisie.

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Teaching philosophy:

▶   J'ai travaillé, dès les premiers jours de ma carrière, avec des étudiants qui viennent des régions de l'intérieur et qui se retrouvent en marge de la ville, au pied d'une montagne et sans véritable contact avec ce qui les entoure. Premier problème détecté, c'est l'ennui et la solitude alors qu'un étudiant s'attendait à des découvertes, son rêve était de voir de grandes villes, des musées, de participer à des fêtes, etc. Rien de cela n'était disponible.

Dans ce contexte, certes pesant et ennuyant, je voulais éveiller un peu leur imagination et les pousser à rêver, à entraver les frontières de cette réalité qui les transforment en des récepteurs passifs. J'ai donc mené quelques expériences en classe en changeant de méthodes d'enseignement, en changeant d'attitude et en recourant à des outils différents. Le résultat était surprenant. Il fallait sortir hors des murs, faire des cours en plein air pour les inciter à écrire un texte descriptif, ramener des tableaux en classe pour étudier les techniques de la description, visualiser des films imaginaires merveilleux, fantastiques et de science-fiction pour éveiller un sens enfoui, caché de créativité.

Kawthar Ayed

Part II:
Institutional Practices in Teaching Education

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Part II   From institutional policies to teaching practices: Analysis of a curricular design to promote research in education

4   From institutional policies to teaching practices: Analysis of a curricular design to promote research in education

Francesco Arcidiacono
Research Department, University of Teacher Education
BEJUNE, Switzerland
francesco.arcidiacono@hep-bejune.ch

Josianne Veillette
Research Department, University of Teacher Education
BEJUNE, Switzerland
josianne.veillette@hep-bejune.ch

Abstract:

This chapter aims to analyse the relationship between the institutional policies at the University of Teacher Education BEJUNE and the actual teaching practices in the field of research education for pre-service teachers. More particularly, we will focus on the following aspects: firstly, we refer to an institutional document (the "Charte fondatrice de la HEP", hereafter the "Charter"), written in 2001 at the creation of the University of Teacher Education BEJUNE, which establishes the principles and general foundations of teacher education. These principles (which aim to define the ways to conceive different programmes offered by the institution in terms of types of training for future teachers) are then considered as a general framework to analyse the actual design of research and methodological courses. Thirdly, a comparison between the Charter and the actual teaching activities performed in the field of education to and through research is made. This step represents an opportunity to identify the extent to which current practices to foster research in education are in alignment with the principles established 20 years ago as relevant issues and as the foundations of the institution. 'Research education' refers to how research at a university is practised as a means to educate students. This chapter highlights the ways to implement the institutional principles and develop meaningful curricular designs for improving teaching methodology in research education. We discuss this process of adaptation in sustaining a research culture and propose a reflection on the appropriateness of the Charter and its role in the current teaching methods at the University of Teacher Education BEJUNE.

Keywords:

- institutional policies

- curricular design

- research in education

- pre-service teacher education

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1.   Introduction

Challenges in schools, political and social change and the need for the renewal of teacher education to comply with standards at a tertiary level have given rise, in different contexts, to extended reflections, accompanied by a certain number of reforms concerning teaching curricula, especially in primary education. The plurality of models for the professionalisation of teachers has been highlighted on several occasions at an international level (Menter *et al.*, 2010), referring to specific representations of teaching anchored in different socio-political and cultural contexts. Within this complexity, the process of the professionalisation of teaching has become increasingly difficult and has required training institutions to reflect upon the issue and adopt positions.

In our case, Swiss universities of teacher education have undergone significant changes over the past decades in establishing curricula that promote the role of research in education (Wentzel, 2010, 2012; Dirks & Hansmann, 2002; Tremp, 2005). The idea of integrating research practices into teacher education is not a recent issue (Beckman, 1957) and has been widely adopted in most training programmes in Switzerland and elsewhere. However, the study of the potential effects of such integration is more recent and involves training challenges (Wentzel & Pagnossin, 2012).

The integration of research into teacher education highlights the question of the forms that training in and through research can take, but also that of the criteria according to which it is made. These theoretical questions refer to social choices and political issues. Indeed, the regulatory framework for teacher professionalisation requires the integration of research into teacher education. In this context, research would serve to support "the transition from occupations to professions, the transition from empirical knowledge to scientific knowledge" (Wittorski, 2005, 15–16, translated by FA & JV).

To consider these elements and to regulate how they work at an institutional level, the University of Teacher Education BEJUNE (in French *Haute école pédagogique* BEJUNE; hereafter, HEP-BEJUNE) has adopted a guide document, the "Charte fondatrice de la HEP" (hereafter, the Charter), published in its first institutional information bulletin dated March 1, 1997. The Charter sets out the values of the institution and its mission to launch a program of teacher education at the tertiary level by including a part of training to and through research.

The instrumentation of research in professional teacher education raises the question of the role given to research by the future teachers in order to reduce prescriptive use of empirical investigation and to favour the application of its results for educational purposes (e.g. intervention based on professional experiences). The institutional view of research underlines the importance of promoting existing forms of professionalism among our students (future teachers): in fact, through an education to and through research, the HEP-BEJUNE intends to help them to recognise their skills, provide them with the tools to disseminate and share these skills with other colleagues, and to frame these competences as an object of discussion and debate within a scientific framework. The establishment of a collaborative way of working around challenges and resources in the teaching profession is decisive for the construction of a professional micro-culture which is oriented towards teamwork and continuous improvement. Teacher education to and through research that is promoted at the HEP-BEJUNE is therefore not reduced simply to the objectives of professionalisation or to the encouragement of practices, but rather constitutes an opportunity for students to adopt a scientific posture while acting as professionals. This is in line with principles that have been highlighted in research literature, such as the capacity of considering the situated nature of a phenomenon, or the development of an attitude invoking multiple and complementary views to analyse a situation (Mialaret, 2011). However, we are aware of the difficulties and resistance from students that can emerge when trying to propose this idea to pre-service teachers. In fact, the role and suitability of different courses of methodology within their curricula, and the relevance of research education activities (e.g. the writing of a scientific and empirical dissertation) are often questioned and underestimated among students.

The goal of this chapter is to consider the place of education to and through research within the HEP-BEJUNE by comparing two documentary sources that are intended to present the principles governing the relevance of research within the teacher training curricula. In particular, we intend to analyse the Charter of the HEP-BEJUNE and the course's plans for actual teaching practices in the field of research education for pre-service teachers. Our idea is to contribute to revising the existing institutional policies and teaching curricula in the field of research education, by potentially re-considering the suitability of the existing design and the theoretical principles that were established twenty years ago when the institution was originally founded.

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2.   Institutional frameworks and their development

2.1   The Charter and the educational principles at the institution

The HEP-BEJUNE was created in 2001 as a fusion of 11 schools and centres in charge of teacher education within the area of Bern, Jura and Neuchâtel in the French-speaking part of Switzerland. Due to its tri-cantonal nature, this amalgamation required a curriculum which took into account the needs of the three sites and the changing social requirements associated with the teaching profession (and the process of professionalisation). As suggested by Mellouki (2010), it has been a question of "improving the cultural and knowledge level of the teachers," by re-thinking the training content according to the development of different disciplines, pedagogies, teaching and learning strategies, as well as by favouring "the integration of the research results [...] and the critical reflection on teaching practice" (ibid., 165, translated by FA & JV). It is within this framework that the Charter was established 20 years ago.

Based on the recommendations of the international UNESCO commission (Delors *et al.*, 1999), the Charter highlights the notion that teacher training is part of a general educational process; it is a learning path which must accompany future teachers throughout their lives. Four principles are indicated as a basis to guide this process:

- ◼ learning to know

- ◼ learning to do

- ◼ learning to live together

- ◼ learning to be

In this chapter, we intend to focus on the first two of these principles, focussing our attention on the idea that teacher education should be designed in such a way that students can acquire a solid theoretical and conceptual basis in line with their professional practice. A particular emphasis is also placed on the role of research as a way to favour the development of critical thinking, as well as a tool favouring to acquire the capacity of observation, to understand a situation and to implement problem solving processes.

Among the aspects considered fundamental for the teaching curricula, the Charter indicates the intention to train teachers to be able to cope with the challenges and needs of society, to build a contextual vision of

knowledge and make teachers able to handle various educational devices. With this document, the HEP-BEJUNE also announces its intention to be a provider of life-long learning, as well as to value the "updating of knowledge, the acquisition of new didactic approaches, the reflective practice, a systemic and contextual view and personal knowledge" (Haute école pédagogique – BEJUNE, 1997, 2, translated by FA & JV). In addition, it states that education should favour the acquisition of new competences and the constitution of a teachers' interdisciplinary repertoire to think, act and position themselves within the educational context. The reflection on teaching practice is considered a crucial experience that should allow students to articulate theory and practice, and to overcome any potential difficulties they will encounter during their professional lives.

With regard to the principles we selected for this study (*Learning to know and Learning to do*), the Charter considers them fundamental elements of an education which prepares teachers for a complex profession and which constantly requires teachers to bring together theoretical reflections, teaching practices and research skills. This latter aspect highlights again the relevance of scientific knowledge and experience within the teaching curricula. Throughout the evolution of our institution over the last twenty years, the curricular design of the research courses offered to pre-service teachers has been revised many times. For example, different reflections involving members of the academic staff and students have delivered a new concept of the role of research in which the scientific aspects of teacher education have been improved, especially secondary education level. For this reason, in the following section we propose a reflection on the current curricular design for educational courses to and through research and the process of its recent implementation (Kohler *et al.*, 2017) within the curriculum for future teachers at secondary school level.

2.2   Curricular design of teacher education to and through research

Current education to and through research in the curriculum for training future teachers at a secondary level has been set up to offer students the opportunity to adopt a scientific approach in their professional experience. The curricular design has been conceived to allow pre-service teachers to investigate problems, ideas, resources or situations encountered in their everyday practice at school through the lens of a practice-based approach (Willemse, Boei & Pillen, 2016). In this sense, the aim of education to and through research should be, for instance, the integration of scientific dimensions

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into teaching activities, as well as the adoption of critical and constructive attitudes while working with pupils and other professionals.

The curricular design currently adopted at the HEP-BE-JUNE within the study programme for secondary education is organised into three phases. Firstly, students are introduced to the main constitutive elements of scientific research in education. They are provided with support to help them understand their own (mis-)conceptions or personal intuition at a theoretical and practical level, as well as the relevance of such knowledge for their everyday professional activities. Students are invited to research a large range of scientific and professional publications to help them learn to differentiate between the different sources of information available and to select those that are considered useful for their profession. A critical mindset towards scientific literature is also developed in order to promote reflection on the activities of researchers and scientific communities. The development of these competences requires analytical work based on the rhetorical construction of scientific texts. Students are asked to consider different pieces of scientific information and to organise and present them as reasonable discourse, allowing the identification of a research question that they should develop for their final dissertation. This design intends to highlight the relevant role played by a process of problematisation: students are invited to consider it an essential reflective activity that opens the space needed for adequate research practice, allowing future teachers to enrich their personal experiences and to build a mea-

ningful process. In order to do so, students are asked to engage in scientific activities, according to the idea that the process of problematisation is understandable by practising research (Rey, 2005).

The second step requires students to become familiar with different logics in empirical investigation. Various methodological resources and techniques are then proposed in order to make future teachers able to collect and analyse data. Students become aware of the existing typologies of research in education (Astolfi, 1993; Van der Maren, 2003) and they are invited to learn how to share their conceptions and ideas toward innovative models.

The third step consists of personal tutoring by a trainer assigned to each student with a research topic selected by the future teacher. This phase is intended to expose students to various postures that should be differentiated according to how their dissertations advance. This is done in order to promote further possibilities of discovering new, interdisciplinary and complementary ways to study a given phenomenon.

Table 1 summarises the aforementioned elements and indicates how the methodological training of future secondary teachers is organised. For each semester (Autumn and Spring) in the two-year programme, students are invited to attend classes intended to introduce them to different forms of research in education, methodology courses and tutoring sessions that allow them to complete their final dissertations.

| | 1st year | | 2nd year | |
	Autumn	Spring	Autumn	Spring
Secondary 1		Introduction to research in education	Research in education	
			Competences for writing a dissertation	
			Dissertation tutoring (MA)	
Secondary 1 and 2		Introduction to research in education	Research in education	
			Research essay tutoring	
Secondary 2	Introduction to research in education			
	Research essay tutoring			

Table 1: Organisation of the training units in the context of the module on Education to and through research according to the levels of secondary education and the training year (Kohler et al., 2017, 107).

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3. Research design

This study considers the two aforementioned principles (Learning to know and Learning to do) as the main components considered useful for identifying the role of education to and through research within the selected document sources (the Charter and the curricular design of research courses). For this reason, we focus on a comparison between these two sources with respect to these principles. More specifically, we intend to observe whether the principles of the Charter have contributed to the creation of the current design, and vice versa to analyse whether the research courses really translate the aforementioned principles from a prescriptive model into professional educational training to and through research.

The two sources of data that are considered are the Charter text and the course syllabus for the current teaching curriculum for pre-service teachers at secondary level.

4. Data analysis

Our analytical approach is inductive and aims at highlighting the factors that emerge when comparing the two aforementioned documentary sources. In relation to the main topic of the study – namely the institutional principles of Learning to know and Learning to do in research education – each set of documents (the Charter and the plans for methodological courses) has been coded according to three phases: the first step consisted in applying labels to each text by dividing it into segments and grouping them into a family of similar codes concerning the aforementioned principles (open coding); the second stage involved drawing connections between the code families and their relation to the topic of education to and through research (axial coding); the third stage consisted in selective processing of the data (selective coding).

For the analysis, we combined the treatment of the two sets of documents by comparing sections of text sharing similarities and showing differences with respect to the two principles and the field of teacher education to and through research. The sections of text that constituted the data source for each principle are shown below in tables 2 and 3.

Charter	Curricular design of research courses
La formation à la profession d'enseignante doit passer, entre autres, par une formation scientifique centrée sur l'élaboration et la vérification de concepts et de théories mis à l'épreuve de la réalité par des activités de recherche constamment reliées aux situations vécues dans la pratique quotidienne.	Objectif : connaître les spécificités de la recherche scientifique dans le domaine des sciences de l'éducation.
Face à des situations nouvelles, inattendues et souvent complexes, les enseignantes doivent être capables de mobiliser toute une série de ressources constituées et accumulées au cours de la formation.	Objectifs : D'une part, présenter des démarches scientifiques en éducation et outiller les étudiants pour leur permettre de comprendre les principes de la recherche en lien avec la pratique professionnelle ; d'autre part, permettre des espaces de réflexion sur les aspects méthodologiques dans le champ de l'éducation et d'analyse de situations pédagogiques pour faire évoluer sa pratique. Il s'agit de faire interagir des pratiques de recherche (comme lieu de construction d'une pensée critique et créative) et d'enseignement.

Table 2: Original data for the comparative analysis of the "Learning to know" principle

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Charter	Curricular design of research courses
L'articulation dynamique de la pratique et de la théorie postule un aller et retour régulier entre la pratique attendue puis observée et les concepts élaborés ou présentés par les savoirs théoriques	Compétences visées : Agir de façon éthique et responsable ; Communiquer de manière claire et approprié dans les divers contextes liés à la profession enseignante ; agir en tant que professionnel, interprète critique d'objets de savoirs et/ou de culture (Introduction à la recherche en éducation)
La pratique de la recherche exige la suspension du jugement jusqu'à l'issue du questionnement. Elle permet aux enseignantes qui se sont affrontées à ses exigences de nuancer leurs propos, d'éviter les emportements, de suspendre les avis téméraires. Outre cette formation personnelle, la recherche appliquée à la pratique quotidienne de la classe produit certes des connaissances nouvelles. L'essentiel est cependant qu'elle induise puis entraîne des attitudes pédagogiques, relationnelles ou didactiques. Elle est une école de rigueur et de modestie	Thématiques : Il s'agit de comprendre et s'approprier différentes démarches de recherche, les avantages et limites d'une palette d'outils de recherche ; de concevoir une démarche de recherche adaptée à une problématique d'étude ; de savoir définir des composantes méthodologiques et d'analyse de données ; de pouvoir expliciter et justifier une démarche de recherche en adoptant une posture d'auteur

Table 3: Original data for the comparative analysis of the "Learning to do" principle

5.   Results

Comparing the two sets of documents with respect to the selected principles (Learning to know and Learning to do) within the field of research education resulted in different findings reported below. The results are organised around the main elements of similarities and differences concerning each principle.

5.1   Learning to know

As already indicated, the Charter wished to achieve new challenges and reflections related to teacher education and professionalisation. It established the principle that the "training for the teaching profession, […], must pass, among other things, through a scientific education centred on the development and verification of concepts and theories based on reality, through research activities constantly linked to situations experienced in daily practice" (ibid., 1, translated by FA & JV). Within this perspective, teacher education should allow students to learn theoretical notions that can be reinvested in an empirical reality promoting professional and educational activities. In other words, it is understood that the research sup-

ports empirical practice because it favours the understanding of its reality. Education must be at the service of teachers, who will be draw on their acquired knowledge and use it to face the various realities of their profession: "faced with new, unexpected and often complex situations, teachers must be able to mobilise a whole series of resources created and accumulated during their education" (ibid., 2, translated by FA & JV).

Through its Charter, the institution considers that Learning to know, in particular, involves an initiation into conceptual and theoretical reflections that are questioned and reinvested in practice via an investigative process. The principle is also present in the curricula of methodological courses given at the institution. The "Introduction to research in education" is offered to students of secondary level during their first year of education. Its objective is follows: "to know the specificities of scientific research in the field of Educational Sciences." In the case of the "Research in education" course offered during the second year of education, we find two types of objectives: "On the one hand, to present scientific approaches to education and to enable students to understand the principles of research in relation to professional practice; on the other hand, to offer space for reflection upon methodological aspects in the field of

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education and to analyse pedagogical situations to develop each teacher's practice. It is a question of making research practice interactive – as places to build critical and creative thinking – and teaching practice" (ibid., translated by FA & JV). The methodological part of teacher education, which aims to build scientific knowledge through research, is conceived as a process: firstly, as an introductory course which aims to propose a variety of aspects and peculiarities of research in educational sciences to the students; then, as a practical course which attempts to overlap the scientific theoretical framework with the practical teaching context, through the concrete experimentation of a research process.

5.2 Learning to do

With the intention of presenting itself as an institution that will train future teachers by adopting scientific standards, the Charter specifies that new education processes must consider the mutual connection between theory and practice. In this sense, 'learning to do' means being trained to move back and forth between observations in the field and the acquisition of a conceptual framework acquired during the training: "the dynamic articulation of practice and theory assumes a regular back and forth between expected and observed practice and the concepts developed or presented by theoretical knowledge" (ibid., 3, translated by FA & JV). Being initiated and trained in educational research makes it possible to train future teachers to be able to solve practical problems whilst on the job: not only does this experience enrich the students' knowledge, but it will generate reflection, criticism of teaching practices, and reasoning. Furthermore, the Charter specifies that "the practice of research requires the suspension of judgment until the end of the study. It allows teachers needing to justify their positions to prevent or delay making rash decisions. In addition to personal training, research applied to the classroom practice produces new knowledge. However, research induces and entails pedagogical, relational or didactic attitudes. It is a school of rigour and modesty" (ibid., 3, translated by FA & JV).

Learning to do begins with initial training, which offers concrete tools for questioning the teaching practice (namely, the concepts through a reflective approach). This learning is then reinvested throughout the teacher's career (as long-life learning), as they know how to question their diverse and varied everyday practices.

The courses devoted to methodological learning aim to impart various skills or objectives. The 'Introduction to research in education' course intends to introduce future teachers to reflect and develop skills allowing them

to be part of a professional process. Competences such as 'acting ethically and responsibly', 'communicating clearly and appropriately in the various contexts related to the teaching profession' or 'acting as a professional, critical interpreter of knowledge, objects and/or culture' are part of the training process provided by this educational unit. In the case of the 'Research in education' course, the principles pursued are as follows: it is a question of understanding and appropriating different research approaches, the advantages and limitations of a range of research tools; to design a research approach adapted to a study problem; to know how to define methodological and data analysis components; to be able to explain and justify a research process by adopting a posture of author. Accordingly, the two courses seem to correspond. The first one introduces students to questions provided to favour a critical posture, to then subsequently develop a professional competence. The other course focuses on the practice of research from the point of view of theoretical reflection and the problem-solving and analytical process. Therefore, Learning to do is conceived – through these methodological courses – as a journey (firstly a theoretical/reflective one, and then a practical/restitutive one) which aims to develop the scientific attitude of students to favour their professional attitudes.

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6.   Conclusion

In this chapter, we have observed a correlation between the principles of Learning to know and Learning to do, which are intended as models to be implemented over successive stages. The Charter postulates that research represents a support or tool that teachers can use to question their own practices. In this sense, it is necessary to be initiated into the theoretical notions of research (according to the principle of Learning to know) which can be used by each teacher in a concrete way in order to distance themselves and to be able to question the exercise of the profession (according to the principle of Learning to do). We have observed the same correlation within the perspective concerning the methodological courses offered at the HEP-BEJUNE. The first one introduces students to the specific aspects of research in educational sciences and accounts for the principle of Learning to know. It is an initiation into research that leads students to question what reality represents and to assume a critical posture by a process of Learning to do. The second course deepens a reflective approach while reinvesting it in the field. It highlights the relevance of the different scientific approaches connected to the teachers' professional practice, as well as the methodological aspects and the specific types of analysis that are used within the educational field (according to the principle of Learning to know). In addition, the course intends to relate these questions and the theoretical framework with the practice of research, by seeking critical reflections, the process of problematisation and the interest in analysis and scientific writing (according to the principle of Learning to do).

In conclusion, we underline the effort of Swiss universities of teacher education in proposing numerous changes over the last decades to design study programmes and curricula that promote education to and through research. In this sense, they have operated within the aim of encouraging connections between the empirical and scientific sides of knowledge (Wittorski, 2005). According to the idea that students, through their education, can build a scientific attitude as part of their future professional activity, the Charter of the HEP-BEJUNE established the foundations for a training to and through research in order to promote the application of evidence-based results for educational purposes. The comparison of this concept with the principles set out in the considered methodological courses suggests that the integration of this model of teacher education has concrete implications within the curriculum itself and highlights the need to ensure a specific quality of educational research for future teachers.

In addition, we should consider the concrete effects this methodological approach will take – both at the theoretical and empirical levels – with respect to the reflexive and professional attitudes of students who are trained within the framework of the aforementioned curriculum once they have entered the labour market. In fact, it would be useful to understand to what extent they really reinvest the skills and attitudes acquired and developed during the training in their teaching practices. How do the methodological courses designed in such a way as to build scientific knowledge which will be useful for their professional activities enable them to become aware of their scientific skills and reinvest them with their colleagues and within their classrooms? If the question of the potential effects of the integration of these research practices on teacher training remains open (Wentzel & Pagnossin, 2012), at least we can consider that the principles expressed by the Charter – principles which attempt to broaden cultural knowledge and critical reflection among teachers (Mellouki, 2010) – have an effect on the conceptualisation of courses and training curricula. They constitute the foundations for an approach aimed at favouring the acquisition of capacities of observing, understanding a situation and implementing problem-solving processes. In this sense, the HEP-BEJUNE should assume its training mission, by offering the tools that can enable students to continue their learning processes throughout their lives.

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Teaching philosophy:

▶   Teaching research in education for future teachers requires adaptation to the heterogeneous public of my courses. On the one hand, it is a question of inviting students to use the available scientific knowledge to improve their practices in schools. This point should be resolved by presenting the results of already completed studies and evidence-based practices to them. However, this is not sufficient. On the other hand, I think that it is necessary to overcome this prescriptive use of research in education. Namely, the goal is to contribute to the development of teachers' reflexive competences about different research objects in order to build or reinforce their awareness and favour scientific discussion and the professional use of research. For these reasons, my teaching activities are student-based, focused on their needs and step-by-step. This process of appropriation of a research culture is not always evident or visible: in this sense, the design needs to be constantly adapted to the students.

Francesco Arcidiacono

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Part II   Mise en œuvre d'une directive institutionnelle sur les évaluations certificatives : quelle appropriation par les acteurs concernés ?

5   Mise en œuvre d'une directive institutionnelle sur les évaluations certificatives : quelle appropriation par les acteurs concernés ?

Marie Jacobs
UER AGIRS, Haute école pédagogique Vaud, Lausanne, Suisse
marie.jacobs@hepl.ch

Paola Ricciardi Joos
Haute école de santé Vaud, Lausanne (anciennement Haute école pédagogique Vaud), Suisse
paola.ricciardijoos@hesav.ch

Résumé :

Cette enquête qui s'inscrit dans le cadre du projet Swiss-North African Academic Network (SINAN) analyse une directive officielle de notre institution, la directive 05_05 (HEP Vaud, 2017), portant sur les évaluations certificatives de notre haute école. Celle-ci vise à répondre à la question suivante: *comment les formateurs et les étudiants s'accommodent-ils de (la mise en œuvre de) l'article 11 de la Directive 05_05, selon lequel les étudiants en échec ne peuvent recevoir de retour formatif de la part de leurs formateurs durant le délai pour un possible recours ?* Les données récoltées au moyen de trois outils différents (l'entretien individuel, le focus group et le questionnaire) portent sur les représentations de trois types d'acteurs concernés par cet article 11: les responsables d'unité d'enseignement et de recherche, les formateurs et les étudiants. L'analyse de ce corpus met en évidence la complémentarité entre différentes étapes du processus de certification, depuis l'annonce des critères de certification du module au début du semestre aux retours formatifs organisés après la période officielle de consultation des épreuves, et l'importance qu'il y aurait à percevoir clairement leur fonction respective. En référence au modèle de l'acteur-réseau, les formateurs sont les véritables acteurs du pilotage de cette directive: leur inventivité contribue à affecter davantage d'utilité à cette procédure, ne la réduisant pas à un acte strictement administratif, dans la mesure où elle est accompagnée de diverses pratiques inventées qui concoururent à sa possible dimension formative et lui donnent ainsi du sens.

Mots clés :

- formation à l'enseignement
- évaluation formative
- évaluation certificative
- enseignement supérieur

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Part II   Mise en œuvre d'une directive institutionnelle sur les évaluations certificatives : quelle appropriation par les acteurs concernés ?

1.   Contexte institutionnel

1.1   La Haute école pédagogique du canton de Vaud : mission et objectifs

La Haute école pédagogique du canton de Vaud est une institution de formation tertiaire qui propose une large gamme de prestations de formation aux métiers de l'enseignement. Elle poursuit trois objectifs majeurs: offrir une formation de niveau universitaire aux futurs enseignants ainsi que des formations postgrades aux enseignants et à l'ensemble des professionnels du monde de l'éducation ; stimuler le champ de la recherche et du développement en sciences de l'éducation, notamment dans le cadre de projets de recherche internationaux ; enfin, proposer un ensemble de ressources pédagogiques aux professionnels de l'enseignement.

Quelques chiffres donnent un aperçu de sa taille. La HEP Vaud est fréquentée par plus de 3 000 étudiants, ainsi que par 9 200 professionnels inscrits à ses prestations de formation continue attestée. Les étudiants sont accompagnés dans leur parcours par plus de 280 formateurs, ainsi que par 1 325 praticiens formateurs répartis dans 128 établissements scolaires partenaires de formation. Ils reçoivent par ailleurs le soutien de plus de 100 collaborateurs des unités de support académiques, administratives et techniques (HEP Vaud, 2021).

C'est dans sa mission de formation des futurs enseignants que s'inscrit le présent travail. De manière plus détaillée, la HEP Vaud permet d'obtenir le Bachelor en enseignement pour les degrés préscolaire et primaire, le Master en enseignement pour le degré secondaire I, le Master of Advanced Studies en enseignement pour le degré secondaire II, le Master dans le domaine de la pédagogie spécialisée ainsi que plusieurs masters conjoints avec d'autres universités cantonales ou fédérales. En 2020, ces programmes comptaient 2 485 inscrits, dont 713 ont été diplômés cette année-là.

1.2   La directive sur les évaluations certificatives

Ce travail a été initié à la suite d'une des suggestions du projet Swiss-North African Academic Network (SINAN), consistant à analyser une politique ou directive officielle de notre institution en lien avec l'enseignement ou l'apprentissage. Nous avons choisi d'examiner la mise en œuvre de la directive 05_05 (HEP Vaud. 2017) portant sur les évaluations certificatives de notre haute école. Cette directive a pour objet de préciser les modalités relatives à l'évaluation certificative des prestations des étudiants aboutissant à l'octroi de crédits ECTS. Les pro-

grammes réglés par des conventions interinstitutionnelles, l'évaluation certificative de la formation pratique réalisée en stage et celle des mémoires ne sont pas considérés par cette directive. La situation particulière engendrée par la pandémie de COVID-19 a nécessité quelques ajustements via un avenant à cette directive, mais cette dernière est toujours en vigueur.

Cette directive traite essentiellement:

- de la nécessaire communication préalable des modalités de certification concernant les exigences et les critères de la certification ;

- du rôle des acteurs (formateurs, étudiants) et services (unités d'enseignement et de recherche, unité en charge de la planification, service académique, reprographie) dans les travaux préparatoires à la certification ;

- du rôle des formateurs et du service académique dans la détermination et le traitement des résultats ;

- ainsi que de la fraude et du plagiat.

Cette directive suscite des interrogations, voire incompréhensions, chez les formateurs et les étudiants de la haute école que les deux auteures de ce travail (toutes deux professeures associées)[9] ont eu l'occasion de recenser dans leur fonction respective: au moment de la remise des notes, certains formateurs et étudiants se sentent tout à fait à l'aise avec cette directive, alors que d'autres relèvent sa difficulté d'application ou son manque de sens. Auparavant, ces interrogations avaient été suffisamment nombreuses pour susciter la tenue d'une séance d'échange entre les formateurs intéressés, la direction de l'école et un avocat, qui a rappelé les droits et les devoirs des acteurs concernés et clarifié les possibilités de recours des étudiants qui seraient en désaccord avec une décision d'examen.

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9   Au moment de l'enquête, l'une assume la fonction de responsable d'un module de formation, c'est-à-dire qu'elle assure l'organisation d'un enseignement sur un semestre (constitué dans ce cas d'un cours et d'un séminaire), la coordination du travail des formateurs qui y interviennent et l'évaluation des connaissances et compétences des étudiants. L'autre est responsable du centre de soutien à l'enseignement au service des formateurs de la haute école: son rôle consiste entre autres à mener des entretiens conseils dans le domaine de la pédagogie pour l'enseignement supérieur avec les formateurs intéressés et à assurer l'évaluation des enseignements par les étudiants. Nous côtoyons donc toutes deux des formateurs et entendons des étudiants, mais dans des contextes et relations de travail différents.

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Au travers de ses différents articles, cette directive permet de s'assurer que les étudiants soient informés des dispositions réglementaires et voies de recours possibles en cas d'échec. Elle prévoit aussi la possibilité pour les étudiants en échec de consulter leur épreuve écrite. Cette consultation doit être rendue possible dans le cadre d'une permanence organisée par l'unité d'enseignement et de recherche concernée dans les dix jours qui suivent la remise des notes. Cette période de dix jours correspond au délai de recours possible de la part des étudiants qui souhaiteraient attaquer la décision du Comité de la HEP et déposer un recours auprès de la Commission de recours de la HEP Vaud (en respect des bases légales, soit la Loi 173.36 sur la procédure administrative vaudoise du 29 octobre 2008, et la Loi sur la HEP Vaud du 12 décembre 2007).

Cette consultation est elle-même réglementée en particulier par l'article 11 de la directive, qui précise les points suivants: un contrôle d'identité sera effectué à l'arrivée de l'étudiant ; l'étudiant devra s'y présenter seul; la durée de la consultation ne peut excéder 30 minutes ; le collaborateur présent lors de la permanence ne répondra pas aux questions ; il sera interdit de consulter la copie d'examen d'un autre étudiant, même sur procuration ; la prise de note est autorisée, mais il est en revanche strictement interdit de faire des copies et des photographies ou d'emporter la copie d'examen hors de la salle de consultation. La permanence de consultation des épreuves assurée par cette directive n'a donc pas pour objectif de fournir une rétroaction à l'étudiant. Il s'agit exclusivement de lui assurer un accès à son épreuve afin qu'il puisse porter un regard sur sa production à tête reposée. Les règles de consultation sont préalablement rappelées aux étudiants afin de ne pas les surprendre, au cas où ils s'attendaient à un retour sur leur épreuve pour comprendre leur échec.

A notre connaissance, le nombre de recours déposés suite à une décision de certification est limité, et cette période de consultation pourrait contribuer à le limiter encore plus. En effet, ce moment de consultation pourrait permettre à un étudiant en désaccord avec l'échec prononcé d'estimer s'il convient, à ses yeux, de recourir ou non contre cette décision. L'étudiant bénéficierait ainsi d'un temps de réflexion sur sa propre production avant d'engager, s'il le juge toujours adéquat, des démarches formelles auprès de l'école. Par ailleurs, les modalités de cette consultation ont elles aussi été conçues pour éviter que d'éventuels échanges entre formateurs et étudiants sur l'épreuve jugée insatisfaisante ne servent à alimenter l'argumentaire d'un recours d'étudiant. En effet, en commentant l'épreuve, un formateur risque de formuler des propos qui pourraient être exploités par un étudiant contre la décision du jury. L'organisation d'une rencontre à visée formative est certes

possible, mais cette rencontre ne peut avoir lieu qu'une fois la phase de consultation terminée, de manière à relever le caractère pédagogique (et aucunement légal) de cet échange.

2.   Problématique

2.1   Constats du terrain

Dans le cadre de nos activités, nous avons eu l'opportunité de relever plus spécifiquement les interrogations suivantes:

Comment être cohérent avec son enseignement ?

Lors de la consultation officielle des copies en échec, les formateurs ne peuvent pas répondre aux questions des étudiants, car la consultation est organisée dans un seul but de transparence institutionnelle si la personne en échec souhaite introduire un recours. Plusieurs formateurs estiment ne pas être en cohérence avec les propos tenus au cours de leur enseignement puisqu'ils laissent les étudiants plusieurs jours avec pour seul retour une évaluation sommative, alors même qu'ils prônent dans leur enseignement l'importance des rétroactions dans le processus d'apprentissage des élèves. Ils se sentent mal à l'aise avec le fait de ne pas pouvoir expliciter les résultats des examens aux étudiants en échec, étudiants simultanément trop déçus, fâchés ou las pour leur demander une entrevue après la période de consultation des épreuves.

Comment traiter équitablement tous les étudiants en échec durant ce moment de consultation ?

D'autres part, les échanges avec plusieurs formateurs ont révélé des interprétations et appréciations diverses quant à la mise en œuvre de cette directive. Alors que certains formateurs appliquent « à la lettre » les consignes de la directive, d'autres ne peuvent résister à la tentation de donner des pistes pour rendre la décision plus acceptable. Ils fournissent alors quelques pistes d'amélioration à leurs étudiants dans le but de rendre l'échec plus compréhensible et de les rassurer sur le fait qu'ils parviendront à une réussite à une session suivante.

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Qui choisir pour assurer la permanence ?

Se pose également la question des personnes présentes durant la période de consultation, puisque les pratiques diffèrent d'une unité à l'autre. Dans certaines unités, il est demandé uniquement aux responsables de module de participer à cette séance, alors que dans d'autres, c'est parfois un membre du personnel administratif qui accueille ces étudiants. Il demeure une certaine imprécision dans cette directive quant au rôle exact du responsable de module et de son équipe concernant la participation à cette consultation.

Comment s'assurer que les étudiants en échec obtiennent à temps la rétroaction souhaitée ?

Qu'ils respectent ou non les consignes à la lettre, les formateurs souhaitent fournir une rétroaction aux étudiants qui le souhaitent dans des délais qui permettent ensuite aux étudiants de se préparer pour la session suivante. La planification de cette rétroaction n'est pas toujours facile à organiser dans le cadre de certains parcours de formation (par exemple pour les étudiants étant en stage en responsabilité, ou lors des semaines de stage à plein temps au début de chaque semestre). Dans notre institution, les étudiants ont la possibilité d'évaluer les modules suivis juste après avoir réalisé ou rendu leurs épreuves de certification. Cette évaluation, qui prend place juste après la certification via un questionnaire en ligne, ne leur permet toutefois pas de s'exprimer sur le suivi offert par l'équipe du module lorsqu'ils ont échoué. Interroger les étudiants sur ce dernier point viendrait compléter l'avis qu'ils peuvent porter sur l'ensemble du feedback offert par leurs formateurs dans leur processus d'apprentissage.

2.2 Question de l'enquête

Si l'application de l'article 11 de la directive 05_05 produit ce type d'interrogations, voire de difficultés, c'est que celui-ci interfère directement avec la régulation de l'apprentissage de l'étudiant qui s'opère très souvent à l'université au moment de l'échec. « En échouant à une évaluation sommative lors d'une session d'examens, l'étudiant a l'occasion de mieux comprendre les exigences, peut bénéficier parfois d'une séance de révision encadrée et peut tenter de se représenter, avec des chances de succès en principe accrues, à la session d'examens suivante » (Allal, 2013, 26). La régulation de l'apprentissage, qui permet de garantir l'alignement pédagogique (Biggs, 2003)[10], se réalise grâce à quatre types de stratégies d'enseignement auxquelles a recours le formateur: fixer un but et orienter l'action vers celui-ci, contrôler sa progression, proposer un retour sur l'action, confirmer ou réorienter la trajectoire de l'action et/ou le but (Allal, 2007, 7). Or, l'annonce de l'échec déstabilise l'apprenant si celui-ci s'est engagé sérieusement dans le processus d'évaluation. La période de consultation, équivalente à deux semaines, retarde le moment d'intervention pédagogique du formateur qui devrait pouvoir offrir un retour et aider l'étudiant à mieux atteindre la cible, c'est-à-dire à répondre de manière satisfaisante aux critères de certification.

Cette période de consultation met également en tension deux rôles endossés par le formateur: celui de former et de soutenir le développement de compétences professionnelles et celui d'évaluer l'acquisition des connaissances nécessaires au développement des compétences visées. Comme le souligne Rey (2008), toute évaluation engage une relation à l'autre: « Des humains émettent des jugements sur les actions d'autres humains » (57). Si cette évaluation s'inscrit dans le cadre d'une institution, qu'elle est « technicisée » à l'aide d'objectifs de formation et de critère de certification, il ne s'agit pourtant pas d'un acte exempt de toute neutralité. L'évaluation implique un rapport à autrui. Elle questionne par conséquent le rôle du formateur dans l'accompagnement de l'étudiant. Adopter une posture juste et éthique dans l'acte d'évaluer suppose à la fois une objectivité et une extériorité par rapport à la personne qui est évaluée. « L'acte d'évaluation suppose donc la rupture, au moins provisoire, de la relation d'empathie, mais tout aussi bien d'antipathie » (Rey, 2008, 61). L'évaluateur doit rompre avec la relation de sujet à sujet qu'il avait avec l'étudiant (*ibidem*). Si cette rupture est métabolisée durant la période de correction, la période de consultation prolonge cet état de fait et brise momentanément la relation pédagogique construite avec l'étudiant. Ensuite, par rapport à son rôle d'évaluateur, il incombe au formateur de faire la preuve de sa compétence, sachant que l'évaluation a souvent été considérée comme un sujet négligé de la pédagogie universitaire (Ricci, 2006). Puisque l'article 11 de cette directive 05_05 peut potentiellement atteindre à la crédibilité de la certification (si un motif de recours est légalement valable), il questionne directement l'expertise du formateur en la matière ; surtout si la situation d'échec conditionne le parcours académique de l'étudiant (*ibidem*).

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10 En pédagogie universitaire, l'alignement pédagogique doit être établi entre les objectifs de formation, les contenus enseignés, les méthodes d'enseignement et les modalités d'évaluation (Biggs, 2003).

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Occupant l'une et l'autre des rôles complémentaires sur ce sujet, l'une ayant la responsabilité du centre de soutien à l'enseignement, la seconde exerçant comme formatrice et responsable de modules, et sur la base de nos différentes observations, il nous a semblé intéressant d'interroger plus spécifiquement l'article 11 de cette directive en posant la question suivante:

Comment les formateurs et les étudiants s'accommodent-ils de (la mise en œuvre de) l'article 11 de la Directive 05_05 selon lequel les étudiants en échec ne peuvent recevoir de retour formatif de la part de leurs formateurs durant le délai pour un possible recours ?

3.   Méthode

3.1   Acteurs ciblés dans l'enquête

Pour répondre à cette question, nous avons donc entrepris de consulter les différents acteurs directement concernés par la mise en œuvre de l'article 11 de cette directive: les responsables d'unité, les formateurs et les étudiants. Au début de notre réflexion, nous avions envisagé de rencontrer aussi des membres de la direction, dans la perspective de leur soumettre les résultats de nos observations auprès des acteurs précédemment cités. La direction aurait pu être consultée sur deux aspects: le respect de cette directive par les acteurs et son potentiel effet. Toutefois, ces deux aspects auraient nécessité une approche plus globale et quantitative de l'application de la directive au sein de la HEP Vaud, démarche peu réaliste dans le cadre de ce travail. Notre attention s'est donc concentrée sur les comportements et les représentations des responsables d'unité, des formateurs et des étudiants, avec pour objectif de mettre ainsi en lumière le sens qu'ils accordent à la permanence instaurée par la direction de leur haute école.

Nous définissons ci-dessous les acteurs concernés par cette enquête: les responsables des unités d'enseignement et de recherche, les formateurs et les étudiants.

Une unité d'enseignement et de recherche (UER) est « (...) une entité créée sur la base d'une thématique académique et professionnelle spécifique. Elle regroupe les membres du corps enseignant dont le domaine de compétence appartient à ces thématiques. » (art. 14, RLHEP). Le responsable d'UER est garant du pilotage et de la régulation de l'UER dans le respect de ses statuts (Directive 00_29 de la HEP Vaud, Mandat des unités d'enseignement et de recherche du 12 juin 2018). Il veille entre autres à « coordonner les activités des membres du

corps enseignant de son ressort et veiller au respect de leurs cahiers de charges respectifs » (Art. 4, al. c) et à « animer le fonctionnement de l'UER en vue de garantir la qualité de ses prestations d'enseignement, de recherche et de service à la cité » (Art. 4, al.e). Cela explique le rôle qui lui est attribué dans l'article 5, alinéa 1, de la directive qui nous intéresse, qui stipule que l'UER organise, pour l'ensemble des modules placés sous sa responsabilité:

1.   une permanence de consultation des épreuves ;

2.   en cas d'absence du responsable d'UER, une permanence de contact avec la direction de la formation qui, le cas échéant, fera suivre les demandes de détermination sur les recours que lui adressera la direction de la formation.

Au vu de ce qui précède, il nous a paru important de consulter *les responsables d'unité d'enseignement et de recherche:* la manière dont ces derniers planifient la consultation des épreuves pourrait refléter l'intérêt qu'ils accordent à cette pratique et le regard qu'ils portent sur elle. Il ne s'agit pas d'identifier s'ils respectent la directive mais bien plus de mettre à jour la manière dont ils l'interprètent et le sens qu'ils lui accordent. A noter que le regard d'un responsable d'unité ne peut être complètement séparé de celui qu'il porte en tant que formateur, puisqu'un responsable d'unité assume simultanément ces deux fonctions.

Les formateurs peuvent être concernés à des degrés divers par la mise en œuvre de cette consultation. Certains peuvent être sollicités pour assurer cette permanence, mais ce n'est pas la majorité. Certains reçoivent peut-être des informations détaillées sur le déroulement de cette permanence, alors que d'autres ne reçoivent probablement que quelques vagues consignes. Certains sont peut-être soucieux ou tentés de proposer un feedback formatif le plus rapidement possible, peut-être même avant la fin du délai de recours de 10 jours, alors que d'autres ne proposent une rétroaction formative que plusieurs semaines après la consultation des épreuves, voire aucune. Le contexte dans lequel les formateurs vivent ou observent le déroulement de cette permanence, ainsi que leur sensibilité propre, influencent probablement la représentation qu'ils se font de son utilité. Ici aussi, il ne s'agit pas de savoir si les formateurs respectent la directive, ni de lister de manière exhaustive les facteurs qui peuvent influencer leur représentation, mais bien plus d'explorer la valeur qu'ils accordent ou non à cette pratique.

Les étudiants en échec sont bien évidemment au centre de nos réflexions. Cette permanence a été mise en place à leur attention, pour leur permettre de revoir

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leurs copies d'examen et estimer ainsi la pertinence d'un éventuel recours. Mais cette consultation leur permet-elle de se faire leur idée à ce sujet ? Et est-elle utilisée à cette seule fin ? Une fois leurs copies consultées, les étudiants restent-ils sur leur faim quant au « feedback » ? Ici, il s'agit non pas d'observer si cette opportunité de consulter les épreuves permet de diminuer le nombre de recours, mais plutôt d'observer le ou les apports de cette possible consultation pour les étudiants.

Entretiens avec les responsables d'unité

Nous avons rencontré deux responsables d'UER (Resp-1 et Resp-2), dont l'un était responsable d'une unité disciplinaire et l'autre d'une unité transversale. Nous les avons invités séparément par courrier électronique à participer à un entretien semi-directif d'une demi-heure avec les deux auteures. Nous les invitions à consulter préalablement la directive qui allait être au centre de notre échange. Les entretiens ont été réalisés en juin 2020 et, au vu du contexte de pandémie liée au COVID, par visioconférence. L'objectif étant de récolter des informations factuelles sur l'organisation de la consultation des épreuves en échec et sur les modalités éventuelles de retours formatifs, nous avons choisi de ne pas enregistrer ces entretiens. L'une d'entre nous a pris des notes durant son déroulement tandis que l'autre menait celui-ci avec la personne interrogée.

En début d'entretien, nous avons rappelé la question centrale que nous souhaitions aborder avec eux:

> « Comment les formateurs mettent-ils en œuvre l'article 11 de la Directive 05_05, selon lequel les étudiants en échec ne peuvent recevoir de retour formatif de la part de leurs formateurs durant le délai pour un possible recours ? »

Pour ce faire, nous avons abordé les dimensions suivantes:

- **Interprétation de l'article 11 de la directive**
  - Selon vous, pourquoi l'article 11 a-t-il été rédigé ?

- **Application de l'article 11 de la directive**
  - Comment votre UER s'organise-t-elle pour l'appliquer (offrir cette période de consultation des épreuves) ?

- **Intérêt de la consultation**
  - A votre avis, que permet cette période de consultation pour ce qui est de l'apprentissage de l'étudiant ?

- **Suites données à la consultation**
  - Votre UER a-t-elle une ligne directrice pour offrir un complément de feedback suite à cette consultation ?
  - Et vous personnellement, proposez-vous une démarche complémentaire à vos propres étudiants ?

- **Suggestions concernant l'article 11 de la directive**
  - Au vu de votre expérience, auriez-vous des suggestions à faire soit en ce qui concerne le contenu même de la directive ou ses possibilités d'application ?

- **Compréhension de la directive**
  - A vos yeux, quelle est l'utilité principale de cette directive ?

Focus group avec les formateurs

Nous avons rencontré 3 formateurs dans le cadre d'un focus group d'une durée de 45 minutes. Les formateurs invités étaient rattachés à un même enseignement et tous avaient prononcé des décisions d'échecs. Dans leur pratique, ils avaient donc dû s'interroger sur la manière de gérer d'éventuelles demandes de rétroaction, voire d'éventuels recours, de leurs étudiants. Le focus group a été conduit avec le même canevas que celui des entretiens menés avec les responsables d'unité. Et ici aussi, l'une d'entre nous menait le focus group tandis que l'autre prenait des notes.

L'enseignement dans lequel ces formateurs interviennent, et plus spécifiquement ses modalités de certification, seront présentés plus en détail dans les résultats. Cela permettra de mieux saisir et contextualiser leurs propos, et de ne pas induire de généralisation quant aux regards (très probablement multiples) que les formateurs de la HEP pourraient porter sur la directive abordée dans la présente étude.

Questionnaire auprès des étudiants

Nous avons cherché à consulter des étudiants qui ont eu l'occasion de profiter de cette permanence, donc des étudiants en échec, intéressés par la possibilité de consulter leur copie et disposés à s'exprimer sur l'intérêt de cette consultation. Pour ce faire, nous avons demandé la collaboration d'une formatrice en charge de la permanence organisée par son unité pour les étudiants en échec en juin 2019. Elle a accepté de distribuer un mini-questionnaire en format papier aux étudiants à la

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sortie de la salle de consultation. Trois modules étaient concernés par cette consultation, deux d'entre eux appartenant à la filière d'études de Bachelor et le dernier aux filières Master et Mas. Pour deux modules, il s'agissait d'une seconde certification, c'est-à-dire que les étudiants présentaient une deuxième fois cette épreuve et qu'ils avaient probablement déjà été mis en échec précédemment pour ce module (excepté dans le cas d'un report). Grâce à l'implication de notre collègue, nous avons eu accès à l'avis de 29 étudiants.

Le questionnaire comportait deux courtes phrases d'introduction quant à cette étude et deux questions:

- Est-ce que cette consultation vous a été utile ? suivie d'une modalité de réponse oui/non.

- Pour quelle(s) raison(s) ? Avec un espace pour une réponse ouverte.

4. Résultats et analyse

4.1 Les responsables d'unités d'enseignement et de recherche

Le caractère purement légal de cette directive est mis en évidence pour ces deux responsables. L'un d'eux (Resp-1) souligne qu'il s'agit de reconnaître un droit aux étudiants de pouvoir consulter leur épreuve après la certification, droit qui n'est pas accordé dans d'autres institutions de formation tertiaires. Il estime également que l'institution est « moins tendue » qu'auparavant par rapport à ce risque de recours car il y aurait moins de failles juridiques. En effet, selon Resp-2, la directive se serait précisée pour limiter un nombre croissant de recours, dans le but de protéger l'institution. Elle délimite maintenant un cadre pour défendre l'institution et rassurer les étudiants. Cependant, selon celui-ci, *« On a un règlement, une loi. Ce sont des conditions anti-recours. Mais il faut laisser une certaine marge de manœuvre aux formateurs, ce que permet la directive ».*

Concernant la mise en œuvre de cette directive, et plus précisément de l'article 11, les modalités diffèrent entre les deux unités concernées. Dans l'une, les personnes en charge de cette permanence sont désignées par tournus et les responsables de modules doivent être joignables pour d'éventuels problèmes administratifs (absence d'un document par exemple). La présence même des responsables de modules sur place n'est pas souhaitable puisque cela peut concerner jusqu'à vingt modules pour un seul semestre. Dans l'autre unité,

chaque module a la responsabilité d'organiser cette consultation.

L'avis des deux personnes interrogées diffère concernant la portée formative de la période de consultation. D'après Resp-1, cette consultation peut servir à de l'auto-formation. L'étudiant, en reprenant connaissance de son épreuve, peut ainsi « *confronter ce qu'il voit en relisant sa copie et les représentations qu'il avait des raisons de son échec ».* A l'inverse, Resp-2 ne voit pas de sens pédagogique à cette consultation. Il met également en évidence le paradoxe de cette situation du point de vue du rôle du formateur (« *C'est aberrant de ne pas pouvoir donner d'explications »).* Par contre, le formulaire d'échec constitue une première occasion de retour puisque les raisons de l'insuffisance y sont justifiées. Une utilisation prudente de celui-ci (donner un pourcentage de réussite pour chaque partie de l'épreuve en évitant de préciser le détail des points) constituerait un premier feedback sur l'épreuve. Finalement, ces deux responsables remarquent que peu d'étudiants, parmi ceux ayant échoué à un examen, se présentent réellement au moment de la consultation. Il existe également un écart en fonction de la filière d'études concernée.

Nous avons également cherché à savoir s'il existait des consignes précises dans ces deux unités concernant les modalités des retours formatifs après la période légale de recours. Dans l'une des unités, ce n'est pas le cas. Dans l'autre, il est demandé à ce que tous les responsables de module soient prêts à donner un retour formatif à la demande des étudiants en échec (soit un feedback individuel, au binôme ou au groupe qui auraient collaboré pour un travail). Cependant, cette attente ne concerne pas les étudiants de Bachelor, car au vu de l'effectif très important, l'offre de retour formatif ne se fait pas à la demande.

4.2 Les formateurs

Contexte

Les formateurs rencontrés interviennent dans un module qui équivaut à 3 crédits ECTS et dépend de la filière Bachelor. Avant son démarrage, les étudiants reçoivent le document de cadrage du module qui précise les modalités et les critères de certification avec leurs indicateurs:

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« La certification du module se présente sous la forme d'un examen écrit d'une durée de 2 heures. Elle consiste à analyser des descriptions de situation d'enseignement (études de cas) à l'aide des apports du module. (...) Il/elle n'est pas autorisé(e) à emporter de document (uniquement de quoi écrire). Les téléphones portables ou tout autre outil technique sont strictement interdits. »

(Extrait du document de cadrage du module)

En juin 2019, sur 225 personnes qui ont présenté l'examen du module, 25 épreuves ont été mises en échec et trois étudiants ne se sont pas présentés. L'échec et la justification de celui-ci ont été communiqués dans un formulaire ad hoc transmis par envoi recommandé (via le service académique) au domicile de l'étudiant. Dans ce formulaire, les deux formateurs ayant examiné la copie précisent les critères insuffisants annoncés dans le document de cadrage et ce, pour chaque partie d'examen. Cependant, la grille d'évaluation critériée complétée par le formateur (qui précise le nombre de points obtenus pour chaque indicateur) n'est pas communiquée aux étudiants ni dans le formulaire d'échec ni au moment du retour formatif.

Dans le cadre de la directive 05_05, un message du responsable de module a été adressé aux étudiants ayant échoué leur examen afin de leur préciser ce qui suit :

« (...) La consultation de votre épreuve pour la certification du module X, uniquement en cas d'échec, aura lieu le vendredi 12 juillet de 10 h 00 à 12 h 00 dans la salle (...). Il s'agit d'une consultation dite 'silencieuse', qui ne peut excéder 30 minutes, durant laquelle vous pourrez lire les réponses que vous avez rédigées. Nous ne pourrons pas répondre à vos questions. La prise de note est autorisée mais il est en revanche strictement interdit de faire des copies et des photographies (par quelque moyen que ce soit) ou d'emporter la copie d'examen hors de la salle de consultation. À partir du lundi 4 août et jusqu'au vendredi 23 août, nous pourrons vous proposer un retour formatif sur votre épreuve. Vous souhaitant une agréable pause estivale (...) ».

Lors de la consultation officielle des épreuves organisée par cette unité, seuls deux étudiants se sont présentés sur 25 épreuves en échec. Une fois la période de consultation achevée, deux étudiants se sont manifestés auprès de deux formateurs différents afin de bénéficier d'un retour formatif sur leur épreuve. Ainsi, au total, quatre personnes ont pris connaissance de leur épreuve à la suite de leur échec à la certification.

Résultats

À la suite du focus group mené avec trois formateurs du module, trois éléments ressortent : la nécessité institutionnelle d'introduire cette directive, le caractère strictement administratif de cette consultation qui n'a aucune valeur formative, les limites du retour formatif proposé après la période de consultation qui est davantage utilisé à des fins de réussite que d'approfondissement des apprentissages réalisés au sein du module.

Les formateurs ont connaissance du contexte institutionnel qui explique la mise en vigueur de cette directive, nécessaire aussi bien pour protéger l'institution contre les recours juridiques et pour permettre aux étudiants d'avoir accès à leur épreuve. Cependant, l'équipe souligne le peu d'intérêt que cette consultation offre du point de vue de la formation. Elle concerne au final une minorité d'étudiants puisque la plupart d'entre eux viennent consulter leur épreuve pour comprendre leur échec. Cette consultation relève d'un acte strictement administratif qui devrait être davantage institutionnalisé puisqu'il concerne d'abord l'institution et le risque de recours. Il s'agirait de définir plus clairement les rôles de chacun lors de cette consultation et de la « faire au bon endroit », « au niveau du staff administratif ».

L'équipe témoigne ensuite de l'inconfort et de l'inadéquation avec le rôle attendu du formateur puisque celui-ci n'est pas autorisé à répondre aux questions des étudiants sur la certification et leur épreuve. Or, il est « difficile de rester de marbre devant les étudiants qui veulent comprendre et ne pas faire recours » (extrait du focus group). Dans l'UER en charge du module, c'est le responsable ou des membres de l'équipe qui accueillent les étudiants en échec lors de la consultation. Il s'ensuit des situations désagréables, et ce d'autant plus lorsque les étudiants qui consultent ont été leurs propres étudiants dans le cadre d'un séminaire ou d'un grand cours. Cela fragilise l'encadrement pédagogique puisque le formateur a le sentiment d'agir contre un principe fondamental de l'évaluation qui est de l'utiliser au service des apprentissages. La question de l'utilité de cette consultation pour la formation est clairement mise en doute par l'équipe, et ce d'autant plus qu'il n'existe pas de directive particulière concernant les examens oraux.

La nécessité de pouvoir offrir un retour formatif est un avis commun de l'ensemble des personnes interrogées, qui expriment cependant des prises de position différentes concernant sa visée et ses effets. Toutes estiment qu'il faut éviter le piège de devoir « justifier » l'échec, et donc qu'il est vain de commencer ce retour par un inventaire des points obtenus pour chaque partie de l'épreuve. Cependant, les avis sont partagés concernant le sens de ce retour formatif, entre une visée purement de réussite

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(« *On se concentre sur les outils, les clés qui leur permettront de mieux aborder la prochaine épreuve. De mieux comprendre les questions.* ») et celle qui aurait pour but d'approfondir la compréhension des contenus du module. Certains estiment qu'il s'agit surtout de rassurer l'étudiant, de l'aider à reprendre confiance en lui. Et ce, d'autant plus que l'échec est régulièrement lié à une mauvaise compréhension des consignes. Par contre, le retour formatif n'aurait pas réellement d'effet sur l'apprentissage de l'étudiant.

4.3   Les étudiants

Sur les 29 étudiants, 23 estiment que cette consultation leur a été utile, contre cinq qui pensent le contraire.

Parmi les étudiants ayant un avis favorable quant à l'utilité de cette consultation, voici les raisons invoquées pour justifier l'utilité de cette consultation. Celles-ci sont présentées en fonction de leur occurrence dans les questionnaires :

- Prendre connaissance de la grille critériée (11) ;

- Mieux comprendre les attentes et se préparer au rattrapage (10) ;

- Avoir un aperçu des erreurs commises en fonction des questions de l'examen (9) ;

- Connaître le nombre de points obtenus par critères (et leur pondération pour le calcul de la note finale) (8) ;

- Prendre note des questions d'examen (6) ;

- Lire les annotations/commentaires sur la copie (2) ;

- Prendre connaissance des réponses correctes pour vérifier sa compréhension (2) ;

- Recontextualiser l'échec en prenant connaissance de son texte (2) ;

- Rencontrer d'autres personnes en échec et pouvoir par la suite réviser ensemble (1) ;

- Poser des questions de clarification si besoin (1) ;

- Accepter l'échec grâce à cette consultation nécessaire (1).

Parmi les étudiants ayant un avis négatif quant à l'utilité de cette consultation, les raisons invoquées pour expliquer celui-ci sont présentées en fonction de leur occurrence dans les questionnaires :

- La copie n'est pas commentée, ce qui ne permet pas de comprendre comment les points ont été attribués (3) ;

- La consultation de l'épreuve ne permet pas de comprendre les éléments de réponse qui sont jugés insuffisants (3) ;

- Les corrections ne donnent pas de pistes d'amélioration, ni de précisions sur ce qui pourrait être approfondi (2) ;

- L'enseignant ne répond pas aux questions (1) ;

- La consultation de l'épreuve n'offre pas d'information complémentaire au formulaire d'échec reçu par courrier (1).

5.   Discussion et mise en perspective

La diversité des points de vue recensés auprès de ces différents acteurs reflète le sens qu'ils attribuent à plusieurs éléments constitutifs du processus de certification. Parmi eux, nous relèverons les éléments suivants :

Les fonctions initiale et alternative attribuées à la permanence

L'objectif principal visé par l'art. 11 de la directive, éviter les recours des étudiants, n'a pas été évoqué par les étudiants. Les étudiants semblent en faire un usage alternatif (ou supplémentaire) que celle pour laquelle elle a été instaurée. En effet, si certains étudiants estiment ne pas retirer d'explications de cette consultation, d'autres estiment que la consultation de leur copie leur est profitable pour mieux comprendre les raisons de leur échec, par exemple en identifiant le contenu ou la forme de leur production, ou encore en relisant les consignes de l'examen.

L'intérêt de la permanence et le rôle de la certification

Les formateurs rencontrés trouvent peu d'intérêt à la permanence de consultation. Leur attention se concentre sur l'apprentissage des étudiants quant au contenu enseigné en cours de semestre. Les étudiants expriment eux aussi leur volonté d'améliorer leur ap-

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prentissage, mais semblent parallèlement intéressés par la possibilité de trouver des stratégies pour mieux répondre à la modalité d'examen. Par exemple, la relecture de leur copie d'examen peut déjà les aider à identifier une incompréhension dans les consignes ou une écriture peu explicite pour le correcteur. Les propos d'un responsable d'unité soulignent cette différence en ce qui concerne le rôle de la rétroaction formative, possible après la permanence: elle peut porter sur le contenu ou sur la forme de l'examen, selon l'orientation que l'étudiant ou le formateur voudront bien lui donner. A noter que pour ce dernier, c'est bien sa conception du sens de la certification qui le guidera: plus il aura foi dans l'idée qu'un examen permet bel et bien d'évaluer le contenu enseigné, plus il abordera le contenu au cours de cet échange.

L'intérêt de la permanence et les modalités de correction des formateurs

Des étudiants expriment une insatisfaction suite à cette consultation car aucune annotation ne figure sur leurs copies. Ils n'en retirent de ce fait peu, voire aucune, valeur ajoutée. Ainsi, tous ne semblent pas au courant des modalités et de l'objectif de cette consultation. Après consultation des acteurs, il ressort aussi que si certains formateurs partagent à cette occasion la grille critériée complétée, ce n'est pas le cas de tous. Par ailleurs, leur manière de compléter le formulaire d'échec à la certification varie, certains y inscrivant plus d'éléments que d'autres. Enfin, en fonction des enseignements, il existe une marge quant au feedback formatif dont peuvent bénéficier les étudiants. Ainsi, c'est la complémentarité des éléments fournis à l'étudiant via le formulaire d'échec, le partage de la grille critériée complétée (du moins avec le nombre de points accordés) au moment de la permanence, l'annotation ou non des copies et la possibilité d'obtenir un feedback formatif après-coup (après le délai officiel de recours) qui vont ensemble fournir des éléments explicatifs de l'échec et dessiner l'intérêt de la permanence.

Au fond, ce que cette consultation met en relief, c'est la complémentarité entre les différentes étapes du processus de certification et l'importance qu'il y aurait à percevoir clairement leur fonction respective. Si c'est probablement ce qui est visé par la direction, notre enquête met en évidence que les acteurs concernés (les étudiants, les formateurs et peut-être les responsables de module) ne sont pas tous conscients du rôle respectif et exclusif de chacune de ces étapes. En nous appuyant sur ce constat, nous formulons quelques pistes pour accompagner et soutenir la mise en œuvre de la directive étudiée, et plus spécifiquement celle de son article 11.

6.   Pistes pour le terrain

Cette enquête descriptive a constitué, pour nous, l'occasion d'ouvrir la boîte noire occultant une diversité de pratiques liées à la mise en œuvre d'une politique institutionnelle. En référence au modèle de l'acteur-réseau (Callon, 2006), ces formateurs sont les véritables acteurs du pilotage de cette directive et opèrent sa traduction à l'aide de stratégies et d'outils communs (tels que le formulaire d'échec) ou différents. Leur inventivité contribue en retour à affecter davantage d'utilité à cette procédure, ce qui fait qu'une directive comme celle-ci n'est pas qu'un acte strictement administratif, dans la mesure où elle est accompagnée de diverses pratiques inventées par les formateurs qui concourent précisément à sa possible dimension formative et lui donnent ainsi du sens. En retour, ces acteurs-formateurs pourraient participer à la co-construction de celle-ci en s'appuyant sur les connaissances produites suite à son application. Parmi ces connaissances, tirées des résultats d'analyse présentés pour cette contribution, nous proposons, en guise d'ouverture, plusieurs pistes pratiques pouvant contribuer à son amélioration:

1. Tout d'abord, l'analyse des propos des acteurs interrogés pour cette enquête met en lumière la nécessité de présenter les critères de certification au moment du démarrage du module d'enseignement et de s'y référer lorsqu'il faut justifier l'échec.

2. L'utilisation du formulaire d'échec et la manière de le compléter apparaît comme un second levier important. Nous avons observé plusieurs logiques d'action parmi les acteurs interrogés quant à la manière de le compléter. La possibilité de pouvoir se référer à un formulaire d'échec contenant des commentaires précis concernant les critères de certification insuffisants constituerait une occasion d'auto-formation au moment de la consultation de son épreuve. Certains formateurs font une copie du formulaire d'échec en vue de la consultation (formulaire que l'étudiant a préalablement reçu par courrier recommandé) afin de le remettre à l'étudiant si celui-ci a oublié son exemplaire.

3. Nous avons également pu remarquer l'importance de soigner la communication relative à l'organisation de cette consultation et à ses objectifs principaux. C'est-à-dire, informer systématiquement les étudiants sur leurs droits et leurs devoirs de manière uniforme, toutes unités et filières confondues. Ces éléments pourraient également faire l'objet d'une communication officielle de la part du service administratif compétent ou de la direction.

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4. Une réflexion sur la désignation des personnes présentes durant la consultation des épreuves en échec constituerait également une piste d'action utile. Il semble que ni le responsable, ni les membres de l'équipe du module soient nécessaires au bon déroulement de celle-ci. Cette organisation gagnerait en efficacité si elle était institutionnalisée davantage au niveau de sa prise en charge ou si elle était centralisée au sein de chacune des UER.

5. Enfin, les représentations des étudiants nous invitent à réfléchir à la possibilité de définir une manière commune de partager la grille d'évaluation critériée après le délai officiel pour l'introduction d'un recours. Il existe, vraisemblablement, des disparités en fonction des unités et des filières sur les modalités du retour formatif proposés aux étudiants (en lien par exemple avec l'effectif important des étudiants de Bachelor). La possibilité de mettre à disposition cette grille critériée offrirait la garantie que chacun puisse obtenir un retour plus abouti sur son épreuve en échec.

Tel que mentionné au cours de ce texte, notre objectif n'est pas de faire diminuer le nombre de recours à la HEP Vaud, ni de vérifier si la directive est correctement appliquée par le personnel d'enseignement et de recherche de l'HEP Vaud, mais bien plus de saisir le sens que chaque acteur a attribué à la période de consultation des épreuves d'examen. Alors qu'on aurait pu croire qu'elle avait peu de sens du moins pour certains acteurs, on réalise que les points de vue divergent. C'est la clarification de chacune des étapes, de l'annonce de la grille critériée jusqu'aux modalités du retour formatif, qui permettra de donner du sens à l'ensemble du processus de certification, et donc à la directive 05_05. Avec un rapport coût-bénéfice qui reste à évaluer: c'est-à-dire le coût de cette clarification pour aboutir à une limitation du nombre de recours et à une amélioration de l'apprentissage des étudiants, tant en matière de contenu que d'apprivoisement des stratégies à adopter pour réussir un examen.

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Remerciements

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Teaching philosophy:

▶ I try to follow four strategies in facilitating and supervising the lectures:

1. make the student active during the course to anchor their learning in a sustainable way (case studies, sharing of practices, debates),

2. argue the value of the activities requested (pedagogical intentions), and

3. increase the student's sense of control of learning contents (achievements, appropriation of theoretical concepts, knowledge institutionalisation) and finally

4. favour a dynamic pace in the course of the lesson by using different working methods.

Marie Jacobs

6   Pratiques enseignantes et émotivité : une étude exploratoire auprès de futurs enseignants

Rym Laribi
Institut Supérieur des Cadres de l'Enfance, Université de Carthage (UR AME) Tunis, Tunisie
rymlaribi67@gmail.com

Abdelmajid Naceur
Institut Supérieur de l'Education et de la Formation Continue, Université virtuelle (UR ECOTIDI) Tunis, Tunisie
psynaceur@yahoo.fr

Résumé :

L'émotion est devenue un thème d'actualité incontournable dans le champ d'investigation de la psychologie. Depuis plusieurs années, un nombre croissant de travaux tentent d'explorer le rôle des émotions dans la compréhension des différents processus cognitifs. Des études en psychologie ont souligné l'impact des émotions ressenties au travail sur la motivation. Il est désormais admis que les émotions ont une influence sur la prise de décision.

Dans ce travail, nous tenterons de comprendre la dimension de l'émotivité chez l'enseignant en rapport avec la conception de la pratique enseignante. Par comportement émotif, nous comprenons un « comportement émotif et motivé ». Nous analyserons la dimension motivationnelle et l'engagement émotionnel chez le futur enseignant à l'université pour mieux comprendre la pratique enseignante telle qu'il la perçoit.

Mots clés :

- émotivité

- pratiques enseignantes

- conation

- cognition

- apprentissage émotif et motivé

1.   Introduction

Le choix professionnel est un processus complexe relevant des déterminants de types cognitif et conatif. Les émotions sont omniprésentes. Cependant, dans le domaine du travail, la dimension cognitive des pratiques professionnelles était considérée comme la dimension logique et opposée à la dimension conative.

L'ensemble des recherches présentées dans ce travail décrit des phénomènes inhérents à la relation conation (conation = émotion et motivation) / cognition, en particulier entre émotion et cognition, afin de mieux comprendre les pratiques enseignantes et de les penser autrement à la lumière des connaissances nouvelles et actualisées en psychologie cognitive et en neurosciences.

Différentes recherches montrent que les conceptions des enseignants influencent leurs pratiques professionnelles (Trigwell & Prosser, 2004 et Langevin, 2007). Nous nous intéressons dans cet article aux conceptions de doctorants futurs enseignants universitaires potentiels. L'étude empirique a été réalisée, au moyen d'une évaluation papier-crayon, auprès de doctorants de diverses spécialités scientifiques. Plus précisément, il s'agit d'identifier les conceptions du processus enseignement-apprentissage véhiculées, les compétences de l'enseignant-chercheur qui sont valorisées par ces étudiants et les motivations du choix du métier d'enseignant universitaires.

Cette étude vise à examiner l'articulation de deux facteurs :

1.   les motivations à devenir enseignant et

2.   les conceptions sur les pratiques enseignantes.

Nous postulons que la cognition, l'engagement émotionnel et la motivation sont intégrées dans un système cognitivo-affectif global (Masmoudi & Naceur, 2010) à l'origine de pratiques professionnelles adaptés aux situations. Dans ce cadre, le questionnement principal soulevé dans ce papier de recherche se présente comme suit:

Comment et dans quelle mesure la dimension « émotivité » influence-t-elle les conceptions des pratiques professionnelles et le rapport au métier chez les futurs enseignants universitaires ?

Nous conjecturons des liens multiples entre émotivité (dimensions émotionnelles et motivationnelles) et conceptions de la pratique enseignante à l'université. Selon Postareff & Lindblom-Ylänne (2011), Trigwell (2012),

Frenzel (2014) et Hagenauer & Volet (2014), plus l'enseignant ressent des émotions positives, plus son enseignement est centré sur l'apprenant et plus il parvient à créer des relations proches avec les apprenants.

Partant de ces résultats, nous émettons l'hypothèse que les formes de conceptions par les futurs enseignants de la pratique professionnelle sont associées à leurs motivations d'exercer ce métier. Nous supposons que les personnes qui se sentent motivées à choisir le métier d'enseignant se projettent dans une attitude relationnelle plus épanouie que ceux qui sont moins motivées. En conjecturant que ces caractéristiques se reflètent dans la pratique, un lien peut être attendu entre une conception centrée sur l'apprenant et la motivation. Au contraire, une motivation extrinsèque pour exercer le métier d'enseignant se manifesterait par une conception centrée sur le programme ou sur l'enseignant.

Pour répondre à cette problématique et montrer en quoi les émotions peuvent constituer un levier dans le choix du métier et dans la conception des pratiques enseignantes, cette étude tentera d'apporter une contribution, au-delà des contributions empiriques spécifiques, à l'analyse plus générale des pratiques enseignantes en tant qu'activité cognitive orientée par le conatif. Ensuite, nous présenterons des réflexions autour d'un nouveau modèle d'apprentissage, appelé « émotivité dans l'apprentissage ». En effet, le futur enseignant se retrouve dans une posture rappelant celle de l'apprenant, qui n'est pas sans appréhension.

2.   Cadre théorique

Pour saisir l'importance de la dimension motivationnelle et émotionnelle dans les pratiques enseignantes, nous abordons les principaux concepts mobilisés dans cette recherche, à savoir la pratique enseignante, les émotions, la motivation et le modèle de l'apprentissage émotif et motivé.

2.1   Les conceptions

Comme Charlier (1998), nous admettons que les conceptions sont des constructions mentales individuelles en interaction avec son environnement. Les conceptions représentent « ... un modèle personnel d'organisation des connaissances par rapport à un problème donné » (Migne 1969).

On distingue deux types de conceptions diamétralement opposées de l'enseignement, l'une centrée sur l'enseignant et l'autre centrée sur l'étudiant (Kember, 1997, Bachmann, 2018).

Selon Loiola et Tardif (2001), même au début de leurs carrières les enseignants ont leur propre conception de l'enseignement qui leur permet d'interpréter et d'appréhender la réalité (Langevin 2007), et donc de déterminer dans une certaine mesure leur pratique professionnelle (Pratt, 1992). Il paraît ainsi pertinent de tenir compte des conceptions dans la formation des enseignants, comme le soutiennent plusieurs auteurs (Giordan, 1998 et Grandtner, 2007).

2.2   Les pratiques enseignantes

Partant du fait que l'acte d'enseigner demande des compétences d'ordres théorique, pratique (Gohier *et al.*, 2001) et affectif (Hargreaves, 2001), nous admettons que la conception des pratiques enseignantes porte sur la dimension cognitive (connaissances, conduites, habiletés) et « émotive » déterminant le rapport à la profession enseignante (émotions et motivation).

En accord avec les auteurs Demougeot-Lebel & Perret (2010) qui avancent que « l'expérience d'enseignement est associée à des conceptions typées » (69) et en référence à Clanet (2001) qui constate que la pratique professionnelle « intègre des dimensions fonctionnelles, mais également intellectuelles, affectives, téléologiques et axiologiques » (328), nous pensons que la question des liens entre la dimension « émotivité » et les conceptions des pratiques professionnelles, chez les futurs en-

seignants universitaires, devient de plus en plus importante.

Selon Altet (1994), le concept de pratique d'enseignement repose principalement sur une dimension personnelle comportementale, qu'on relie à l'engagement émotionnel et motivationnel, et une dimension cognitive. La plupart des futurs enseignants transmettent leur propre modèle scolaire dans le milieu du travail.

Si l'étude des conceptions des futurs enseignants permet de réfléchir sur les profils de pratiques enseignantes, l'étude de la dimension émotionnelle dans ces pratiques permettrait de montrer qu'il y a négligence de l'émotivité au profit de la professionnalité, ce que traduit une essentialisation des compétences professionnelles de l'enseignant universitaire.

2.3   Les émotions

Selon Scherer et Sangsue (2004), l'émotion est une « réaction organisée et utile à une situation donnée » (12). Pour Lazarus (1991), l'émotion, littéralement « mouvement vers l'extérieur », est un « état complexe de l'organisme qui implique des changements corporels [...] et sur le plan mental, un état d'excitation ou de perturbation, marqué par un sentiment profond, et habituellement une pulsion amenant à une forme définitive de comportement » (36).

Hess (2004) et Kappas & Descôteaux (2004) admettent que l'émotion possède plusieurs composantes: l'expérience subjective, la réponse physiologique et les réactions expressives et comportementales.

En se référant à Saád (2006), on peut considérer que les pratiques enseignantes, pour être efficaces, doivent être imprégnées par la dimension « émotivité », qui peut se refléter dans leurs méthodes, les approches employées ainsi que dans leur comportement.

Le choix du métier est donc, en partie, déterminé par une composante personnelle influencée par le vécu des futurs enseignants et la relation qu'ils établissent avec l'enseignant. Selon Forgas (2003), les perceptions se forment lentement et changent difficilement et non seulement sous l'effet de la dimension cognitive.

2.4   La motivation

En admettant que la motivation est un « ensemble de désir et de volonté qui pousse à accomplir une tâche ou à viser un objectif qui correspond à un besoin » (Legendre 1993), nous soutenons qu'elle détermine les pratiques professionnelles des enseignants.

Pour l'enseignant, l'engagement motivationnel du type extrinsèque ou intrinsèque représente une composante déterminante de la dimension affective du métier.

Pour Williams et Burden (1997), la motivation est « un état d'éveil cognitif et émotionnel qui mène à une décision consciente d'agir et qui provoque une période d'effort intellectuel et/ou physique, pour atteindre un but fixé au préalable ». Deci et Ryan (1985, 2000) distinguent deux formes de motivation:

- La motivation intrinsèque : La motivation intrinsèque se traduit par la curiosité, la recherche de sens, le plaisir de relever un défi, le plaisir sensoriel… C'est la motivation la plus libre, totalement autodéterminée. C'est celle qui émane de l'individu lui-même, sans contrainte externe.

- La motivation extrinsèque se décline sous sept formes: le souci du métier, la crainte de la punition, l'espoir d'une récompense, la compétition, l'imitation, l'identification au maître et l'intérêt vital. Ces deux types de motivations peuvent être complétés par l'amotivation ou l'absence de motivation. « Le cas d'un étudiant engagé dans un cheminement universitaire et qui se questionnerait sur les raisons qui le poussent à poursuivre ses études, puisqu'il n'en voit pas les bénéfices à long terme. » (Piché, 2003). Cet exemple d'étudiant peut être l'étudiant futur enseignant qui à aucun moment n'a souhaité devenir enseignant.

- En se référant à la proposition théorique de Kyriacou et Coulthard (2000), les principales motivations à devenir enseignant se déclinent en trois catégories:

  - Les motivations altruistes en relation avec l'engagement professionnel. Ces motivations portent sur le désir d'aider autrui à réussir ou de contribuer à l'amélioration de la société.

  - Les motivations intrinsèques en relation avec l'attachement et l'engagement émotionnels vis à vis de la profession sont liées à l'intérêt pour l'enseignement et à l'épanouissement lié à la pratique du métier.

  - Les motivations extrinsèques liées à la rémunération aux vacances et le prestige lié au statut social de la profession.

2.5   Le PCD (Percept, Concept, Décision) : pour un modèle intégratif émotif et motivé

Le choix professionnel est un processus complexe qui peut relever du modèle de l'Apprentissage Émotif et Motivé. En effet, la plupart des travaux admettent que le choix professionnel est une décision consciente résultant d'un traitement émotionnel, motivationnel et cognitif.

Le PCD : un paradigme se construit

Notre première ébauche concernant la réflexion sur le lien entre le cognitif et le conatif a été pensée voici quelques années à l'occasion de la première conférence internationale Cem07 (Cognition, Emotion et Motivation 2007). Cette ébauche a été rédigée dans un chapitre intitulé *« Peut-on comprendre le fonctionnement cognitif sans comprendre ce qui l'oriente ? »* (Naceur et Masmoudi, 2008) et représente en quelque sorte l'un des précurseurs d'une question qui nous a pendant longtemps préoccupés en tant que psychologues de la cognition: penser autrement le traitement humain de l'information. Un cheminement partant du contact de l'homme avec le monde extérieur jusqu'à l'utilisation des connaissances dans la résolution de problème et la prise de décision, en passant par la construction et l'organisation de représentations. Les recherches avancées en psychologie cognitive sur l'émotion et la motivation venaient à temps pour approfondir notre pensée.

Masmoudi & Naceur (2010) ont tenté de développer et d'enrichir la réflexion sur la relation entre la cognition et la conation et son impact sur le comportement, en particulier le comportement de l'apprenant et de l'enseignant. Aujourd'hui, le conatif, essentiellement les processus de l'émotion et de la motivation, n'est plus conçu comme frein ou entrave, mais bien comme une importante source d'enrichissement du fonctionnement humain (Rimé, 2010). Plusieurs auteurs ont avancé l'hypothèse selon laquelle l'émotion n'est pas une simple variable ayant une influence sur l'activité cognitive, mais un traitement émotionnel (TE) et motivationnel (TM) de l'information venant de l'environnement (Dai & Sternberg, 2004 ; Damasio, 2003 ; Masmoudi, Dai & Naceur, sous presse ; Naceur, 2010). Ils soutiennent que ces mêmes traitements touchent les trois éléments de notre paradigme PCD (percept, concept et décision).

Chez l'enseignant, le traitement émotionnel de l'environnement scolaire et des relations avec les élèves, les parents, les collègues est en lien direct avec son intérêt et sa motivation à poursuivre son action éducative et enseignante.

Nous constatons que le paradigme proposé, le PCD (Percept – Concept – Décision), présente une opportunité intéressante dans la mesure où il permet l'intégration du processus conatif de l'enseignant (processus motivo-émotionnel) dans son fonctionnement cognitif (perception, compréhension, raisonnement). Il rend possible l'intégration des traitements émotionnels (TE) motivationnels (TM) et cognitifs (TC). Il représente ainsi une évolution importante par rapport à l'ancien paradigme STR (Stimulus – Traitement-Réponse) basé sur des principes assez réductionnistes du fonctionnement cognitif. Les applications de ce paradigme sont multiples. Elles touchent les domaines comme l'enseignement, la communication, la santé, etc. Elles couvrent également les différentes formes d'apprentissage.

Dans ce travail, nous nous référons à ce nouveau paradigme intégratif pour expliquer et repenser la pratique professionnelle de l'enseignant.

Nous nous proposons de présenter ci-dessous quelques éléments de réflexion autour du modèle de *l'apprentissage émotif et motivé* (AEM) (Naceur, 2013), un modèle théorique basé sur le paradigme PCD.

Une perspective: le modèle de l'Apprentissage Émotif et Motivé (AEM)

Nous avons opté dans ce travail de transposer le modèle AEM pour comprendre les liens entre la conception des pratiques professionnelles et les dimensions « émotivationnelles » chez le future enseignant. Nous commençons d'abord par présenter le modèle développé par Naceur et Masmoudi (2008, 2010, 2011).

En proposant d'associer le schéma du PCD au développement d'un nouveau modèle d'apprentissage, l'apprentissage émotif et motivé (AEM), quatre composantes sont simultanément prises en compte: le traitement cognitif (TC), le traitement émotionnel (TE), le traitement motivationnel (TM) et l'action située (AS). Ce modèle prend en compte non seulement l'apprenant en tant que récepteur passif de connaissance, mais surtout l'apprenant en tant que « personne », avec comme premier objectif d'optimiser la qualité de son apprentissage en tenant compte surtout de ses connaissances, de ses capacités de gestion émotionnelle et motivationnelle et de sa compétence à agir dans un contexte bien défini.

Souvent, seul le niveau cognitif est envisagé pendant l'enseignement. La cognition ici est définie en termes d'acquisition, de stockage et d'utilisation d'informations.

Ceci peut s'expliquer par la place de l'évaluation sommative dans le système éducatif tunisien. Elle est employée à la fin d'un cycle et a pour objectif de dresser un bilan des connaissances et des compétences des élèves.

Cette évaluation doit être conforme au curriculum prescrit non seulement sur le plan de la dimension cognitive mais aussi sur le plan des contenus.

L'apprentissage des compétences et le traitement des informations sont bien entendu cruciaux, mais la dimension conative avec sa composante émotionnelle doit être introduite. Cette dimension est particulièrement importante pour connaître les intentions, les préférences, les sentiments et les besoins de l'apprenant, mais aussi pour construire avec lui sa motivation. Ceci est valable pour l'enseignant qui se trouve dans une posture similaire à celle de l'apprenant. En effet il va s'agir, pour l'enseignant, d'accepter que la résolution d'une situation problématique d'enseignement nécessite un renvoi à la dimension « apprentissage », qui est en tension avec la dimension « enseignement ».

La composante de l'action située est également à considérer. Comme l'apprenant, l'enseignant n'utilise pas seulement les ressources directement en rapport avec la tâche, mais exploite créativement tous les outils à sa disposition (Masmoudi, Tazarki & Naceur, 2008). Les actions sont toujours socialement et physiquement situées, et la situation est essentielle à l'interprétation de l'action (Nardi, 2005 ; Visetti, 1989). Selon Suchman (1987), la situation couvre un complexe de ressources et de contraintes, qui peuvent jouer un rôle significatif sans pour autant que ce rôle soit nécessairement réductible à un jeu de représentations mentales préalablement objectivées dans les appareils cognitifs (figure 1).

Le modèle (AEM) (modèle d'émotivité de l'apprentissage) illustre la relation dynamique entre le processus cognitif (PCD) et le processus conatif (TE et TM) dans le développement de l'apprentissage. Le modèle intègre le traitement émotionnel et le traitement motivationnel. Ces derniers modulent notre parcours mental (PCD), partant du percept jusqu'à la prise de décision, en passant par la formation des concepts.
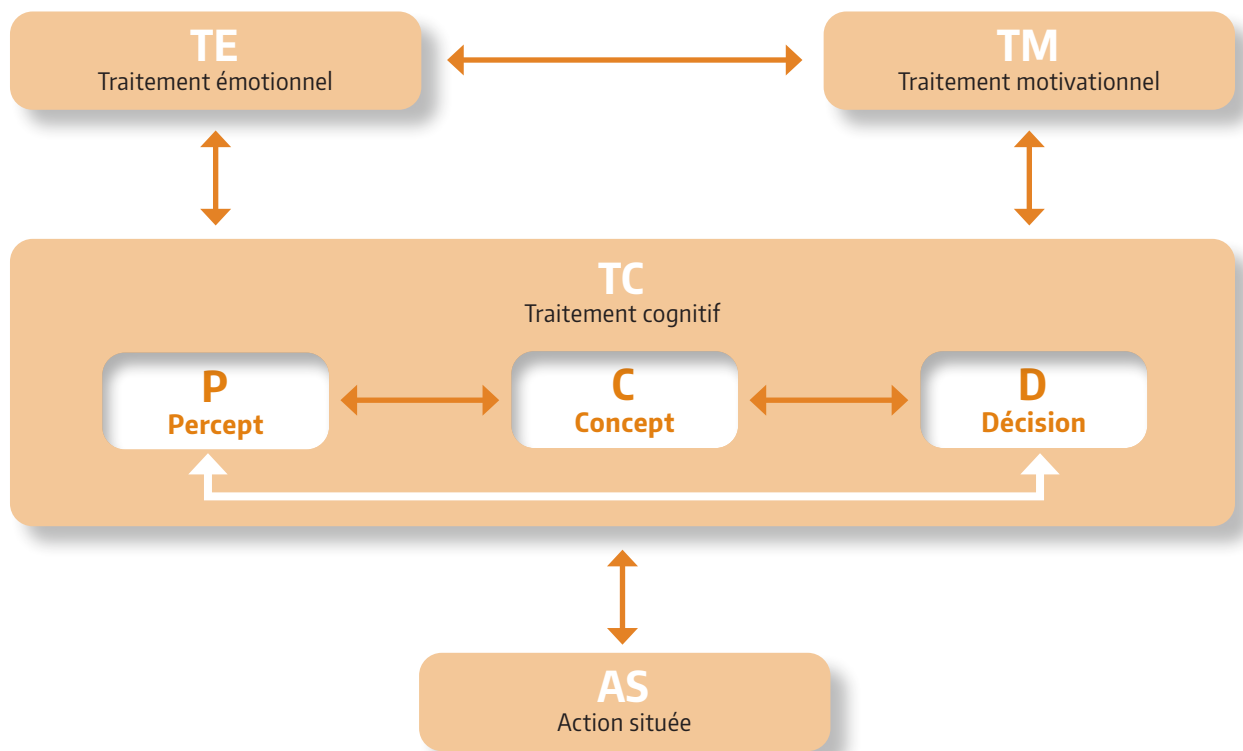
Figure 1 : Modèle de l'apprentissage émotif et motivé (AEM) ; Modèle AEM (Masmoudi & Naceur, 2010)

- **Le percept** n'est pas qu'un simple stimulus dans l'environnement, mais une représentation mentale de ce stimulus. Il résulte à la fois d'un traitement ascendant (dirigé par les données) et d'un traitement descendant (dirigé par les concepts et les connaissances).

- **Le concept** est l'entité qui permet d'interpréter et de représenter les informations du monde externe (et interne) mais aussi d'organiser les connaissances afin de les retrouver dans des contextes appropriés. La construction et l'organisation des connaissances se réalisent à partir de la formation des concepts (l'encodage). Les concepts jouent un rôle fondamental dans la gestion des liens entre les processus perceptifs et les processus décisionnels.

- **La prise de décision** est un ensemble de processus cognitifs nous permettant de choisir une option parmi plusieurs alternatives. Elle fait appel à nos connaissances antérieures et à nos processus perceptifs.

Les trois composantes (cognitive, émotionnelle et motivationnelle) permettent à l'enseignant d'améliorer ses processus d'adaptation et d'agir de manière adaptée (action située).

Tout d'abord, pour apprendre, le sujet va s'appuyer sur une dimension cognitive : il va faire des liens entre ses connaissances, confronter son vécu, construire des représentations et chercher des moyens pour comprendre et assimiler l'information. Toutefois, l'enseignant va changer de comportement cognitif s'il est touché sur le plan émotionnel et motivationnel. Selon le modèle de l'auto-détermination, différentes raisons telles que l'intérêt, le plaisir la et la satisfaction poussent l'individu à se livrer à une activité (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Ces éléments ne relèvent pas seulement d'un sentiment subjectif, mais résultent d'un traitement émotionnel et motivationnel. Toutefois, le changement n'est possible que lorsque l'enseignant réussit à effectuer une action située ; il doit agir d'une façon précise selon un contexte bien défini.

Ainsi, cognition, émotion et motivation sont bien intégrées dans un système cognitivo-conatif produisant des comportements d'apprentissage intelligents adaptés aux situations.

3.   Méthodologie

3.1   Méthode de recueil des données

Nous avons opté pour la démarche quantitative par le questionnaire, afin de récolter les données provenant d'un éventail très diversifié de futurs enseignants et nécessaires pour la vérification de nos hypothèses :

- **H1 :** il existe un lien entre les conceptions des pratiques professionnelles et la perception de la relation enseignant/étudiant chez les futurs enseignants à l'université.

- **H2 :** il existe un lien entre les motivations et les conceptions des pratiques professionnelles chez les futurs enseignants à l'université.

- **H3 :** il existe un lien entre les émotions et le choix du métier d'enseignant à l'université.

- **H4 :** il existe un lien entre les choix du métier et le profil des pratiques enseignantes.

Les variables de notre recherche sont :

- la variable dépendante: « le profil de la pratique professionnelle » ;

- la variable indépendante, l'« émotivité », qui dans notre étude se décline en 3 sous-variables (engagement émotionnel, perception de la relation enseignant/étudiant et motivation externe).

3.2   Elaboration du questionnaire

Le questionnaire définitif (cf. annexe n°1) comprend une page d'accueil informant la personne interrogée de l'objectif de l'enquête et de la garantie d'anonymat. Il est divisé en trois items et comporte 8 questions.

Le premier item porte sur les données personnelles, le second s'intéresse aux conceptions des pratiques professionnelles des futurs enseignants à l'université, et le dernier du rapport au métier comme le montre le tableau.

Ce questionnaire comprend trois types de questions: des questions fermées dichotomiques (oui/non) associées à des demandes de précision ouvertes, des questions à choix multiples et des questions ouvertes. Ces

questions permettraient la caractérisation des différentes conceptions des pratiques professionnelles ainsi que du rapport au métier.

Items	Catégories
Renseignements personnels	- Données personnelles - Informations sur la formation pédagogique
Pratiques professionnelles des futurs enseignants	- Liaison étroite entre l'enseignement universitaire et la recherche - Spécificité de l'enseignement et de l'apprentissage en milieu universitaire - Modalités / Procédures de planification d'une activité pédagogique.
Rapport au métier	- Compétences fondatrices spécifiques à la profession enseignante - Qualités d'un bon enseignant - Motivations du choix de métier

Tableau 1 : Composition du questionnaire

Diffusion du questionnaire :

Le recueil des données est réalisé sous forme d'une évaluation papier-crayon. Le questionnaire a été adressé aux étudiants au début des séances de travaux dirigés.

La population / L'échantillon

Cette étude repose sur une analyse empirique à partir de données collectées auprès de doctorants de différentes disciplines scientifiques qui pourraient devenir des enseignants universitaires. La population cible est constituée de 146 doctorants âgés de 20 à 30 ans, inscrits en mastères auprès de différents laboratoires de recherche de l'université de Carthage et l'université Tunis El Manar en Tunisie. Nous avons opté pour un échantillonnage du type « boule de neige » qui consiste à diffuser le questionnaire à des doctorants n'exerçant pas de métier, puis de leur demander de le diffuser à d'autres personnes qu'ils connaissent ayant un profil similaire.

Cette méthode constitue une alternative intéressante aux méthodes d'échantillonnage classiques. Certes elle ne fournit pas un échantillon représentatif, mais elle est très simple à mettre en œuvre dans le cadre d'une recherche d'investigation.

3.3   Méthodes de traitement des données

Dans un premier temps, nous avons déterminé a posteriori, à partir des réponses des étudiants, les conceptions des modèles d'enseignement.

D'après Prosser et Trigwell (2004) les conceptions de l'enseignement se situent dans un intervalle limité, d'un côté, par une conception magistro-centrée de l'enseignement, où l'enseignant privilégie les contenus. De l'autre côté, une conception de l'enseignement où les étudiants sont au centre du processus d'enseignement et d'apprentissage, dite pédo-centrée ou centrée sur l'apprenant, dans laquelle l'enseignant se préoccupe d'accompagner les étudiants dans leurs apprentissages. Nous avons noté que les conceptions des futurs enseignants concernant l'enseignement sont exclusivement du type « magistro-centrée » et qu'aucune référence à la conception « pédo-centrée » n'a été relevée dans le corpus de la recherche.

Nous avons retenu trois variantes de conceptions à tendance « magistro-centrée » :

- **Conception mixte** équilibrée où les références à l'enseignant et l'apprenant sont équilibrées dans les réponses des personnes interrogées : Catégorie C1.

- **Conception mixte orientée vers le modèle centré sur l'enseignant :** Catégorie C2. Dans cette catégorie, les sujets sont l'enseignant et l'apprenant, mais l'apprenant demeure passif.

- **Conception exclusive orientée vers le modèle centré sur l'enseignant :** Catégorie C3. Dans cette catégorie, le sujet des propos dans le corpus étudié est exclusivement l'enseignant.

Dans un second temps, nous nous sommes intéressés aux composantes du métier mobilisées par les futurs enseignants.

Les recherches de B. Hamre *et al.* (2013) appuient les résultats de recherches antérieures qui définissent la pratique enseignante comme un construit multidimensionnel autour de trois domaines :

- **Le domaine des interactions** dont les composantes relèvent du registre émotionnel et relationnel ;

- **Le domaine didactique-épistémique** qui relève du registre cognitif se rapportant à l'organisation des savoirs et à la structuration et la régulation de l'apprentissage ;

- **Le domaine pédagogique** qui relève du registre regroupant l'organisation et la gestion de la classe et des conditions d'apprentissage.

La nature de la recherche permet une analyse de données majoritairement quantitative. Pour tester les variables, nous avons utilisé le logiciel EXCEL lors des analyses quantitatives pour les données du questionnaire. Les résultats de l'analyse sont présentés dans des tableaux et sur des graphiques.

Pour mettre en relation deux variables, nous avons opté pour un seuil de signification ou marge d'erreur liée à la taille de l'échantillon, elle est égaale à 1% pour notre étude.

4.   Résultats et discussion

La quasi-totalité des doctorants émettent le souhait de devenir enseignant universitaire.

La majorité des étudiants n'a pas eu de formation en pédagogie. Néanmoins, certains ont suivi une formation suite à leur exercice d'un enseignement au primaire ou au secondaire[11].

L'analyse des données concernant les tendances des pratiques professionnelles chez les futurs enseignants potentiels et les composantes du métier qu'ils mobilisent révèle les résultats suivants :

4.1   Les tendances des conceptions de l'enseignement
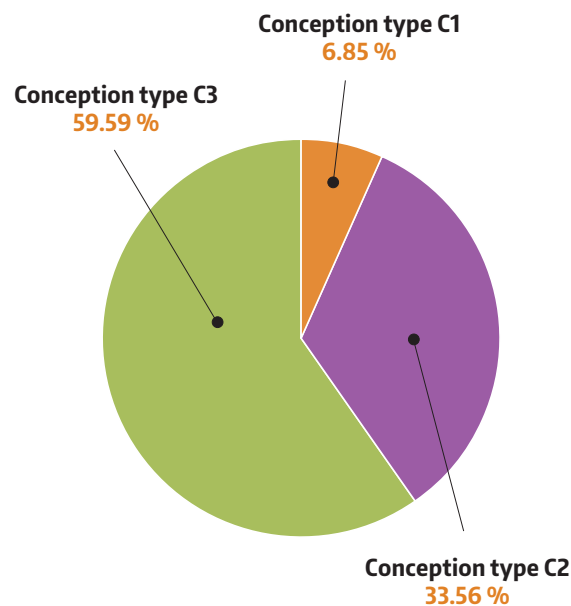
Figure 2 : Conceptions de l'enseignement par les futurs enseignants

Pour définir l'enseignement, les doctorants se réfèrent exclusivement au modèle centré sur l'enseignant (« magistro-centrée »).

La figure 2 laisse entrevoir que ces conceptions des futurs enseignants se déclinent en trois catégories :

- Une conception mixte équilibrée : C1

- Une conception mixte davantage orientée vers le modèle centré sur l'enseignant : C2

- Une conception exclusive orientée vers le modèle centré sur l'enseignant : C3

4.2   Les composantes du métier
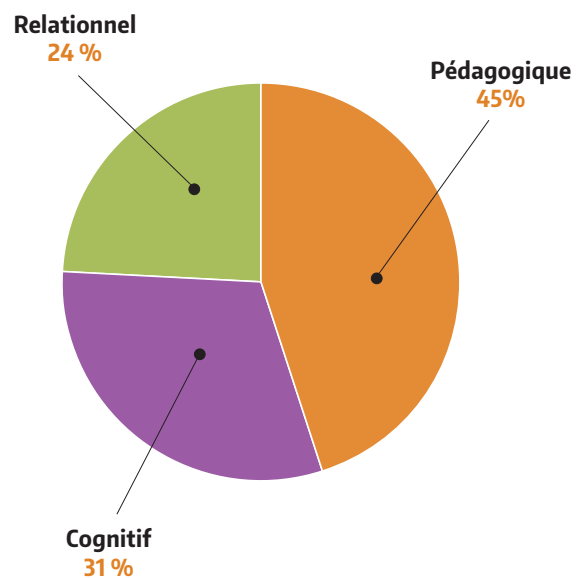
Figure 3 : Répartition des enseignants en fonction les domaines du métier

La figure 3 fait ressortir les trois domaines constitutifs des pratiques enseignantes: relationnel, pédagogique et cognitif. Il apparaît que dans sa pratique, le futur enseignant privilégie les composantes du domaine cognitif et accorde moins d'importance au domaine relationnel. Cette figure montre :

- une prédominance du domaine didactique-épistémique (45 %) ;

- suivi du domaine pédagogique (31 %).

- et enfin du domaine interactionnel (24 %).

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11   Certains doctorants sont des enseignants du primaire ou du secondaire
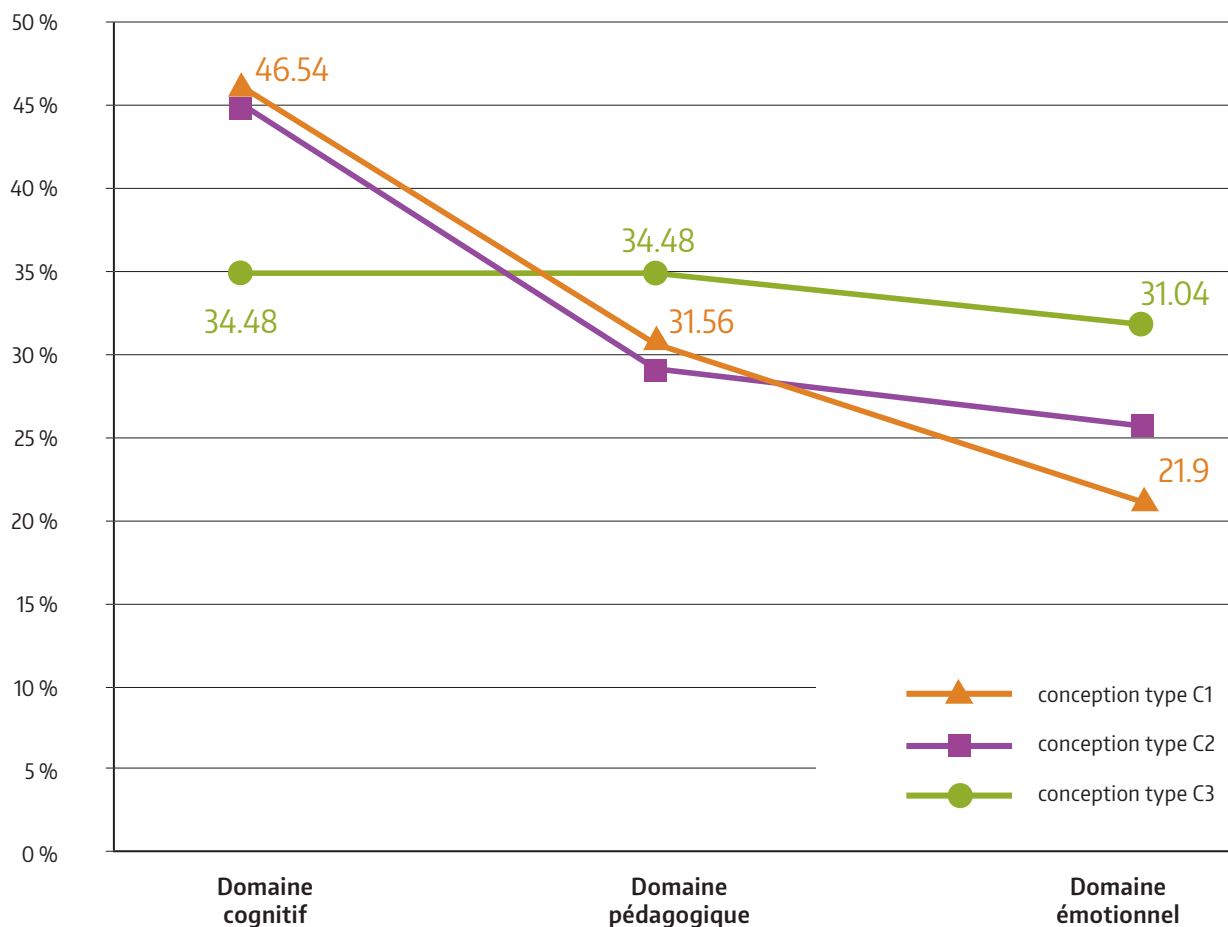
Figure 4 : Répartition des domaines du métier en fonction des conceptions de l'enseignement

4.3 Spécialité d'enseignement et conception

La figure 4 laisse entrevoir trois « profils de pratiques d'enseignement » chez les futurs enseignants potentiels. En effet, ceux ayant une conception de type C1 (Conception mixte) manifestent un subtil équilibre dans la mobilisation entre les trois domaines du métier et ont tendance à mobiliser des dimensions relevant du domaine des interactions plus que les autres. Ils conçoivent que les qualités d'un « bon enseignant » sont certes liées à la maîtrise du savoir spécifique mais aussi aux savoirs de la tradition pédagogique liés à la représentation que s'est forgée le futur enseignant au cours de sa scolarité. Ils perçoivent souvent l'apprentissage comme le fait de savoir appliquer des connaissances et les interpréter.

Il paraît que les enseignants potentiels appartenant à la catégorie C3 (exclusivement orientée vers l'enseignant) ont tendance à privilégier des dimensions relevant du domaine cognitif.

Ils se distinguent par leur conception de l'apprentissage comme une simple accumulation et augmentation des connaissances. Ils conçoivent que les qualités d'un « bon enseignant » sont liées essentiellement à la maîtrise du savoir disciplinaire constitué par les contenus spécifiques de la discipline. Ils admettent qu'un bon chercheur est un bon enseignant. Il est à noter que tous les étudiants considèrent la dimension cognitive lorsqu'ils évoquent les qualités d'un bon enseignant. Ceci peut être expliqué par le poids des disciplines qui est réel dans l'enseignement à l'université. Lorsqu'ils mobilisent le domaine relationnel, les futurs enseignants font référence à des qualités personnelles. Plus la conception est orientée vers le modèle centré sur l'enseignant (C3), plus les qualités personnelles évoquées relèvent du champ de l'autorité, de la maîtrise de la classe et de la relation unidirectionnelle. Plus la conception est orientée vers une conception mixte et équilibrée où les références à l'enseignant et l'apprenant sont équilibrées (C1), plus les qualités personnelles évoquées relèvent du champ de la motivation, de la patience et des relations bilatérales.

Conceptions d'enseignement	C1	C2	C3	Total
Domaine du métier				
Didactique-épistémique	10	49	87	146
Pédagogique	10	31	59	100
Interactionnel	9	29	41	79
Total	**29**	**109**	**187**	**325**
Test χ²	χ² Calculé : 2,035135415		χ² Critique : 0,297109	

Tableau 2 : Lien entre les conceptions des pratiques enseignantes et la perception de la relation enseignant/étudiant (H1)

5.   Analyse inférentielle

Dans cette partie, nous procédons à la vérification des hypothèses présentées ci-dessus.

5.1   Conceptions des pratiques enseignantes et la perception de la relation enseignant / étudiant

D'après le tableau 2, les études croisées nous ont permis de repérer des corrélations significatives entre les conceptions concernant l'enseignement et les pratiques enseignantes, plus précisément la mobilisation des domaines relationnel, pédagogique et didactique. La table du χ² avec 4 degrés de liberté nous indique que l'on peut rejeter l'hypothèse d'indépendance au seuil de 1 % (0,297109 < 2,035135415). Comme Langevin (2007) et Trigwell & Prosser (2004), nous admettons que les conceptions de l'enseignement chez les futurs enseignants vont influencer les profils de pratiques enseignantes qu'ils vont adopter.

5.2   Motivation du choix du métier H3 : lien les émotions et le choix du métier.

Les résultats de la figure 5 font référence au processus émotionnel qui est mis en jeu lors du choix du métier d'enseignant universitaire. Ces résultats suggèrent que l'engagement émotionnel représente la motivation, pour le choix du métier, la plus exprimée par les futurs enseignants et que seules des émotions à valence positive étaient recensées dans le corpus, en particulier le plaisir, la passion, l'intérêt, l'enthousiasme et le vécu scolaire (nostalgie).

Il apparaît que les motivations intrinsèques (45 %) sont plus souvent évoquées pour justifier le choix du métier. Leur fait suite les motivations altruistes (engagement professionnel 37 %). Les motivations extrinsèques sont les moins souvent évoquées (18 %).
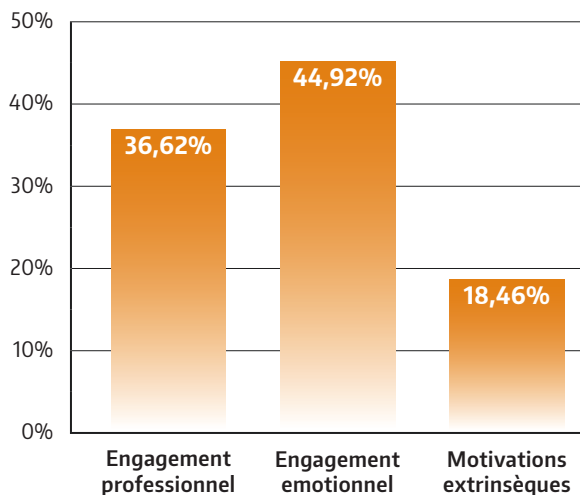
Figure 5 : Répartition des enseignants en fonction des motivations du choix du métier

Domaines du métier	Didactique-épistémique	Pédagogique	Interactionnel	Total
Motivations				
Engagement professionnel	53	35	31	119
Engagement Emotionnel	58	50	38	146
Extrinsèques	35	15	10	60
Total	**146**	**100**	**79**	**325**
Test χ²	χ² Calculé : 1,428147		χ² Critique : 0,297109	

Tableau 3 : Impact des motivations des enseignants sur le profil des pratiques enseignantes

Conceptions d'enseignement	C1	C2	C3	Total
Motivations				
Engagement professionnel	8	43	80	119
Engagement Emotionnel	16	55	72	146
Extrinsèques	5	20	35	60
Total	**29**	**109**	**187**	**325**
Test χ²	χ² Calculé : 1,326237		χ² Critique : 0,297109	

Tableau 4 : Lien entre les motivations et les conceptions des pratiques professionnelles chez les futurs enseignants à l'université (H2)

5.3 Motivations des enseignants sur le profil des pratiques enseignantes dimension relationnelle

Il en ressort du tableau comparatif 2 qu'on peut admettre, au seuil de 1 % (χ² critique : 0,297109 < χ² calculé : 1,428147), qu'il existe des corrélations significatives entre les motivations des futurs enseignants potentiels et leurs profils de pratiques enseignantes. Par conséquent, nous pouvons admettre que les motivations du choix du métier influent sur leurs profils de pratiques enseignantes.

5.4 Motivations et conceptions des pratiques professionnelles

Le tableau 4 nous a permis de repérer des corrélations significatives entre les motivations et les conceptions des pratiques professionnelles chez les futurs enseignants à l'université. Plus la composante émotionnelle de la motivation du choix du métier est mobilisée par le futur enseignant, plus cet enseignant est dans une logique d'apprentissage. Son enseignement a tendance à être centré sur l'apprenant et il tiendra compte de la dimension relationnelle de l'enseignement (Tableau 1).

Plus la référence à la motivation du choix du métier est du type extrinsèque, plus le futur enseignant est dans une logique d'enseignement. Il a tendance à considérer l'enseignement comme une activité essentiellement cognitive (Tableau 1).

Ces résultats semblent rejoindre ceux des recherches de Trigwell (2012), Frenzel (2014) et Hagenauer & Volet (2014).

6.   Conclusion

Notre étude se situe dans l'approche intégrative qui relie le conatif avec le cognitif pour mieux comprendre le comportement et l'attitude chez le future enseignant à l'université.

En adoptant comme Langevin (2007) le sens de conception comme une attitude mentale qui permet à l'individu d'appréhender et d'interpréter la réalité, nous avons tenté de montrer comment la conception de la pratique enseignante (didactique, interactionnelle ou pédagogique) est inhérente à l'émotivité, en prenant comme exemple la motivation extrinsèque, l'engagement émotionnel et l'engagement professionnel.

Les études expérimentales dans ce domaine soutiennent cette reconnaissance croissante de la place du conatif dans le fonctionnement cognitif du futur enseignant universitaire. Le rapport au métier d'enseignant du supérieur est la résultante d'un processus dynamique, qui met en jeu des facteurs motivationnel et émotionnel qui interagissent dans les conceptions des futurs enseignants universitaires relativement à l'enseignement. Elles se construisent en fonction du vécu, des expériences scolaires antérieures et du milieu social ou professionnel.

Dans cet esprit et en lien avec notre modèle AEM (Apprentissage Emotif et Motivé), il est utile d'examiner les possibilités d'étudier l'attitude de prise de décision contextualisée chez les futurs enseignants en lien avec leur engagement émotionnel et motivationnel. Nous pensons que l'interdépendance des différentes composantes du conatif (émotion et motivation) en rapport avec la prise de décision devient plus évidente lorsque les recherches se centrent davantage sur l'enseignant en tant que décideur de sa pratique que sur sa conception de celle-ci. Dans ce cas, l'étude des processus de décision rend compte de la manière dont un enseignant va, à partir de son engagement émotionnel, adopter une démarche décisionnelle.

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Annexe

Objectif :
Ce questionnaire vise à recueillir les conceptions des étudiants vis-à-vis de l'enseignement à l'université et à cerner la motivation du choix du métier d'enseignant universitaire.

Les étudiants sont invités à répondre, de manière libre et anonyme.
Toutes les informations recueillies le sont à des fins de recherche seulement.

▶ **Fiche individuelle**

Nom :

Prénom :

E-mail :

Sexe :

Age :   ☐ 20–30 ans   ☐ 30–40 ans   ☐ + de 40 ans

Thème du master :

Établissement :

Profession :

En quoi consiste votre projet de vie ?

Avez-vous déjà eu une formation pédagogique ?   ☐ Oui   ☐ Non

Si oui, dans quel cadre ?

Avez-vous déjà enseigné ?   ☐ Oui   ☐ Non

☐ Au supérieur ?

Combien de temps ?

☐ Au secondaire ?

Combien de temps ?

▶ Questionnaire

Pensez-vous qu'il y ait une liaison étroite entre l'enseignement à l'université et la recherche (un bon chercheur est un bon enseignant) ?   ☐ Oui   ☐ Non

Si oui, comment concevez-vous cette liaison ?

Existe-t- il des spécificités caractérisant l'enseignement à l'université ?   ☐ Oui   ☐ Non

Expliquer pourquoi :

Existe-t-il des spécificités caractérisant l'apprentissage à l'université ?

Pensez-vous qu'à l'université l'enseignant (cochez une ou plusieurs réponses au choix) :

☐   doit se préoccuper du message tant verbal que non verbal qu'il donne.

☐   doit se centrer sur le savoir à enseigner.

☐   doit aider les étudiants à effectuer leurs propres recherches.

☐   est responsable des apprentissages des étudiants.

☐   doit privilégier les processus de réflexion et de raisonnement aux dépends des contenus spécifiques des cours.

☐   doit admettre quand il ne sait pas répondre à une question qu'un étudiant pose en classe.

Décrivez toute la procédure étape par étape qui va vous permettre d'accomplir votre travail d'enseignant.

D'après vous, quelles qualités devrait posséder un enseignant universitaire ?

Quels qualificatifs attribueriez-vous à un enseignant universitaire qui ne réussi pas son enseignement ?

Quelles sont les motivations à choisir le métier d'enseignant à l'université en tant que carrière professionnelle ?

Part III:
Cross-Country Experiences in Teaching Education

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Part III   "The Sea Between Us": A report on the teaching of creative writing to pre-service teachers in Tunisia and Switzerland

7   "The Sea Between Us":
A report on the teaching of creative writing to pre-service teachers in Tunisia and Switzerland

Erik Altorfer
Zurich University of Teacher Education, Zurich, Switzerland
erik.altorfer@phzh.ch

Amel Meziane
Higher Institute of Applied Studies in Humanities of Zaghouan, University of Tunis, Tunisia
amel_miziane@yahoo.com

Abstract:

This report, which is the outcome of the work of a Swiss-Tunisian duo, seeks to investigate the effect of a series of creative writing sessions on a sample population composed of Tunisian and Swiss pre-service teachers. It also briefly describes the steps taken to organise a Slam Poetry Competition and the fruit it bore, i.e. an online booklet of winning texts written by Tunisian and Swiss competitors. The collected corpus of reflective accounts written by the study participants sheds lights on the importance of creative writing in building up humans' personalities, blocking negative affective factors and developing future teachers' competences. The difficulties that may be encountered when incorporating a creative writing course in a teacher education programme were also expressed. The findings were congruent – to some extent – with the literature review on creative writing. However, further investigation remains necessary to back up the interesting results found.

Keywords:

- creative writing
- teacher education
- reflective accounts

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Part III   "The Sea Between Us": A report on the teaching of creative writing to pre-service teachers in Tunisia and Switzerland

1.   Introduction

This report is the fruit of a strong and a challenging collaboration between two SINAN participants who, despite their divergent backgrounds, strongly believe that creative writing is an indispensable component of any teacher education programme. Although creative writing forms part of the current secondary school teacher education curriculum in Zurich University of Teacher Education, it has not been formally taught at the Higher Institute of Applied Studies in Humanities of Zaghouan (ISEAHZ) in Tunisia. As a result, working on this paper required a great deal of effort from both authors to employ the same creative writing materials and teach them to their respective groups. The Covid-19 pandemic slowed down the process of the data collection and delayed the organisation of the Slam Poetry Competition. It also impacted negatively on the authors' motivation and stress levels. Having said that, an exhilarating sense of accomplishment was felt when this report and the booklet with the winning Slam Poetry texts was shared with readers with an interest in the power of creative writing[12]. The next section provides a brief review of the literature review, which is relevant to this study.

2.   The importance of creative writing for teachers and learners

Unlike academic writing, creative writing transforms the language into a tool that can be employed to express emotions, beliefs, aspirations, perceptions and points of view. In this regard, research has shown that creative writing gives room to adopt viewpoints (Liang, 2015), develop identities (Hughes and Morrison, 2014) and establish voices (Maxim, 2006). Besides, its – in many cases – autobiographical aspect gives writers the chance to embark on a therapeutic journey, during which they can release repressed feelings (Bishop, 1998) and increase their self-awareness (Thaxton, 2014). Indeed, the language becomes a personal vehicle used to open up and write about oneself and others, as well as the world. This sense of language ownership encourages writers to leave their comfort zone and take risks, which in turn can be a strong motivational factor (Chamcharastri, 2013). Unfortunately, the literature on writing, particularly in second and third language writing, has paid little attention to the place of emotions in learning and teaching writing. In relation to this matter, Hanauer (2010)

highlighted the benefits of meaningful literacy in writing instruction and recommended the use of personally contextualised and authentic activities such as poetry and narrative writing to trigger the expression of positive and negative emotions.

Creative writing may help learners improve their language proficiency level and enrich their vocabulary. Lida (2012) states that there is a potential for literacy transfer to academic writing. In other words, creative writing can serve to enrich the linguistic repertoire of learners, which subsequently may impact positively on other genres including academic writing. Additionally, creative writing coaches those who are beset with affective problems such as low self-esteem, inhibition, introversion and anxiety, because both of the composing process and the final product are equally important; and evaluation comes mainly in the form of constructive feedback. Establishing creative writing as a routine can also impact positively on learner's reading skills. In point of fact, Winterson (2012) contends that creative writing and reading are strongly linked.

A rich knowledge of various disciplines of study as well as extensive pedagogical expertise are both crucial for a primary or a secondary school teacher to be effective in their job. Additionally, a full set of transversal skills remains necessary to enhance the quality of the teaching and learning experiences. In this report, transversal competencies mean non-job specific competencies that are transferrable between jobs and are essential to thrive in different professional environments. These include critical thinking, creativity, innovative thinking, collaboration, global citizenship as well as physical and psychological health.

In various teaching contexts, where teachers are struggling with a degraded infrastructure, a derelict classroom, and a very limited set of resources, a high level of creativity and innovative thinking combined with a strong sense of citizenship and a devotion to one's occupation can become the only way to transcend the impediments that come along with teaching. Further, good teachers are often known for being extraordinary storytellers who are able to improvise in difficult situations. As a matter of fact, the content of some courses can be quite complex, ambiguous, or too theoretical for learners. Therefore, employing innovative and creative techniques may help transmit messages more smoothly. It is mainly for the aforementioned reasons that both researchers think that integrating teaching creative writing into teacher education programmes can provide tremendous benefits and bring an added value in comparison with other more conventional courses. Besides, research has demonstrated that creative writing develops empathy, creativity and critical thinking.

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12 Altdorfer, E. & Meziane, A. (Eds.) (2021, September 8). Zwischen uns das Meer. Pädagogische Hochschule Zürich, Schreibzentrum. Retrieved from: https://issuu.com/schreibzentrum/docs/zwischen-uns-das-meer.

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It goes without saying that we are currently living in an ever-changing world, and the future remains unclear due to unpredictability. Stuffing learners' heads with knowledge, which can become obsolete by the time they grow up, is unproductive. Therefore, educational systems worldwide should immerse learners into programmes that favour transversal competencies to arm them against the challenges of tomorrow. In this regard, one should point out that creativity and innovative thinking, for example, are not necessarily developed through arts. As a matter of fact, they can be integrated into language courses via creative writing instruction. It is important to mention that many researchers have extolled the virtues of creative writing, but the body of literature on this topic remains scarce. The next section of this report sets the framework within which creative writing was taught in PH, Zurich and ISEAHZ, Zaghouan.

3.   Teaching creative writing at Zurich University of Teacher Education and ISEAHZ: Different contexts and different stories

3.1 Teaching creative writing at the Zurich University of Teacher Education

Creative writing is not part of the curriculum for primary school teacher education at the Zurich University of Teacher Education (commonly referred to as PHZH). Having said that, students intending to become secondary school teachers attend two two-hour creative writing sessions during the German didactics course. The two sessions in question are compulsory for all pre-service secondary teachers. Both regular attendance and creative text production are considered strict requirements. However, the length and content of the sessions has been changed several times over the course of the last five years, and is likely to change again since sessions in previous years were not satisfactory due to the limited time duration and the lack of thorough feedback provided by trainers.

Besides these compulsory sessions on creative writing, the writing centre at PHZH offers workshops on creative writing and organises writing events and competitions. These workshops and events are not compulsory for students. As a matter of fact, only the students who are trained and employed as tutors at the writing centre have to write one creative text a year.

One of the reasons for the limited importance of creative writing in the curriculum could be that most professors and lecturers have a linguistic specialisation and not one in literature. In the near future, some lecturers, including the Swiss author of this article, will make more attempts to raise awareness regarding the importance of integrating creative writing as a compulsory course or a regular extra-curricular activity in the primary school teacher education curriculum. Indeed, lecturers who assist students in the preparation of their German lessons observed repeatedly that they lack ideas, didactics and methodology to use creative writing tasks at primary school level. The writing centre reacted to this need and has recently started offering specific workshops for students who are designing their own lessons. The next section will describe the teaching of creative writing in the Tunisian context, more specifically at ISEAHZ.

3.2 Teaching creative writing at ISEAHZ, Tunisia

Creative writing is not part of the current curriculum of teacher education in Tunisia. In fact, it is neither a compulsory nor an optional course. Having said that, many French and English language teacher trainers at ISEAHZ have been experimenting and encouraging future primary school teachers to think outside the box and boost their creativity via creative writing tasks such as writing short stories for children. Nevertheless, the efforts of this minority of teachers only represent scarce reactions to the outdated content of foreign language courses and mere individual endeavours looking at language teaching from a fresh perspective. Over the past five years, the Tunisian author of this article has been assigning tasks that require a great deal of creativity in English language classes, and that is the major reason why she was convinced that launching an informal creative writing club would be an invaluable hub that would serve not only to improve members' writing skills, but also to put them in unconventional situations where they have to create using language as a medium of expression. Unfortunately, the call for participation that was posted online in October 2019 did not receive as much attention as expected. Only eight pre-service teachers and six English language students (from ISEAHZ Business English Department) took up the challenge. The researcher together with the members met on weekly basis for approximately one hour. However, it is worth mentioning that she had to cancel some sessions because of the students' busy schedules, other teachers' catch-up sessions, and student strikes. Overall, the researcher was able to organise six sessions of one hour each. All members were made aware that there would be no formal evaluation and that lively discussions were highly appreciated. Also, the researcher welcomed all languages (French, Arabic, and English) in her sessions to maximise members' chances of being creative. The

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next section of the report will briefly describe the creative writing tasks that both researchers agreed upon using during their respective sessions as well as the common topic of the Slam Competition that took place in Tunisia and Switzerland.

3.3   Creative writing tasks

Although creative writing sessions in both the Swiss and Tunisian contexts emerged for different reasons and were implemented in different conditions, both researchers agreed right from the starting point of the experience on the type of creative writing activities to be used. After long discussions, both "interior monologues" and "aesthetic perceptions" were selected (see Appendix A). An interesting part of the study was the Slam Poetry competition that was launched in both countries. The *"Sea Between Us"* was chosen as a common title. Although the title hints at the sea as a barrier that stands between Tunisia and Switzerland, many candidates looked at it from a different perspective, thus yielding unique texts. With regard to the Tunisian call for participation, all three languages were welcomed. Although the call imposed a text length of 250–500 words, few contenders managed to respect the requirement and exceeded the word number limit by far. Two judges, who are also university language teachers with a great mastery of English, French and Arabic, read the texts, then watched the performances with the aim of selecting the texts which achieved creativity, accuracy, relevance and depth (of the delivered message). As for the competition that took place in Zurich, the allowed length of the texts was 430–1 250 words and the deadline for submission was set for 31 March 2020. A jury consisting of a student, who was originally a tutor at the PHZH writing centre, and two poetry slam authors selected eight texts. The criteria for text pre-selection for the Slam Poetry competition were content, language, and performance quality. At the public event at PHZH in September 2020, an audience jury voted for the three winners.

The six winning texts (three were composed by Tunisian candidates and the remaining three texts were composed by Swiss candidates) were published in a booklet (along with links to videos of the author's performed readings) to commemorate the talent of those writers. The next section of the report focuses on the methodology used to gather data.

4.   Methodology

Once the creative writing sessions were over, both researchers were interested in asking the participants a set of questions regarding their experiences. These were distributed under the form of reflective accounts and revolved around five questions meant to collect information not only about the impact of such an experience on the personal, professional, and academic levels of the participants, but also about the potential weaknesses and strengths of integrating creative writing into the current curriculum for teacher education and at primary schools (see Appendix B). All five questions were formulated in English in the case of the Swiss context, but were available in both French (L2) and English (L3) in the Tunisian context. Additionally, the participants had no time constraints to write down their answers. In this regard, the researchers strongly believed that students should be given as much time as they needed in order to reflect on their experience, thus calling the instrument a reflective account and not a questionnaire. Twelve reflective accounts, six in total from each group, were gathered. The next part of the report provides a qualitative analysis of the German and the Tunisian corpus.

5.   Results

5.1   An analysis of the Tunisian participants' reflective accounts

In response to the first question of the reflective account, four students stated that the creative writing sessions encouraged them to dedicate more time and effort to working on their creative writing skills, stretch their limits and take their hobby to the next level. Indeed, not all students joining the creative writing club were novice writers. Some of them were amateur creative writers, who enjoyed writing poems or texts for pleasure. The constant and frank exchange of ideas, the peer-to-peer feedback and the tutor's constructive criticism that took place during the sessions helped these participants identify their writing weaknesses and boosted their motivation to pursue their pastime in a more methodical and thoughtful manner. Novice creative writers, on the other hand, discovered a new dimension of writing, which was described as "compelling", "fun" and "artistic". As a matter of fact, the stress-free and intimate environment the sessions created put them at ease and helped them share their attitudes towards writing and the various reasons they think it is the most demanding skill when compared to listening, speaking, and reading.

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Surprisingly, five participants out of six promoted creative writing as a therapeutic means they might employ more often to address complex or difficult topics. Indeed, they perceived creative writing to allow more flexibility, freedom, and linguistic creativity than academic writing; therefore, they deemed it to be a more suitable vehicle to openly express themselves, express their repressed fears, describe their aspirations, and verbalise their opinions. Two participants enjoyed the human contact the sessions established between the students. Indeed, new friendship relationships were made because special affinities were shared. Finally, two participants believed that the creative writing sessions alleviated the boredom and reduced the stress that was usually felt during the week. As the sessions took place on Wednesdays, they were considered as breaks to cut through monotony.

In response to the second question of the reflective accounts, participants agreed that the club offered an additional opportunity to develop some cross-curricular or soft skills. Indeed, the Tunisian teacher education curriculum was described as "content-oriented" and "ambitious". The range of courses is varied and guarantees the transmission of a rich knowledge on various matters. However, according to one student "sharpening students' soft skills depends only on the teachers' teaching philosophy". As such, participants felt that the creative writing club worked on broadening their creativity, communication, and collaboration.

With regard to the third question, the teacher found that two participants out of six provided a negative answer to the question because they found it difficult to implement what they had learned during the club sessions to their teaching in primary school. As a matter of fact, the club lasted only four sessions and students were left hungry for more. This was stated – by the same two participants – as a reason why they could not imagine themselves employing the acquired knowledge in other completely different contexts. Unfortunately, the Covid-19 the pandemic left no possibility for the researcher to schedule extra face-to-face sessions. However, the four remaining students' answers were positive. They expressed their desire to use simple creative writing techniques to encourage their pupils to write songs or work jointly to write up a theatre piece for the final year school celebration. One student out of the four mentioned launching an extracurricular club to teach pupils from different classes about creative writing. The aim of this club will be to increase pupils' lexical knowledge and develop their creativity, as well as to improve their reading and writing skills, as both are closely linked.

In response to question four of the reflective account, both novice creative writers thought that integrating

creating writing into the teacher education curriculum could help poor writers change their perceptions about writing as a skill. Indeed, academic writing is unfortunately associated not only with rigorous and rigid writing conventions (including layout and punctuation), but also with assessment. Therefore, the students' priority when writing in an academic context is not to freely express themselves, but to tick most of the boxes in the teacher's evaluation checklist. Thus, the flexible nature of creative writing could reduce writers' level of apprehension and help them develop their writing skills. Unsurprisingly, integrating creative writing in the form of a course to work on students' soft skills was again mentioned by five students out of six. One participant maintained that creativity is one cross-curricular competence teacher training programmes should broaden as it is the only tool future teachers can use to cope with unforeseen situations.

Regarding the drawbacks, four participants feared students' reactions to such an unconventional course. They explained that some students may be reluctant and would prefer keeping creative writing as an optional course rather than a compulsory one. Teachers' negative attitude towards creative writing was also mentioned twice as a possible obstacle that would undermine the potential value of creative writing as a course.

In the last question for the reflective account, students mentioned developing creativity and communication again as two positive aspects of integrating creative writing into primary education. Besides, they believe that it could foster a sense of belonging to a group, if used to create and write new materials such plays, songs, or stories. On the other hand, participants expressed their concern about the overloaded curriculum of primary education pointing to the full curriculum followed in public Tunisian schools. They worry that there is not much room left for a new course to be added. Time constraints were cited as a possible challenge if creative writing is added as a new course. Ever since the Tunisian revolution, it has been very difficult for primary teachers to finish off their programmes. Frequent strikes together with national lockdowns have made it very challenging for the teaching staff to achieve the objectives of the taught courses. As such, the idea of integrating creative writing as a course is impossible.

Finally, teaching creative writing requires a fair deal of expertise due to the young age of learners. Therefore, it is pivotal to offer suitable well thought-out training to accompany teachers in such a new adventure. That could be considered as a challenge as creative writing itself so far has not gained much popularity among teachers, learners and other actors in the Tunisian educational system.

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5.2 An analysis of the Tunisian participants' reflective accounts

In response to the first question for the reflective account, two students pointed out that they encountered an enriching and positive writing experience during the creative writing sessions, which had not happened in a very long time. Another student remarked that she rediscovered creative writing as a vessel of communication and a means to reflect on language, culture and life. For others, writing had a calming effect as it enabled them to engage with their inner selves. Also, one student saw the potential of cultivating his own language and felt he was given a voice. He added that by telling different stories, he was given meaning to various issues. Another student stated that she received the opportunity to deepen and strengthen her writing experience. It was important for her to be able to change perspective while writing. However, she felt challenged while writing about emotions and impeded by the time constraints imposed by the sessions.

With regard to the second question of the reflective account, the most frequent remarks were regarding the difficulties experienced during the writing process. Having said that, participants felt that being aware of their own limitations will help them be more sensitive to the difficulties their pupils might encounter while writing. Nevertheless, students also felt that writing had a relaxing effect that they wish to transmit to their future pupils to increase their motivation and excitement. For one student, it was important that he experienced writing creatively beyond theoretical didactics and he found out how writing tasks can be formulated in a motivating, diverse and challenging way. Openness and curiosity to new experiences were also mentioned as assets developed through the sessions and motivational boosters that impacted positively on their learning experiences as pre-service teachers. Last but not least, granting space for free writing was important.

In the third question, one student emphasised the importance of creative writing and stated that a person who uses language to move in the world and to deal with it can acquire everything else he/she needs for life. He therefore places the promotion of one's own ability to articulate oneself (in all subjects) at the centre of his teaching. And he deems creative writing as the real key to successful communication. Additionally, it was again pointed out that living various emotional experiences during the creative writing process can help future teachers anticipate pupils' difficulties and support pupils when composing texts. Regarding the didactics of creative writing teaching, they believe that simple tasks can be eventually used to increase the motivation of pupils to write. But first, pupils should be taught to work independently and without pressure, since the creative writing process is a personal adventure. One student describes his plan to give pupils sample texts as well as some requirements to orient pupils.

In response to the fourth question of the reflective account, most of the students reiterated the importance of teaching creative writing as they learnt a great deal from their own creative writing experiences as pre-service teachers. Having made this experience during teacher education helps plan and work on creative writing with the pupils later on. The writing sessions made it possible to make a new positive writing experience and thus revising previous negative experiences. It was described as "nice" to be creative again. During their trainings, everyone expects future teachers to be creative, but students are seldom exposed to learning experiences that require creativity. One student enjoyed the "nothing I write is wrong" idea in some warm-up writing exercises, thus felt a sense of freedom in creating. Likewise, another one felt the joy of writing, that creativity can be more important than formal accuracy. It was also pointed out that creative writing helps students experience writing diversity, since teachers should know how to write as many different genres as possible in order to be able to meet pupils' demands and make the lessons more interesting, appealing and diversified. Indeed, the creative writing sessions highlighted new and diverse approaches and aspects of writing and writing tasks.

On the other hand, students made it clear that creative writing sessions should be dedicated a decent amount of time in the curriculum to make sure students have the necessary time to be creative when writing, otherwise the experience of failure (due to lack of possibility of improvement in the process of creating a text) could have a damaging effect. In this regard, two students described the lack of time in the already hectic teacher education programme for dealing thoroughly with creative writing. Hence, it would be an additional challenge to communicate the importance of creative writing and transmit comprehensive background knowledge to students.

Besides, the danger of repeatedly making negative writing experiences may strengthen future teachers' negative attitudes towards creative writing, and possibly writing as a skill (surprisingly, many students at PHZH favour traditional genres such as essays, letters, and job applications over more creative writing alternatives; this means they consider creative writing a waste of time). A last remark made by two participants was regarding their insecurity of grading, assessing creative texts and the acquired skills. They felt that students or pupils will be dependent on the personal preferences of their ins-

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tructors, thus evaluation in this case might be purely biased. The difficulty to formulate specific learning goals and competences when designing a creative writing course was also mentioned.

Last, and in response to the fifth question, students mentioned various benefits including a possible change in attitude, increased motivation and stronger personal creativity. Moreover, creative writing has a positive effect on self-consciousness or the sense of oneself. Creative writing can also help experience joy, fun and freedom in writing with little pressure. Indeed, the lives of the pupils as a whole is being addressed – their experiences, imagination, emotions, personalities and experiences. This leads to building a stronger identity using writing as a tool.

Regarding the challenges, three out of the students mentioned the issue of correcting and grading creative texts. Another one asserts that teachers should be qualified to teach creative writing, as it requires a solid background and expertise. Indeed, it might seem quite simple, but is far from being the case. A final one mentioned the challenge of overcoming the writing block of pupils, who might be reluctant at first to participate in creative writing tasks.

6.   Discussion

Although the data collection took place in two countries, both researchers decided to look at the similarities as well as the differences identified in the corpora without making interpretations based on the ground of cultural or geographical disparities. To begin with, most participants from both groups acknowledged creative writing as a means of communication that gives writers a voice to reflect upon private and life matters in unique ways. The power of creative writing to ensure psychological relief was mentioned by both groups as a very strong characteristic of creative writing. Also, its flexible artistic nature (emphasis on expression, perspective of narration, form and style rather than on more formal criteria) was seen as an asset that puts writers at ease, increases their motivation, lowers their apprehension and encourages them to overcome the difficulties they encounter in other more formal writing experiences. Both groups mentioned the effect of creative writing on developing writing skills, communication, and creativity.

Such findings corroborate to a great extent the literature on the benefits of teaching creative writing mentioned in the previous section of the literature review. Most importantly, the authors of this report strongly

believe that the techniques taught in creative writing can enrich writers' language, the dramaturgy and style of their texts. It can also be transformed and made fruitful in other writing genres including academic writing. Interestingly, a long list of the advantages and the drawbacks of integrating creative writing in teacher education programmes as well as primary education curricula was provided. Regarding the advantages, a direct relation was established between adding creative writing as a course to the current teacher education curriculum and

a.   students' written language production levels

b.   perceptions of and …

c.   attitudes towards writing as a skill.

In relation to the disadvantages, both groups agreed that creative writing stimulates imagination, boosts creativity and improves communication. However, most Tunisian and Swiss participants alike thought their experiences gave them ideas about the ways of implementing creative writing in their future teaching careers, but the answers in general lacked precision, particularly regarding the type of activities to adopt when teaching pupils or teenage students. Indeed, some activities – both curricular and extracurricular – were referred to, but some Tunisian students were unable to see the benefits of the creative writing sessions.

This sheds lights on the importance of increasing the number of creative writing workshops to help pre-service teachers have a clear understanding of how to take advantage of this experience and transform it into a helpful teaching tool. To do this, it is important to design a syllabus whose objectives are to

a.   introduce a variety of creative writing techniques to encourage future teachers to write and …

b.   help them identify the true potential of creative writing if implemented in primary schools.

This obviously requires well-trained teachers capable of planning, running and managing interesting and compelling workshops.

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7.   Conclusion

Creative writing has long been mistakenly considered as a skill that only people born with natural talent can master. This report is an endeavour to debunk such a myth and prove that it is possible to introduce creative writing in university programmes as well as exploit its various benefits to encourage students to write. The experience both researchers describe took place in teacher education universities located in Zaghouan, Tunisia and Zurich, Switzerland. The benefits of the creative writing sessions reported by the participants outnumber by far the weaknesses. This interesting finding was corroborated by the testimonies of participants, who attended the compulsory creative writing sessions at PHZH or joined the creative writing club at ISEAHZ and who found a great pleasure in writing creative texts. However, this report remains only a small-scale attempt that requires further investigation and a larger population to provide more solid conclusions.

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Appendix A

Both of these exercises were based on three major steps:

Step 1:
Choose a picture from the offered selection.

Step 2:
Write a creative output using the selected picture as a source of inspiration. (Students were asked either to look at a picture of a person and imagine what the character is saying to himself/herself i.e. his/her interior monologue or look at the picture, be inspired from the interplay of patterns, colours, objects, people and/or lights i.e. the aesthetic dimension of the picture itself and write a text that reflects/ imitates the aesthetic form and/or content of the picture).

Step 3:
Discuss the output with a peer and identify strengths and weaknesses in a constructive way.

Appendix B

Reflective account (English version)*

Dear student,

Please read the following questions, then answer them based on the experiences you had when you were participating in the creative writing sessions. The authenticity of your answers is what matters the most, so feel free to share your thoughts.

- What did the experience bring to you on a personal level? *(This question targets the impact of the creative writing sessions on the personal development of both groups)*
- What impact has the experience had on your teacher education training?
- Do you think you can use/adapt the experience in your teaching practice? If yes, then how?
- Name two pros and two cons of integrating creative writing as a compulsory subject in the teacher education curriculum.
- What could be the benefits and the challenges of integrating creative writing tasks in the writing curriculum of primary schools/secondary schools?

* The reflective account is also available in German and French

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Teaching philosophy:

▶   Students should be given the responsibility for dealing with the theoretical dimension of university courses. Technological devices (including the internet, of course) can tremendously facilitate this task and accompany learners in their attempt to decode information. Conversely, in-class time should be dedicated to meditation, tutoring and coaching using techniques that promote the principles of active learning. In this respect, it is important to mention that I strongly believe that the deeply engrained view of teachers as knowledge providers should be questioned. Indeed, a teacher-centred approach in a time of fast online information and dissemination is ill-suited and ineffective. Having said this, teachers remain an essential element in any winning learning formula. Whether via face-to-face, blended or online methods, they play a crucial role in manoeuvring a learning experience into success.

Amel Meziane

8   Supporting novice teachers at career entry: A cross-cultural and systemic analysis

Katrin Tovote
FHNW School of Education, University of Applied Sciences and Arts Northwestern Switzerland, Muttenz, Switzerland
katrin.tovote@fhnw.ch

Francesco Arcidiacono
Research Department, University of Teacher Education BEJUNE, Biel/Bienne, Switzerland
francesco.arcidiacono@hep-bejune.ch

Nadia Lahiani
Higher Institute of Applied Studies in Humanities of Zaghouan (ISEAHZ), University of Tunis, Tunisia
nadialahiani@yahoo.fr

Abstract:

In this paper, we will attempt to identify the representations, reflections and coping styles that novice primary and secondary teachers give as postures to adopt in order to cope with the difficulties related to the beginning of their career. We aim to analyse the professional development of young teachers from a cross-cultural perspective by identifying similarities in and differences between the strategies adopted to support them while entering the institutional education within three different cultural settings (the German-speaking part of Switzerland, the French-speaking part of Switzerland and Tunisia). We present three case studies conducted in the three aforementioned settings within a similar methodological framework. The findings contribute to understanding how professional experiences during the first two years of teaching are subjectively and collectively co-constructed and rely on various factors that evolve over a life-long learning perspective.

Keywords:

- novice teacher

- professionalism

- culture

- coping

- reflection

1. Introduction

After completing their university studies, new teachers embarking on their careers (one or two years after receiving their professional degrees) must assume, as in-service teachers, a transitional step that can sometimes be characterised as a 'reality shock'. Teaching children is described by teachers all over the world as being both a very meaningful yet also extremely strenuous and often stressful activity (Harmsen *et al.*, 2018; Montogomery & Rupp, 2005).

In the heterogeneous settings of primary and secondary schools in Switzerland and Tunisia, novice teachers can feel insecure in facing the new professional challenges they encounter (e.g. precarious jobs, heavy workloads, very diverse student body). Novice teachers – regardless of what part of the world they are teaching in – are likely to have to grieve the loss of their idealised view of the profession (Arcidiacono *et al.*, 2018; Nasser-Abu Alhija & Fresco, 2010). To name just one example, they may encounter difficulties in their relationships with students, parents or other colleagues.

In this study, we take a closer look at the career entry of teachers in three cultural settings (Tunisia, the French-speaking part of Switzerland and the German-speaking part of Switzerland) in order to better understand the process of novice teachers' professional development, by highlighting similarities and differences in the three different contexts.

2. Theoretical framework

2.1 Bronfenbrenner's ecosystems theory

Bronfenbrenner's eco-theory (1979) can serve as the theoretical basis for all our three cases, since it is assumed that an individual does not develop in a 'vacuum', but as a part of various dynamic systems which in turn are dynamically related to one another. Bronfenbrenner (1979) refers to five different, interrelated systems that represent the socio-cultural environment of an individual in which he/she grows up and changes over time:

1. microsystem
2. mesosystem
3. exosystem
4. macrosystem
5. chronosystem

The *microsystem* encompasses the immediate environment of an individual and therefore has the greatest influence on their development. In our case, these microsystems could be, for example, the classroom, the teaching staff, the students' own family or friends. The *mesosystems* represent the interactions between various microsystems. An example would be the relationship between the school as a whole and the municipal government to which the school belongs. School laws, guidelines at the school and resources belong to the *exosystem*. This exosystem has a direct influence on the microsystem and macrosystem. For example, a reduction in resources for the school's infrastructure can also have negative effects on the relationships between the school and the families of the children. The *macrosystem* includes, on the one hand, the economic and social conditions of the region in which our subjects teach and, on the other hand, the prevailing cultural and social values and norms there. These also include the beliefs regarding what a good education entails and how knowledge is acquired and should be taught, etc. Accordingly, training programs for teachers and the teaching materials used in schools are shaped by their respective socio-cultural environments. The *chronosystem* represents how all systems change over time. For example, the perception of child-rearing evolves in different societies and, accordingly, the demands on the teachers who train these children also change.

By including this systemic perspective in our investigation, we intend to describe the tasks, challenges, resources and uncertainties that the career starters encounter individually, as well as pointing out similarities and differences between different cultural settings.

2.2 A model of teacher professionalism

A plurality of models of teachers' professionalisation has been highlighted on several occasions at an international level (Menter *et al.*, 2010), by referring to specific representations of education anchored in different socio-political and cultural contexts. Within the complexity which concerns most teacher training systems, the dominant model of professionalisation is undoubtedly the one that puts the technical and economic challenges ahead (Mahony & Hextall, 2000) of the teaching profession, namely the *effective teacher*. Other models have instead emphasised the need for continuing and collaborative training of educational professionals — the so-called *reflective teacher* (Schön, 1983), on the importance of research in teaching and in training — *the teacher as researcher* (Forde *et al.*, 2006) and on the active role of the teacher in promoting social change — *the transformative teacher* (Sachs, 2003; Zeichner, 2009).

The coexistence of multiple models of professionalisation constitutes a characteristic widely present in contemporary social realities and, at the same time, a basic feature of the evolution of professionalisation in the education systems of different countries.

Professionalisation contributes to the construction of a particular relationship to work, to the structuring of a professional identity (Alsup, 2006; Beijaard, Meijer & Verloop, 2004; Cohen, 2010) and the development of new skills (Altet, 1994; Hofstetter & Schneuwly, 2009; Perrenoud, 1994; Portelance *et al.*, 2008). Integration into the teaching profession begins before the moment of accessing the practice: it is already in the idea that we have about the teaching activity, as an image that projects future teachers into their role (Mellouki *et al.*, 2008). The link between professional integration and professional development does not refer only to the initial training, as the professional development and the support and the structures for new teachers also participate in this path (Masdonati, 2007).

3.   Context: three case studies in different cultural settings

This study has a twofold goal: at a general level, it aims to analyse the process of socio-professional development of new teachers and, based on a cross-cultural perspective, intends to identify similarities and differences of the strategies intended to support them while they enter the institutional education within three different cultural settings (the German-speaking part of Switzerland, the French-speaking part of Switzerland and Tunisia). To pursue our research goals, we present three case studies (A, B and C) following a mixed-method approach consisting of qualitative and quantitative levels of analysis as explained in Chapter 4. In the following section of the paper, each case is presented in order to introduce the specific frame of the research studies that have been conducted in the three settings. Each case study examines a specific question in detail. We decided to include two cases from the same country (Switzerland) because of its specific multi-linguistic composition that position the sample of Case B (based at the crossroads of three cantons in a bilingual area) in between the German side of Case A and the French side of Case C.

3.1   Case A: German-speaking part of Switzerland

Case study A concerns a study conducted in the German-speaking part of Switzerland, more precisely in the cantons of Basel-City, Basel-Country and Aargau. It aims to shed light on the experiences of novice German-speaking teachers during their first two years of teaching in primary schools. In particular, we want to find out which external and internal factors are perceived by the career starters as burdens and which factors are perceived as resources that could alleviate the burdens, either preventively or with the help of intervention. We also talk about them as risk and protective factors. Accordingly, the research question is as follows: Which risk and protective factors accompany novice primary school teachers graduating from the University of Teacher Education FHNW when starting their professional career?

3.2   Case B: French-speaking part of Switzerland

Case B is related to a study conducted in the French-speaking part of Switzerland, at the University of Teacher Education BEJUNE, involving novice teachers employed in the Cantons of Bern (French-speaking part), Jura and Neuchâtel. The aim of this case is to describe the experiences that novice French-speaking teachers make during their first year of work in secondary schools. More specifically, we intend to identify how participants discursively construct their representations of the challenges they encounter during their initial professional activity. In trying to understand what experiences are made by these teachers, we identified the following research questions: How do novice secondary school teachers present and share the challenges they encounter during their initial professional activity? How do they consider the education they have received at the university as a resource to cope with these challenges?

3.3   Case C: Tunisia

Case C refers to a study conducted by ISEAHZ in different regions of Tunisia, ranging from North to South Tunisia, involving the first cohort of future teacher students. The objective of this case is to describe the experience of the first cohort of Tunisian teacher students in education and to assess the extent to which their training prepares them for their new professional role. More precisely, on the one hand, we intend to describe and qualify the relationships of schoolteachers with students, inspectors, parents and administrators

by comparing them to the relationships they had with them during their training ('stage'); on the other hand, we intend to identify the main problems they encounter in entering into the profession.

4.   Method

Three case studies were conducted. Data were collected through a series of focus group interviews, semi-structured interviews and online surveys in the selected cultural settings. The data were analysed using both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

4.1   Case A: German-speaking part of Switzerland

Case study A aims to shed light on the experiences of novice German-speaking teachers during their first two years of teaching in primary schools. In particular, we want to find out which external and internal factors are perceived by the career starters as burdens and which factors are perceived as resources that could alleviate these burdens, either preventively or through intervention. We also talk about them as risk and protective factors. Accordingly, the research question is the following:

> Which risk and protective factors accompany novice primary school teachers graduating from the University of Teacher Education FHNW when starting their professional career?

The study is based on interviews with four novice primary school teachers in North-Western Switzerland. The four teachers (three women and one man) are in their mid-20s, do not yet have any children of their own and started teaching within the last one to one and a half years. More specifically, all the participants in the sample initially started with a part-time position.

Qualitative interviews: Development, implementation and analysis

An interview guide was created according to the principles of the four-step SPSS procedure indicated by Helfferich (2011):

1. collecting various questions that are of interest to the research goal,

2. reviewing the questions (which ones are adequate, which have to be sorted out and which have to be adjusted),

3. selecting questions and sorting thematically combined into bundles, and

4. formulating a subsuming, higher-level narrative request (to which the sub-aspects are subordinate) for each bundle.

The overarching goal of this procedure is to generate an interview guide enabling the interviewee to tell her/his story as unaffectedly and authentically as possible. The audio files of the interviews were transcribed, according to the system of rules elaborated by Dresing and Pehl (2018). Computerised content analysis was carried out based on the procedure elaborated by Kuckartz (2018). Initially, the transcripts were processed by identifying, marking and commenting on significant passages, with the subsequent definition of core categories. On the basis of these categories, the text was finally coded. Wherever necessary, subcategories were derived to further differentiate into a final coding guide. The application of the final coding guide to all interviews led to the main results, which are presented in Chapter 5.1.

Case B: French-speaking part of Switzerland

For this case, a qualitative discursive approach (Arcidiacono, Baucal & Buđevac, 2011) integrated with a quantitative analysis of textual data has been applied. The sample included 15 teachers (9 women and 6 men, all graduates from the HEP-BEJUNE) recruited on a voluntary basis and randomly divided into 4 groups (of 3–5 people) to meet in focus groups. Each meeting was intended to allow participants to discuss the challenges in their professional activity by sharing them within a peer-friendly setting.

Data collection and procedure

A total of 20 focus groups were video recorded (the length of all the focus groups is 26 hours and 9 minutes) and integrally transcribed. A researcher was present during each focus group in order to moderate the session. The data have been treated using different methods: discourse analysis, content analysis and textual analysis (Arcidiacono *et al.*, 2018; Gremion *et al.*, 2020). An independent single coding has been applied by researchers, then the whole research team collectively worked on selecting data (based on the most frequent dimensions that have been coded). This procedure allows us to identify a series of aspects that seem to be considered relevant for the participants:

1. identity as a change in professional position,

2. transitions as critical moments,

3. the role of the education received at the university,

4. reflections on the students' trajectories (before, during and after entering the profession).

4.2 Case C: Tunisia

This case is based on a quantitative survey conducted online at Survio.com. We have limited the survey to the 2020 graduates of our institution (ISEAHZ). The survey was sent to 50 young students, of which 47 newly-qualified teachers (graduates in teaching education at ISEAHZ) participated. The sample included seven men and forty women who studied in our institution and who come from five different governorates in Tunisia (Zaghouan, Bizerte, Nabeul, Kairouan and Tataouine).

Data collection and procedure

The analysis of the answers has been described in percentages to allow us to identify a number of important aspects in the status change of young graduates and new teachers. We thus tried to understand how the change of status affects the relationship of young teachers with their professional environment: How is the transition (the passage from a student status to that of a teacher) experienced by young graduates? How useful was the training received at the university and the internships carried out? Answering these questions will allow us to reflect on the relevance of the university course.

5. Results

5.1 Case A: German-speaking part of Switzerland

The results related to Case A are organised in the following way: a first section concerns the external and internal burdens (or risk factors) caused by conditions that the new teachers considered as given or unavoidable; then, external and internal burdens (risk factors) that were perceived by the teachers as unnecessary and hence avoidable are presented. Perceived external and internal resources (protective factors) within the school, as well as within themselves (personal traits and abilities) follow. Finally, perceived resources (protective factors) outside school are proposed.

Unavoidable perceived internal and external burdens as risk factors

Working full-time as a primary school teacher in North-Western Switzerland involves preparing for many school hours (the average is around 29 lessons per week). The interviewees mentioned that they need to invest a lot of time in preparing school lessons, as well as setting and correcting exams. Due to their lack of professional experience, they have to design a lot of learning materials from scratch. Furthermore, it is not unusual for novice teachers to misjudge the time required by children to fulfil the activities and/or the appropriate level of difficulty. Then, if students do not understand or solve tasks and topics as quickly as planned, the new teachers feel time pressure. They also fear that they will then not be able to achieve the learning and competence goals set in the curriculum for that class.

The young teachers also stated that they had to spend a relatively large proportion of their time working with other teachers (job partners, subject teachers) and specialists (such as special needs teachers). This cooperation is not only time consuming, but also demands a great deal of communicative and organisational skills, as well as knowledge of tasks, work responsibilities, etc. If a new teacher is given too many classes at once, there is a high risk of losing track of things to be done, or not receiving reliably all the important information in time. Such a situation is also associated with a high degree of on-site presence, even on days that are actually non-working days.

The participants indicated the great diversity in their student bodies as a further challenge. This diversity requires internal differentiation so that all students can receive individualised support. This aspect is in turn linked to the two challenges already mentioned. Addi-

tionally, differentiated work material has to be created and a high degree of cooperation with special needs teachers is required.

All the new teachers also reported additional tasks that they had to take on within the school, such as supervising breaks, being responsible for a subject room (music, crafts) or being responsible for the digital infrastructure, etc. These tasks required additional time, also because further relevant information about school processes had to be found out and agreements had to be made. These additional tasks often competed with the preparation time for the students' own school lessons.

The interviewees also referred to the great administrative burdens of class teachers, cooperation with parents and teaching disruptions or misconduct by students as further challenges. Interestingly, these topics were mentioned to a far lesser extent than the challenges outlined above.

An additional burden arises for new (and also experienced) teachers due to the federal school structures in Switzerland. Each canton has its own school legislation and working regulations – when a teacher starts working in a new canton, one of their first tasks is to find their way around the specific local working regulations.

Avoidable perceived external and burdens as risk factors

With regard to external burdens, the new teachers perceived an insufficient induction into school processes and areas of responsibility as the greatest unnecessary burden. It made a considerable difference whether the school or the school management invested time and resources (e.g. in the form of mentors) to familiarise newcomers and ensured that they had all the necessary information at their disposal, or whether the school or the school management neglected to do this. The consequences of insufficiently supported induction training are that a lack of overview of their areas of responsibility and feelings of being alone and overwhelmed, as well as frustration and insecurity, arose. In addition, they made wrong decisions more frequently, missed important meetings and did not complete tasks they were actually responsible for. Furthermore, there were misunderstandings and communication difficulties with colleagues because the colleagues also were not sufficiently informed by the school management about the tasks and role of the new teacher.

The interviewees also found long-established teachers exhausting when preferred to work on their own instead of in the team, clung to outdated teaching methods and

generally did not recognise the skills and new ideas of young professionals. However, such teachers were the exception.

Parents who were not cooperative, exceeding the limits by wanting to have a say in the lessons and/or who expected constant availability and attention from the teacher were also thankfully the exception rather than the rule. However, these parents were responsible for a not insignificant amount of additional stress as the interviewees started their careers.

Other external challenges were students who did not adhere to agreements, showed no appreciation for the teacher, or bullied others (especially outside the classroom). The young professionals also complained about inefficient and – as a result – unnecessarily long meetings with the teaching staff. Last but not least, the respondents also criticised the inadequate preparation by their university for the everyday challenges of everyday school life (e.g. what one needs to do when a student gets hurt, goes missing, etc.).

As for further internal, unnecessary burdens, the novice teachers named their own tendency towards perfectionism, a lack of assertiveness in order to represent their own interests and organisational and planning weaknesses

Perceived internal and external resources

The respondents said that they saw it as a great advantage that they were very well-informed in advance by their practical teachers and former fellow students about the high workloads of the first few years as a teacher. Their handling of it was pragmatic in that they accept it as a passing phenomenon. All participants were prepared for some hard, first years of work right from the beginning. Many started out as subject teachers and only a little later as class teachers.

The respondents named good planning skills, self-organisation and flexibility as additional resources. All respondents spoke about the importance of their teacher's planning calendar. Most of the respondents keep this calendar very carefully up-to-date and enter all upcoming appointments into it. They usually create the rough weekly planning during the holidays, the detailed planning then takes place a week before. To stay ahead, teachers keep a closer look at the detailed planning for the coming one to two weeks and roughly know about the planning for the following month. They also plan fixed time slots in which they can prepare their lessons. In addition to the teacher's calendar, one teacher also uses the calendar function of his smartphone to remind

him of upcoming appointments. Nevertheless, despite good planning, the young teachers are regularly overloaded. All teachers stated that they work more than the official number of hours.

Concerning cooperation and social exchange, collaborating with colleagues from the same school year in the form of joint annual planning, lesson and examination planning, the review of teaching materials (with the support of software such as *Microsoft Teams*) and the discussion of problems was indicated as the most important resource for starting a career. The most important social exchange takes place above all with job partners and special needs teachers in the same class. Interestingly, both experienced teachers and young professionals are valued as job partners. On the one hand, the wealth of experience of teaching staff is valued and, on the other hand, two job partners (who are both new) have a particularly strong feeling that they are facing many new challenges together and supporting each other in the process. Within the teaching staff, young professionals sometimes have special support persons who have nothing to do with the class and are therefore valued for their 'more neutral' view of the class. This person is either a former practice teacher, a person with whom the young professional has established a special relationship of trust for reasons of mutual sympathy, or a mentor assigned by the school management. It is noticeable that one young teacher, who in the interview described her career entry as rather negative, apparently had no real support person in or outside of her class. Overall, it was also interesting that the young teachers actively try to avoid contact with teachers who have a rather negative view of students or who portray student misconduct in an exaggeratedly negative manner.

Concerning classroom management and positive class relationships, all respondents emphasised the importance of varied lessons operating at a good rhythm. This includes the alternation of strenuous and easy tasks for the students, but also moments in which the teacher can relax for a moment, because the students, for example, carry out a task independently and in silence. The importance of a positive teacher-student relationship was also mentioned. For example, one teacher emphasised the fact that his class has already helped him several times in difficult situations because they wanted to show him their loyalty. Other respondents emphasised the importance of having the ability to change perspective – this is the only way to understand that a seemingly simple task can be perceived by the students as difficult.

Concerning self-regulation and patience with others (but also with themselves), all respondents pointed out that teachers have to be able to regulate themselves in difficult situations. They indicated the following as examples of self-regulation strategies: taking deep breaths, slow internal counting, humour, changing the focus of attention, consciously looking at the positive aspects of a situation and establishing class rituals. From their point of view, teachers must remain calm, as only then the classes can become calm again as well. This insight and the associated strategies were conveyed to them through the practice and the personal mentors from university. Overall, teachers state that patience is one of the most important skills in a teacher, as well as the capacity to accept their own mistakes.

All the participants also emphasized the importance of addressing problems relatively quickly and directly. In case of problems in the class (such as teaching disruptions, arguments or bullying), teachers recommend either confronting students directly or discussing such problems in the class council [13]. If there are problems in the teaching staff, it is advisable from the point of view of the respondents to stand up for themselves and their concerns and not wait too long. In order to solve the problem, it is helpful to already present possible solutions. For example, one of the novice teachers often did not receive important information about the class and other areas of responsibility, or received it too late. She proposed keeping a kind of class diary in which all important information must be entered. Her colleagues picked up on the idea immediately and she has received all the information on time since then.

Perceived resources and protective factors outside school

The respondents named a conscious use of their free time as an important factor in coping with the stresses of their professional life. For them, it was important to do sport regularly, to get enough sleep, to be in contact with nature, to relax consciously on the sofa, or to spend time with friends and family. This includes having times when they deliberately do not talk with others about their work. At other times, they seek advice from friends and family who are not teachers themselves and value them for their different perspectives on school-related problems. However, they also discuss more difficult school-related problems with friends and family members who are also teachers. They appreciate them for their rich experiences.

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13   In the class council, topics of social interaction are discussed. It usually takes place weekly and students advise, discuss and decide e.g. about current problems, planned activities, etc.

5.2 Case B: French-speaking part of Switzerland

The results are offered through excerpts of transcription that refer to the dimensions selected during the analysis. All the names have been modified in order to ensure the participants' anonymity. The original French language has been maintained. The presentation of findings is organised around three categories: the identity, the transition from student teacher to teacher as critical moments, and the professional trajectory of changes.

Identity

The first one concerns the identity as a change in professional position and the difficulties indicated by the participants in identifying themselves as teachers. Their interpretation of their own identity emerges from several factors – disciplinary knowledge, methodological skills, status – which are modulated in different ways according to the training they received, the particular professional practices and the circumstances outside the school that they experienced.
The first excerpt concerns a meeting of group A2. In particular, the following intervention by Marine has been selected:

> Et des fois je, je dis, quand on me demande ce que je fais, ben j'ai une fonction d'enseignante, je ne suis pas une enseignante. J'ai une fonction d'enseignante. Je coupe l'identification au statu de prof. Donc là, c'est vrai que ça me pose un peu des problèmes.
>
> Moi j'ai commencé à enseigner 7 ans avant de faire la HEP, alors, euh, effectivement je me suis lancée sur les traces d'un collègue qui avait des cours, euh, pas piqué des vers, avec beaucoup beaucoup de texte, du Times avec une police 10. [...] lui c'était beaucoup la discussion donc relativement frontal et tout. Ben c'est aussi l'enseignement que j'ai reçu vu mon âge [...] Alors évidemment, on voit vite les limites et pis peut-être la chance que j'ai eue c'est que j'étais pas toute jeune, j'avais eu des ados et pis voilà, j'ai fait d'autres choses.

The focus group was an occasion to share the difficult transition represented by the change from the status of student to the role of teacher. A reorganisation of the teacher's representation of herself was connected to the process of construction of an identity as a teacher. Although some institutional aspects can be a problem, they also generate a personal reflection on the professional role and practices, as well as on the relationships

with students. In the excerpt, the teacher describes the interaction between at least four experiential components: the 'naïve' teaching experience carried out before a formal training, based on the model of more expert colleagues and of the teaching she received as a pupil, the training received at university, the personal teaching experience after her insertion in the professional context and her life course.

Transitions as critical moments

The second main category emerging from the data analysis refers to the critical moments that characterise the shift from one status to another. Entering the profession leads teachers to face important changes and to make predictions about the approaching transformations (e.g. the upcoming return to school or the change of institution or canton).

The following excerpt shows Joséphine's intervention as participant in group B1:

> Donc ça, ça a été, ça a été très difficile. Après, moi je sais pas comment pour toi (elle regarde Alexandre), ça a fonctionné, c'est vrai que je pense que c'est tout autant difficile mais c'est vrai que, ce qui est problématique en arts visuels, c'est qu'on a aucun support de cours. [...] C'est juste, c'est pas un support quoi et c'est ça qui... et donc du coup nous on doit tout inventer. Et ce qui s'est passé, c'est que là ben heureusement, Jenny a eu une idée pour faire un travail d'introduction auprès des élèves mais sinon on était dans le noir quoi. Moi j'avais aucun exercice de prévu, pourtant je voulais essayer de travailler pendant les vacances mais qu'est-ce que tu veux prévoir quand tu ne sais pas qui t'as.

The excerpt indicates how teachers can manifest their need of support for the first professional experience in class. In this case, the skills and the good ideas of a colleague (who is a peer) can be seen as a kind of 'deus ex machina' or emergency measures. The feeling of having to do everything on their own often puts even expert teachers in a difficult position, while at the same time could help to reinforce their feeling of competence and professional efficiency.

Professional trajectory of changes

The last category we intend to highlight concerns the trajectory of changes before, during and after beginning in the profession. What emerges is that training experiences do not play out the same way for everybody. For

instance, the 'stage' could be perceived as an occasion for questioning one's own expectations about the teaching practice. The following excerpt (concerning an intervention by Nadia during a meeting of group A2) refers to these aspects:

> Mais pour mon expérience, ben stage révélation aussi. Je l'avais déjà dit, la première fois. On a l'impression que quand on va enseigner au gymnase, on va faire du frontal. Et pis en fait, pas du tout. Et c'est ça qui est génial. J'ai tout découvert grâce à un, à une fois, le fait d'avoir vu ma formatrice en établissement travailler et le fait de, d'avoir eu des remarques après mon première cour m'a complètement fait changer d'optique et de point de vue.

Factors emerging as main discursive dimensions

After having selected all the excerpts related to the aforementioned categories, we applied a quantitative analysis based on R statistics. By a descriptive analysis of the frequencies of specific words and a principal component analysis, two main factors emerged: the timing of the professional transition and the operationalisation of the teacher's action, as well as three dimensions around which teachers' discourses are organised: reflection, networks and professionalisation.

The quantitative analysis confirms the pertinence of the aforementioned categories presented in the qualitative part, in which identity has emerged as a change in professional positions according to multiple factors including intrinsic (knowledge, professional competencies) and extrinsic components (education, type of school), and transitions have been considered as occasions to formulate hypotheses about commencing a professional career. These moments are intended as phases of transformation that teachers experience through their career and by their reflection on the professional activity.

5.3   Case C: Tunisia

The questions of the survey were mainly related to three axes: relationships with others (students, peers, parents), problems the new teachers encounter and the subjective evaluation of their teaching experience as new teachers. A description of the results informs the extent to which the results account for a change in the participants' status, or in other words, we show if the perception as students is different from their perception as novice teachers.

Relational level

The three questions related to the relational level were the following:

How do you evaluate your relationship with 1/ pupils, 2/ parents, 3/ inspectors and 4/ administrators, and 5/how do you rate your professional experience? Possible answers (to be chosen): very bad, bad, fairly good, good, very good.

How do you qualify your relationship with 1/ pupils, 2/ parents, 3/ administrators and 4/ inspectors? Possible answers (to be chosen): professional, confrontational, friendly, other.

A. Quality of relationship

Results indicate that the quality of the relationship of teachers with the various players in their professional environment (pupils, inspectors, parents, administrators) is generally good, although it was slightly better when they were students (during their training at school). Indeed, by combining the answers 'good' and 'excellent' regarding the relationships, we obtain the following results (considering that 47 participants answered the survey):

- **Relationship with pupils:**
  93% good/excellent rating when students versus 85% as teachers;

- **Relationship with inspectors:**
  87.2% good/excellent rating when students versus 70% as teachers;

- **Relationship with parents:**
  89% good/excellent rating when students versus 82.9% as teachers;

- **Relationship with administrators:**
  80% good/excellent rating when students versus 74% as teachers.

In general, they assess their professional experience as being good either as students (63%) or as new teachers (61.7%) and the other opinions are distributed between excellent and fairly good with the exception of one participant who considered him/herself a bad schoolteacher.

The experience as students (during the training/'stage'), before starting a professional career, is shown below (Graph 1):
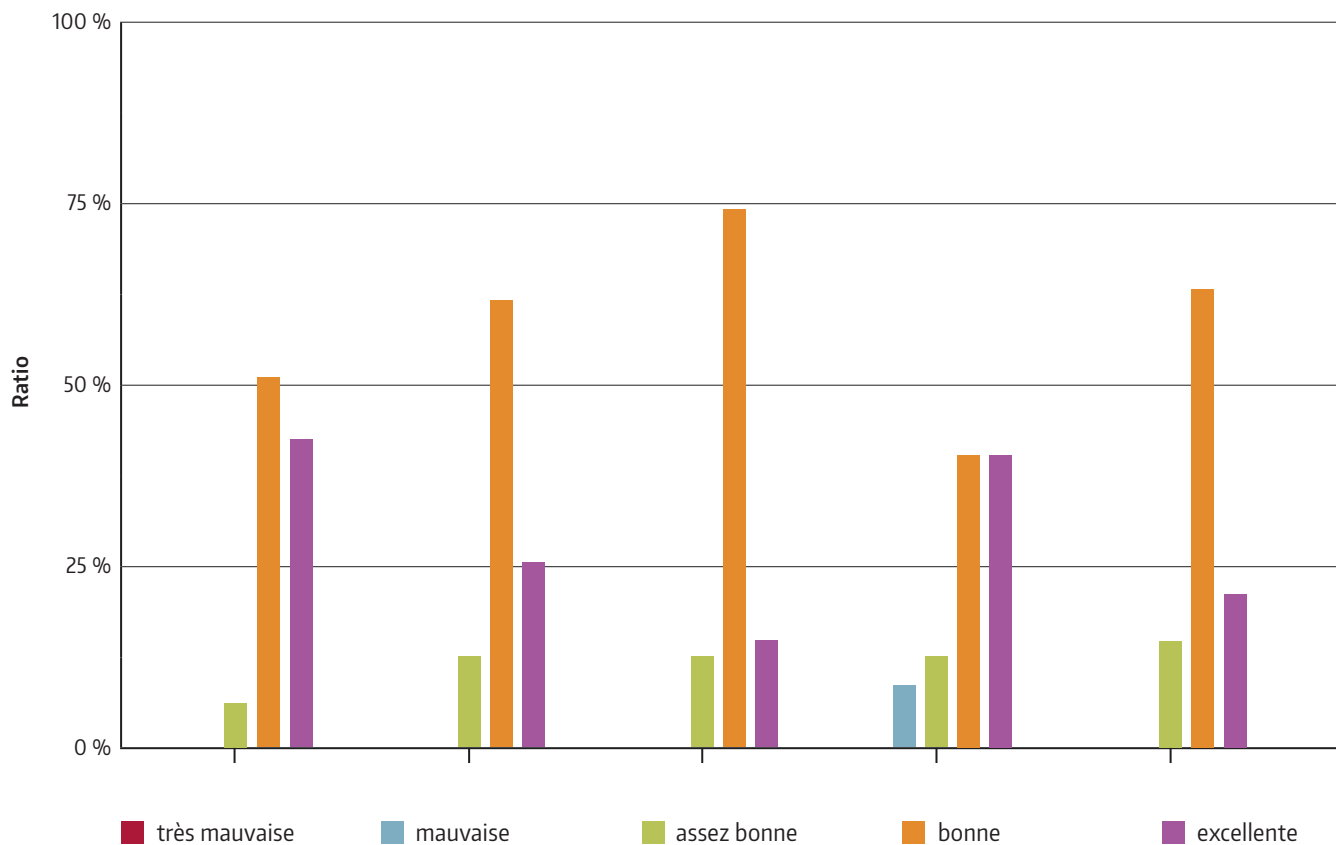
	very bad	bad	fairly good	good	excellent
1. Comment était votre relation avec les élèves ?	0	0	3	24	20
2. Comment était votre relation avec les inspecteures ?	0	0	6	29	12
3. Comment était votre relation avec les parents ?	0	0	6	35	7
4. Comment était votre relation avec l'administration ?	0	4	6	19	19
5. Globalement comment vous pouvez évaluer votre expérience professionelle en tant que stagiaire ?	0	0	7	30	10

Graph 1: Perception of the relational level as trainee - General evaluation of the experience

The experience as a schoolteacher, after starting a professional career, is shown below:
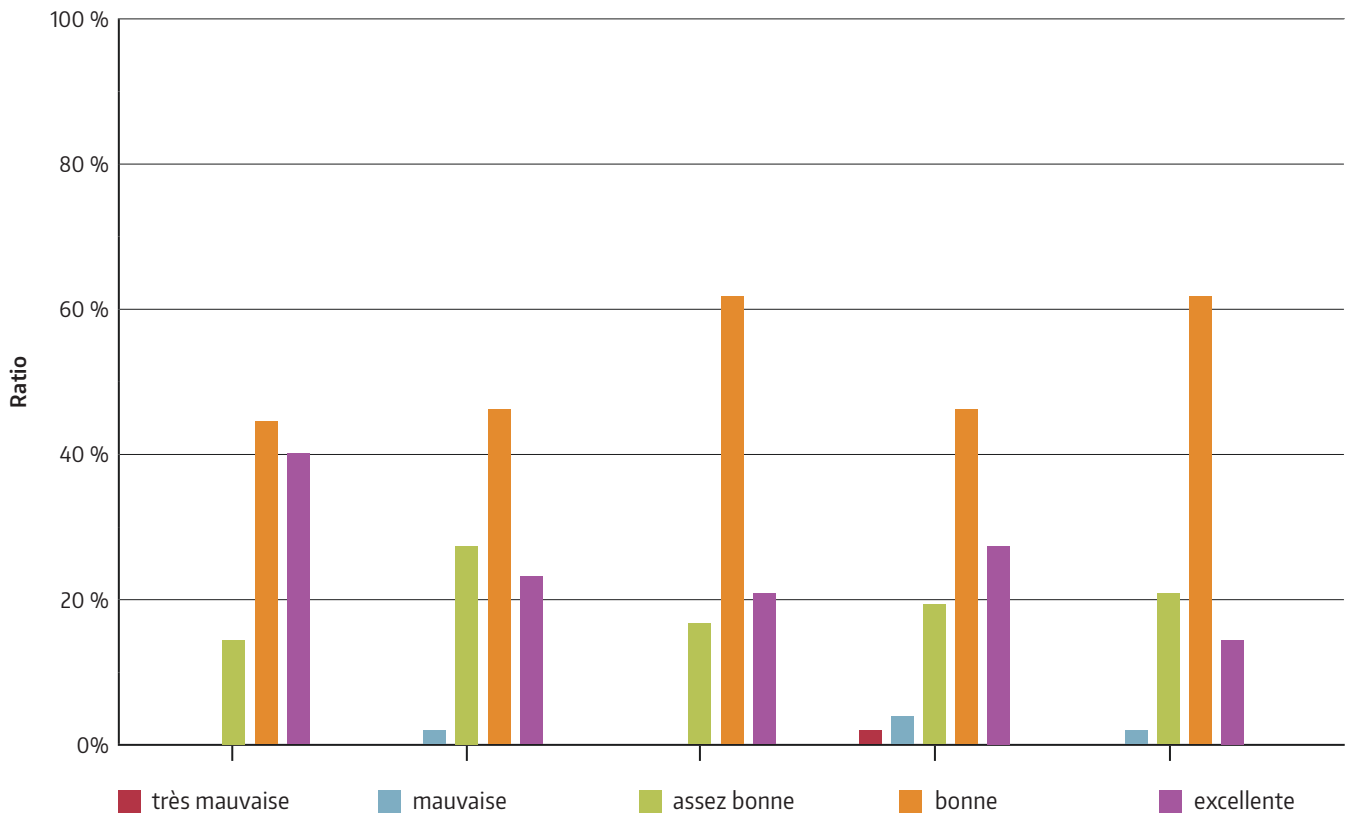
	very bad	bad	fairly good	good	excellent
1. Votre relation avec les élèves est devenue	0	0	7	21	19
2. Votre relation avec les inspecteures est devenue	0	1	13	22	11
3. Votre relation avec les parents est devenue	0	0	8	29	10
4. Votre relation avec l' administration est-elle devenue	1	2	9	22	13
5. Globalement comment vous pouvez évaluer votre expérience professionelle en tant que proffesseur des écoles? ?	0	1	10	29	7

Graph 2: Perception of the relational level as a young teacher

B. Type of relationship

Novice teachers consider their relationship with pupils to be either friendly or professional, although it is mostly friendly during their training/'stage' (25 rating friendly and 14 rating professional) or early-career teachers (25 rating friendly and 18 rating professional).

However, their relationships with parents, the administrators and inspectors evolve with their change of status. Indeed, although it remains mainly professional, two aspects are particularly interesting:

- when students, their relationship with the inspectors was more friendly (12 rating friendly versus 24 rating professional) than when they became teachers (6 rating friendly versus 33 rating professional);

- their relationship with the administration was mainly professional when they were students (4 rating friendly versus 39 rating professional) and became more friendly when they became teachers (18 rating friendly and 22 rating professional).

The findings concerning the students are reported below:
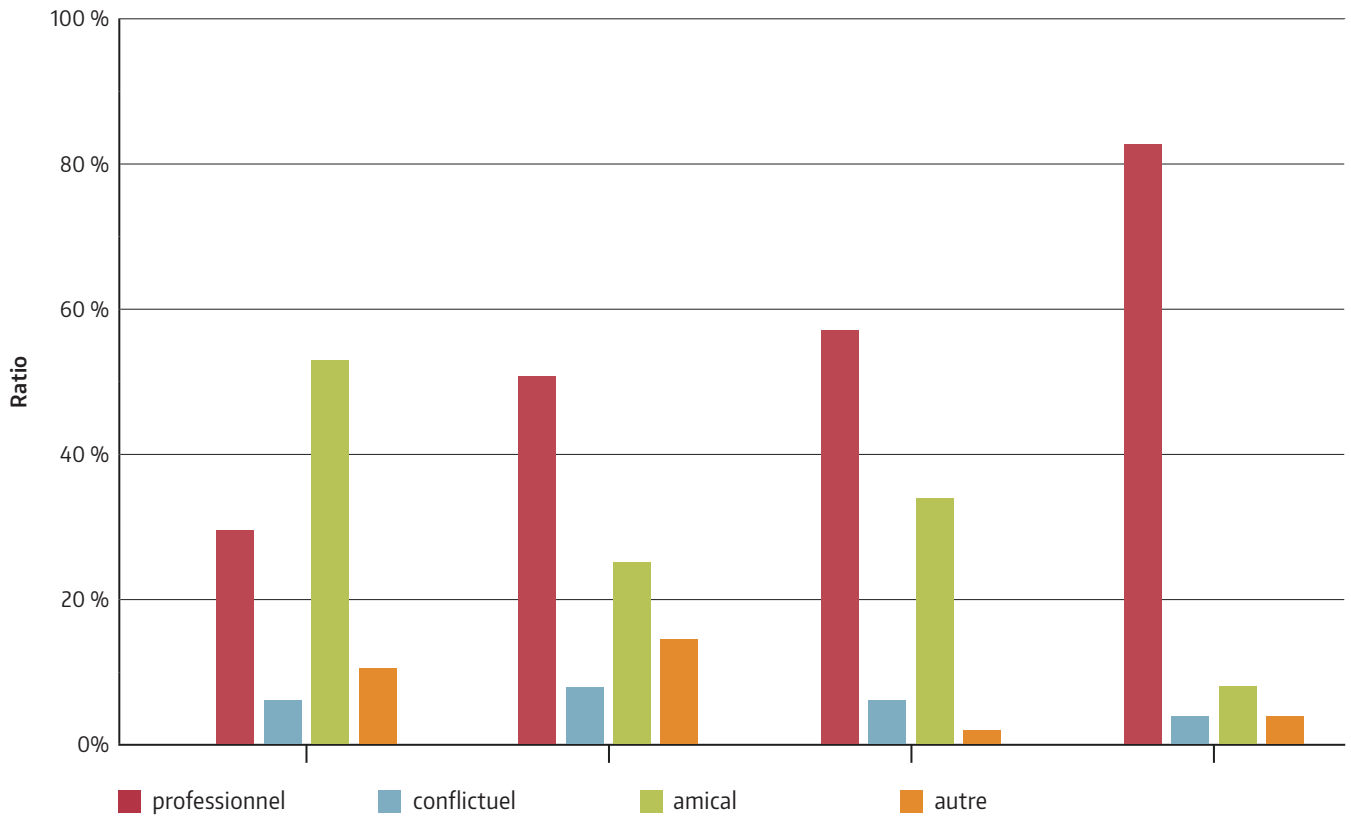
		professionnel	conflictuel	amical	autre
1.	Comment vous pouvez qualifier votre contact avec les élèves ?	14	3	25	5
2.	Comment vous pouvez qualifier votre contact avec les parents ?	24	4	12	7
3.	Comment vous pouvez qualifier votre contact avec l' administration ?	27	3	16	1
4.	Comment vous pouvez qualifier votre contact avec les inspecteurs?	39	2	4	2

Graph 3: Perception of the relational level as a student

However, we have noticed that a certain number of new teachers do not manage to clearly qualify the type of relation and chose the answer 'other', meaning that their relation could be, for example, 'maternal' with the pupils or quite simply 'neutral'.

The representation concerning the schoolteachers is indicated below:
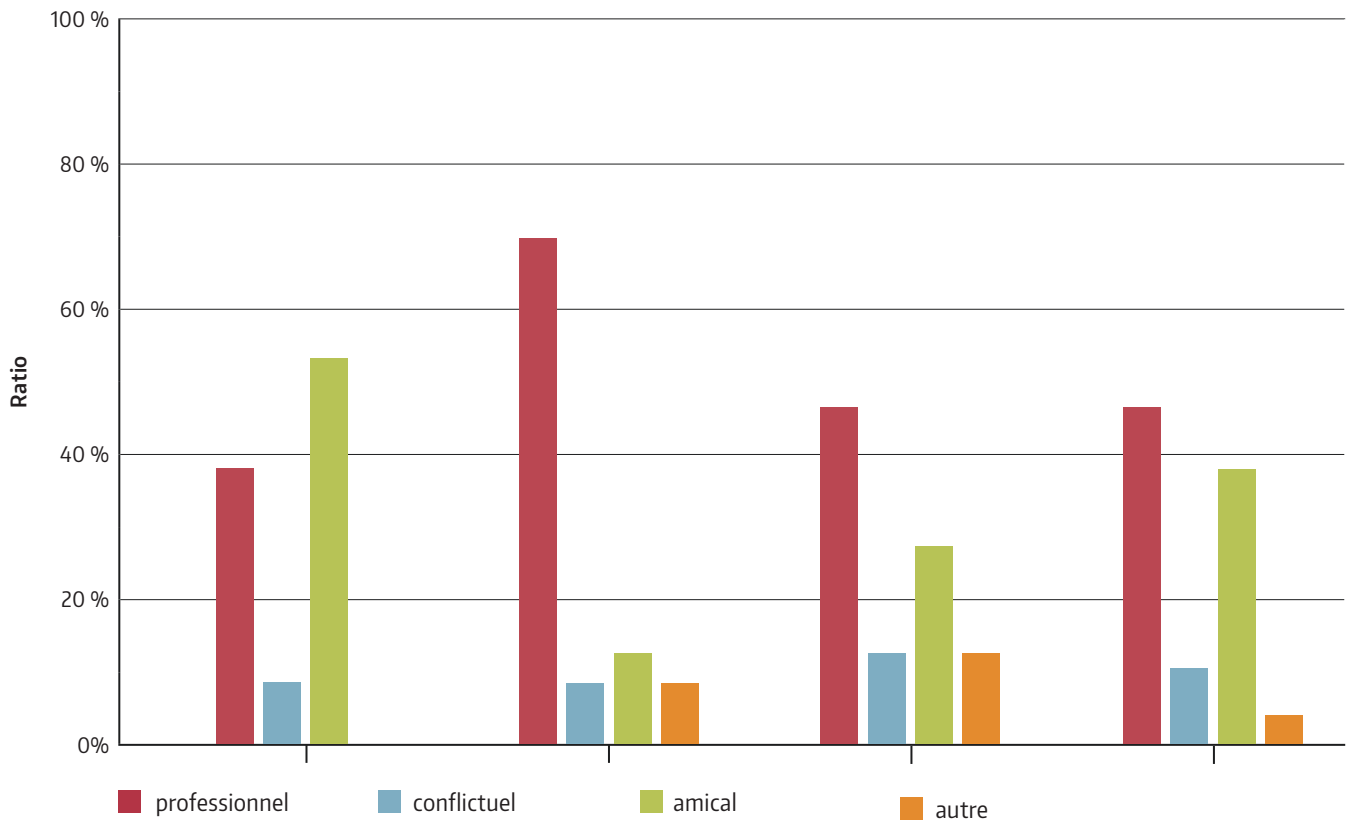
	plus professionnel	plus conflictuel	plus amical	autre
1. Votre contact avec les élèves est-il devenue	18	4	25	0
2. Votre contact avec les inspecteurs est-il devenue	33	4	6	4
3. Votre contact avec les parents est-il devenue	22	6	13	6
4. Votre contact avec l'administration est-il devenue	22	5	18	2

Graph 4: Perception of the relational level as a school teacher

Problems encountered

Concerning the problems, participants were first asked whether or not they encountered problems, and were then invited to specify whether the nature of the problems was 1/ educational, 2/ relational, 3/ communicational, 4/ logistical or 5/ other.

To the general question "Have you encountered any problems?", the majority of respondents answered yes (89% as a schoolteacher and 78.7% as students). However, the cause of the problems changed significantly with the change of status. In fact, as students, 44.7% of participants indicated that they encountered educational problems. Also, relational (23.4%), communicational (25.5%) and logistic (27.7%) problems remain quite important. This point leads us to think that when they were students, they encountered problems at almost all levels.

Once teachers, the main problems are organisational (36.2%). However, we note that communicational problems remain quite significant and keep the same rate (25.5% as students and 23.4% as teachers). On the contrary, pedagogical and relational problems significantly decrease.

The finding as students are indicated below:
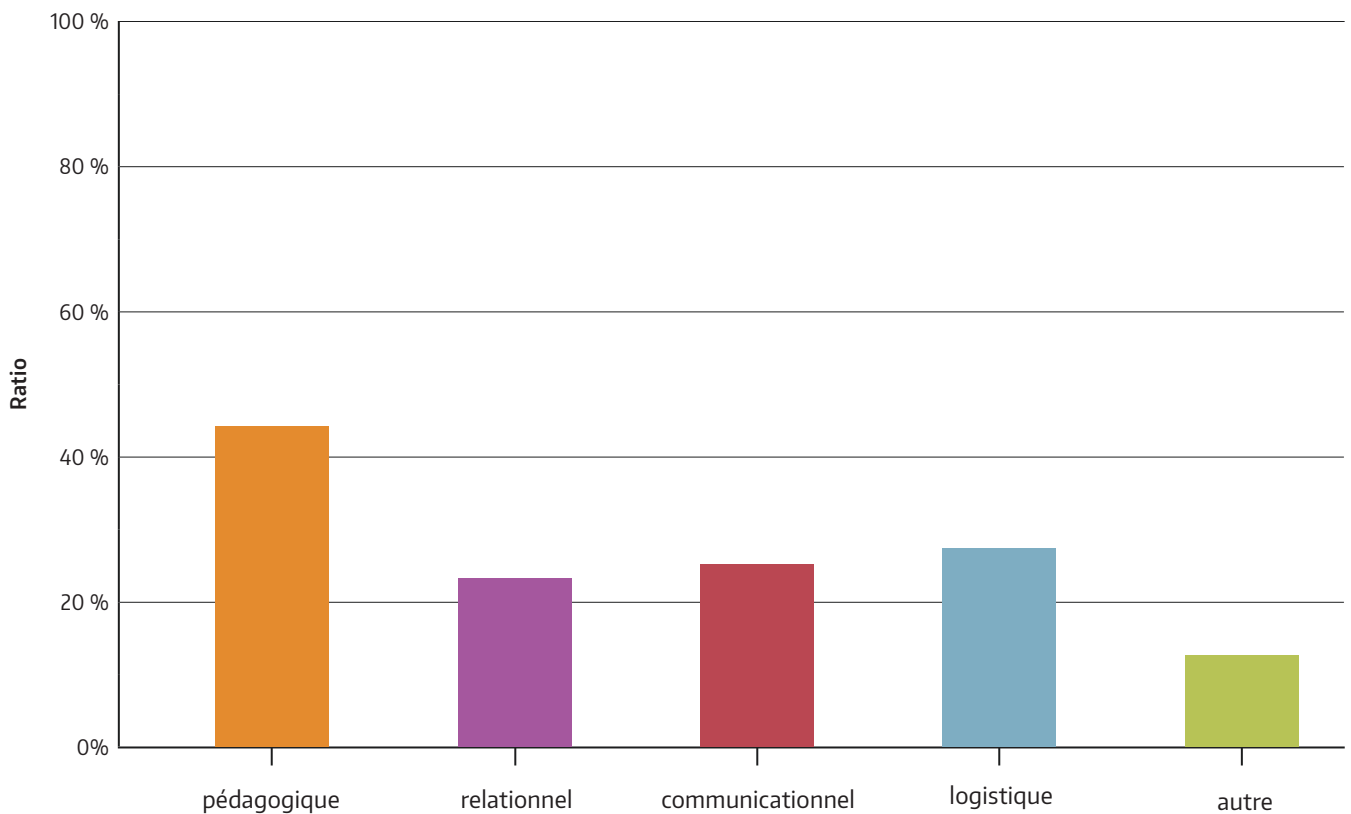
	Choix de réponse	Réponses	Ratio
	pédagogique	21	44.7 %
	relationnel	11	23.4 %
	communicationnel	12	25.5 %
	logistique	13	27.7 %
	autre	6	12.8 %

Graph 5: Problems encountered by the students

The results as schoolteachers are indicated below:
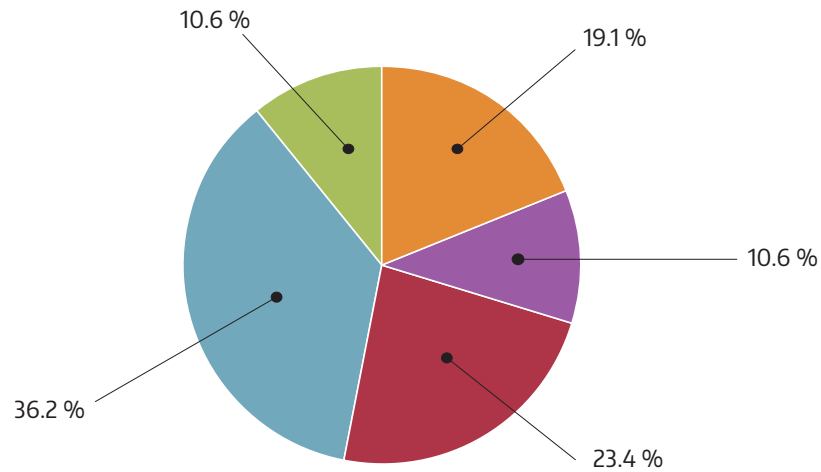
Choix de réponse	Réponses	Ratio
pédagogique	9	19.1 %
relationnel	5	10.6 %
communicationnel	11	23.4 %
logistique	17	36.2 %
autre	5	10.6 %

Graph 6: Problems encountered by the school teachers

Assessment of teaching experience
In order to identify how new teachers evaluate their pro-
fession, we addressed two questions:

1. How would you rate the responsibilities relating
   to your new status?

2. Overall, how would you qualify your new
   teaching experience?

Because the responsibilities of a new teacher are heavy,
46% of people rated them either quite difficult (23.4%)
or difficult (23.4%), while 34% considered them to be av-
erage. Despite the fact that the responsibilities are rated
as quite onerous, 72.3% of new teachers rate their
teaching experience as enjoyable or even extraordinary.

The results for Question 1 'How would you rate the responsibilities relating to your new status?' are given below:
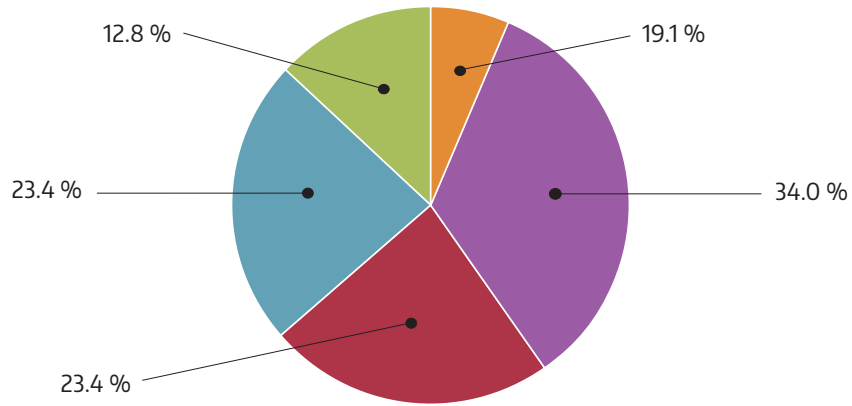
	Choix de réponse	Réponses	Ratio
	très faciles	0	0 %
	faciles	3	6.4 %
	moyennes	16	34.0 %
	assez difficiles	11	23.4 %
	difficiles	11	23.4 %
	très difficiles	6	12.8 %

Graph 7: Perception of responsibilities

For Question 2 'Overall, how would you qualify your new teaching experience?', the results are shown below:
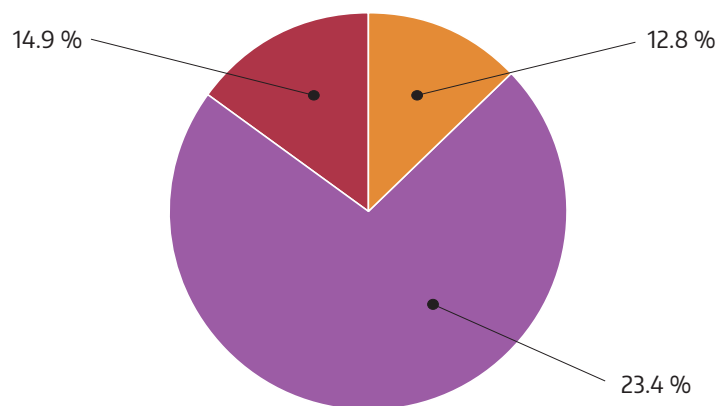
	Choix de réponse	Réponses	Ratio
	désagréable	6	12.8 %
	agréable	34	72.3 %
	extraordinaire	7	14.9 %

Graph 8: Quality of the new teaching experience

6.   Discussion

The aim of this study was to examine the career entry of novice teachers in three different socio-cultural realities in order to learn more about the experiences they had, their development processes, and the positive and negative factors influencing the start of their professional careers. Furthermore, we noticed that similarities and differences between the different contexts should be related to one another (cf. the following table).

Factors	Commonalities	Differences
External	▪ Importance attributed to 'stage' practice ▪ Difficulties related to heterogeneous classrooms and local systems	▪ Additional administrative work and management of logistic aspects
Internal	▪ Personal perception of potential educational problems (disciplinary knowledge, preparation received at university) ▪ Personal relevance attributed to relationships (e.g. student-teacher) ▪ Personal relevance attributed to extended collaborations (with colleagues and other school actors)	▪ Evolution of the relationship with school actors according to the change of professional status

Table 1. Similarities and differences between the contexts

Overall, it has been shown that one of the most important factors in all three settings was the quality of positive personal relationships in everyday working life. This primarily affects relationships with students and work colleagues, but also with the school management and parents. How well teachers cope with new challenges crucially depends on whether (or not) they experience a positive, social exchange within the staff and are able to integrate themselves into it. It is also important for novice teachers to build a good relationship with their classes or individual students. For this, the young professionals need skills in class management, self-regulation and self-organisation. The participants stated that they acquired some of these competencies in the course of their

university education, but often they encounter situations in their everyday school life for which they feel they have not been adequately prepared by the universities.

In Cases A and B, it became particularly clear that the time of entry into the profession is perceived as a phase that is associated with a lot of personal and professional development and accordingly requires a very high amount of time and a high willingness to reflect on one's own actions. The teachers in German-speaking and French-speaking Switzerland found the great diversity within the classes and the large cantonal differences within the Swiss school system to be particularly challenging.

In Case A and Case C, the presence or absence of equipment in the school building was indicated as an additional stress factor. However, there is an interesting difference, mainly due to the economic framework: while Tunisian teachers are often faced with technical and logistical challenges (such as blackboards and projectors not available or broken), for Swiss teachers it is not always easy to find additional time to set up and maintain subject rooms and digital learning opportunities.

According to the Bronfenbrenner's eco-theory (1979), individuals are part of various dynamic systems, which in turn are dynamically related to one another. In this sense, we can highlight that different levels (microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem, and chronosystem) are involved in the internal and external factors influencing a novice teacher's career start. For example, there are situations in which the microsystem (the classroom, the teaching staff) encompasses the immediate environment of an individual and influences their professional development, or situations where the interaction between various microsystems (e.g. schools and municipal government) influences the functioning of the context (e.g. which are the resources for teachers and children in the school). Even at the level of the macrosystem, the prevailing cultural and social values and norms have an effect on the perception of the internal and external factors favouring professional career starts.

To summarise the main findings of our study, we can highlight that in the interviews, the better the school management accompanied and supported the entry of the new teachers (e.g. through clear assignment of tasks and roles, fixed times for cooperation discussions, assigned mentors), the less stressed the respondents felt (see Case A). In addition, an identity evolution has emerged as the main element in the change of professional status. Multiple factors were invoked, including intrinsic (knowledge, professional competencies) and

extrinsic components (education, type of school). The period of transition has been indicated as an occasion to better identify appropriate ways for a good professional career start. The possibility to reflect about these elements is considered as crucial by the participants (see Case B). The survey administered for Case C showed that the change of status (from students to teachers) did not affect the quality of the relationship teachers had with members of their professional community and did not impact the relationship with parents or pupils. On the other hand, the perception of the problems is strongly impacted by the change of status.

These elements are relevant within the framework of teachers' professionalisation models referring to the effective and reflective teacher, as well as to the idea of individuals having an active role in promoting social change, as transformative teachers. This coexistence of multiple models of professionalisation is present in the observed social realities and constitutes a reference to better understanding how novice teachers structure their professional identity, and integrate their idea of teaching into practice.

7.   Conclusion

This study contributed to understanding how professional experiences during teaching practice are subjectively and collectively co-constructed and rely on various factors that evolve in a life-long learning perspective. In fact, the hypothesis we formulated at the beginning of this study was that within the heterogeneous contexts of secondary and primary schools in Switzerland and Tunisia, novice teachers are confronted with different professional challenges and their perception of these problems will depend on cultural and contextual factors. In this vein, our objective was to describe the professional career start of teachers in three cultural contexts (Tunisia, French-speaking Switzerland and German-speaking Switzerland) in order to identify elements of similarity and difference.

Our study reveals that the main difference stems from external factors of a material or logistic nature, extrinsic from the perspective of new teachers and over which they do not have much power of action.

These elements, namely the unavailability of equipment or logistical problems, are mainly related to social and economic differences between the considered settings. However, when dealing with new challenges in working life, new teachers faced the same kind of problems. Indeed, in the three contexts, novice teachers affirm that although their university trained them from a scientific

point of view, they are not prepared enough to face the various situations of professional life, in particular those which concern the management of human and relational levels. Thus, the findings of this study show that new teachers have a rather different perception of their professional function: they explain (through surveys and interviews) that their training did not prepare them to face interpersonal problems, managing collaborations with various professional actors or the stress generated by unforeseen situations. In other words, they feel insecure when dealing with various unexpected situations (whether they are of relational and therefore conflictual nature, or of logistical nature).

Concerning the context, the study reveals a need for additional training in classroom management, stress management, conflict management, interpersonal relationship management: e.g. a perceived need related to nurture life skills and personal development. These elements lead us to question whether the problems encountered by new teachers are specific to their profession or this is a problem encountered by the majority of new graduates in a range of professions. To answer this question, it would be interesting to analyse, on the one hand, feedback from more experienced teachers and, on the other hand, the experiences of 'young' people entering a range of professions. These avenues would benefit from the interesting data we collected about the subjective perceptions of our participants (being competent versus being evaluated and judged), the relational level and the need for creating networks, and the balance between reflecting and sharing difficulties and feelings with others.

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Teaching philosophies:

▶ J'adore enseigner. Je ne suis jamais aussi épanouie que lorsque je suis en classe. Je donne tout ce que je peux et possède et en contrepartie je reçois tellement d'amour et de respect et cela me comble. Je voudrais (et je fais tout pour) être un bon exemple qui inspire les étudiants. J'essaye de leur apprendre à avoir confiance en eux, à aimer l'enseignement, à respecter les apprenants, mais aussi à définir des limites claires à ne pas franchir pour que tout reste dans le cadre du respect mutuel. En d'autres termes être un bon enseignant ne veut pas dire être permissif et tout accepter. C'est de donner et de recevoir dans des limites prédéfinies.

C'est ma perception et ma conception de l'enseignement. Aimer ce que l'on fait, respecter les apprenants, ne pas les juger et instaurer une bonne atmosphère en classe. A partir de là, ce que beaucoup appellent un travail, devient une vraie partie de plaisir, de partage et d'échange.

Nadia Lahiani

▶ Over the course of the last 2–3 years, my colleagues from Developmental Psychology and I have developed a teaching method which we call the 6-step method. We use this method to work with students on real-case stories drawn from the students' past and current experiences as trainee teachers in school classes:

Step 1. Identify problem – identify themes
Which critical (psychological) themes can I identify in this case?

Step 2. Analyse the system
Which relevant systems can I identify (e.g. cognitive systems, social systems)? Which system elements and which relationships between these elements can be identified?

Step 3. Identify theories
Which theories (models, results, effects) deal with the themes I have identified in Step 1?

Step 4. Describe the system – delineate an explanatory model
How do the elements of the system influence each other? How can the theories describe the processes depicted in the system?

Step 5. Ponder potential changes in the system
Which changes in the system can one make in order to achieve certain effects? How can the system be changed in either a positive or negative direction? What are my predictions (?): if I strengthen factor X, what will happen to factor Y…?

Step 6. Propose adequate action measures
Which measures are likely to lead to a positive outcome?

Katrin Tovote

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         Experiences and reflections from peer coaching interventions on an international level

9   How can constructive teamwork be established? Experiences and reflections from peer coaching interventions on an international level

Dagmar Engfer
Centre for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, Zurich University of Teacher Education, Zurich, Switzerland
dagmar.engfer@phzh.ch

Farouk Bahri
Institut Supérieur des Etudes Appliquees en Humanités, Zaghouan, ISEAHZ, Tunisia
farouk.bahri@iseahz.u-tunis.tn

Clemens W. Pachlatko
Zurich, Switzerland
c_pachlatko@hotmail.com

Abstract:

Teaching with peer coaching practice methods can provide a basis for constructive collaboration. In this article, three different approaches will be described and analysed. We focus on the question of how constructive and self-guided group work can be established in teaching environments. Three different group interventions using different peer coaching methods took place. A questionnaire was used to obtain answers from the participants in the three different cohorts concerning the peer coaching method used. All three groups consider the methods introduced and practised alongside the tools as helpful and supportive of the group work. On the other hand, they found it difficult to practice the approaches they had learnt because it was challenging to maintain the structure in the discussions. A second focus of this article is an individual self-reflection on the teamwork within the trio conducting this study, which was not without challenges. Due to different factors such as the pandemic, illness and work duties, the workflow slowed down in between and almost came to a complete standstill. The main conclusions drawn from these reflections show how important it is to give and take enough time to establish a trusting, confidence-based relationship as a basis for collaborative work. Further, it is crucial to clarify one's expectations of the collaboration both at the beginning and during a project. Open and clear communication can help to avoid misunderstandings. Instead of remaining in suppositions, interpretations and conjectures, it is more helpful to ask questions and exchange perceptions. Personal experience with group dynamics and teamwork are essential for the work with groups and as teachers and lecturers.

Keywords:

- peer coaching
- group dynamic
- teamwork
- collaboration
- teaching

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Prologue

Nature finds a way to communicate between continents.

This winter, strong southern winds blew desert sand from the Sahara to the Swiss mountains, building a bridge between the African and European continents by covering the mountains with a thin layer of yellow coloured desert sand. It provides nourishing minerals for the flora in the Swiss Alps.

This desert sand created a yellow and dusty impression in the atmosphere, rendering the sunlight diffuse and milky. This phenomenon is regularly observed over longer lasting periods of time. at greater intervals.

So, even if it was not possible for us to meet for this project during the pandemic, nature showed us the light at the end of the tunnel. We welcomed this beautiful natural phenomenon in this first period of the Covid-19 pandemic. It was a sign for us how close Africa and Europe are, and how intercontinental exchanges can be enriching and fruitful.

1.   Introduction

This article is written within the framework of the Swiss North African Academic Network (SINAN), an international network working in the field of teacher education in Egypt, Switzerland and Tunisia. It was in Tunisia in the autumn of 2019 that we learned that one of the tasks requested was a document arising from this project with articles between academics from different countries.

When the teams were formed, three teachers (one Tunisian and two Swiss) discovered that they were also involved in coaching – in addition to their teaching activities: Dagmar Engfer is a coach and counsellor for lecturers at universities, researchers and companies, Clemens Wolfgang Pachlatko was the principal of a secondary school in Zurich, Switzerland and Farouk Bahri is a consultant and facilitator with NGOs and companies in Tunisia. We all work with groups in educational and training contexts and institutions, in most cases with groups of teachers and groups of students (sometimes mixed groups of students and teachers) and also groups of educators, professionals from NGOs or companies. Another similarity in our philosophy is that we work with peer coaching methods and therefore have a background or experience and skills in peer coaching. The view on the differences shows different contexts (the university and the school context), different countries (Tunisia and Switzerland) and different target groups (students, lecturers and teachers).

The aim of our contribution is to reflect on how to establish constructive teamwork and problem-solving approaches in an educational context and, in addition, to point out similarities and differences that could arise during the dynamics of group work. Although our methods were different, they all had in common our desire to provide teams and groups with the appropriate tools for finding a good resolution of the challenges they may face in their working context and in their different professional roles. Depending on the context, these challenges can vary from dealing with emotions, divergences and delays to fulfilling one's own role as lecturer to working with groups or creating interactive working environments.

Our special interest was on the introduction of peer coaching methods that enable self-guided group work and supportive learning opportunities for our students, teachers, and lecturers. We wanted to compare three approaches we are using for that purpose. However, we quickly realised that the challenges we face in group dynamics in our professional practice also concerned us in our Trio work, and that this should be a matter of reflection and analysis to be included in this article. In this case, the Covid-19 pandemic and its repercussions on

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our collaboration (unforeseen events, inability to travel) allowed us to reflect on and analyse our own group dynamics at a meta-level.

As a result, in this article we have chosen to describe both

1. the process and the group dynamics of our groups, teams, and participants, but also

2. the process and group dynamics of our own Trio work.

The aim of the reflection on both levels is to do our own self-analysis and to see whether we as teachers and coaches also apply the precepts and recommendations that we apply when we conduct group work processes.

Our article is divided into three parts, the first one (chapter 2 and 3) describes the methodology, the background and approaches of the three peer coaching methods used and the qualitative analysis of the survey. The second part (chapter 4) compares the three approaches and the results of the survey we pursued to get feedback from our groups and teams on the approaches we worked with. We also highlight the points of divergence and convergence between the participants' feedback. Finally, the third part (chapter 5) is devoted to reflecting on the challenges faced by the authors as a team and the means put in place to remedy them.

2. Methodology

A questionnaire was put together to obtain feedback on cooperative peer coaching methods from the participants of the three groups of educators in two different countries. We used three peer coaching approaches for the three groups, each one of them attempting to fit with the needs of the participants. The approaches are described in Chapter 3.

The questions were designed to ascertain how collaboration within the group was perceived by the participants, how they evaluated the intention and functionality of the three peer coaching methods for cooperation used and how useful the application in their practical work was for them. The questionnaire can be found in the appendix. The first group (Tunisia; Farouk) consisted of 5 students of teacher education, the second group was composed of 19 lecturers attending a certificate programme in higher education and the third group consisted of 4 teachers working at a secondary school. Due to the small group sizes (especially of the two

smaller groups), the results will be interpreted qualitatively.

The data was collected from a survey consisting of 11 closed and 9 open questions. Answers to the closed questions ranged between 1 (does not apply) and 4 (strongly applies), and the participants were not allowed to select 0 (no entry/no answer). The open questions required individual feedback from the participants with the aim of getting information concerning the usefulness of the peer coaching approach used.

3. Description of the three approaches

All three authors introduced a specific approach to support the collaboration within the group work of their participants. The following section will describe the different approaches.

3.1 Peer coaching in the context of a university Bachelor's degree: The "DIY" approach.

Description of the peer coaching approach

The aim of this intervention is to empower, using peer coaching, a group of students in the development of group skills using the "Do it yourself (DIY)" approach. The toolbox was developed as part of the "Tools for citizens" project. Several European organisations have worked in collaboration to design a development methodology to address the challenges faced by organisations in their daily lives.

Participants

The group under study is made up of 4 students in the second year of the Bachelor in education sciences at the Higher Institute of Applied Studies in Humanity of Zaghouan (ISEAHZ), Tunisia. These students are part of the Zaghouan Education Sciences (ZES), a student club whose objective is to empower students around questions related to competencies, education and holistic approach.

Within the club, a student assumes the role of Coordinating student for the ZES. Four students participated in the process, plus the Coordinating student of the ZES, resulting in a total of 5 students. During the process, I held the role of academic supervisor to ensure the smooth running of the group dynamics.

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Methodological process phase 1:

The implementation process took place from October 19 to November 2, 2019.

On 16/10/2019, the ZES team discussed the projects the students wish to launch for the 2019/2020 academic year. Following this, the academic supervisor introduced the concept of the "toolbox".

Eight thematic cards were placed on the table with the main challenges facing organisations:

working with volunteers, internal communication and decisions, roles and responsibilities, strategy, risks and resilience, vision and mission, knowledge and learning and financial model.

Thereafter, each member had to place a green pawn on what they considered to be a strong point and a red pawn on what they considered, on the contrary, a point which needed working on. A consensus was reached for the choice of what they considered the 'weakest' theme: knowledge and learning.

The members wanted to work on a database containing all the skills of each team member in order to know who was doing what. In general, the team wanted to move from an association of individuals to a more systemic application.

Methodological process phase 2:

The first part of the workshop brought together 4 female students and 1 male student around the theme they had selected: knowledge and learning.

As academic supervisor, I first of all indicated the different stages of the process that we were going to tackle, mapping and existing structures in terms of knowledge sharing. The students started by noting together what common knowledge they shared, and then each one reflected individually on the knowledge and skills they had mastered individually.

The student group successfully completed the first stage of the workshop, producing a map of the knowledge and skills they either shared or had individually.

Methodological process phase 3:

The second part of the *knowledge and learning* workshop started with a summary of the previous session. This session was dedicated to establishing new knowledge-sharing structures and the selection of the tools needed to set up these structures in the long term. At the end of the session, a plan and a division of tasks between the members of the ZES was finalised, and several lines of thought in relation to their future profession as teachers were discussed.

Group dynamics

The group dynamics are special in that, as mentioned earlier, one student plays the role of "coordinator". The idea was that she would coordinate between the different members of the ZES.

As mentioned before, the team chose to delve into the path of *knowledge and learning* on their own. The result was that two members of the ZES left the project. After these departures, we tried to reschedule consolidation and mediation workshops, but the public health situation with the Covid pandemic spoiled the group dynamic which had seemed so promising. In spite of this, the team – although young and still with limited experience – carried out several actions for the benefit of the students, and even created an educational game around the History of Carthage: *The Cartha'go box*.

Analysis of the results from the survey

On a broad scale, the method as it was applied was evaluated positively. The items in the survey that were answered with a value of 4 (strongly applies) were as follows:

- The tool/method was helpful.

- The tool/method was easy to apply/use.

- The tool/method supported the interaction within the group.

- I knew what could be expected from the group.

- My roles in the group were comfortable and clear to me.

Out of the 5 students, only 4 answered the questionnaire, despite several reminders.

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The first important information gleaned from this questionnaire relates to the acceptance of the tool and the perception of its effectiveness by the students. To question 8: "I will use this method in my context / my working", all the students answered in the affirmative. The participants all confirmed that they wanted to reuse this method in their work. Regarding question 4: "The tool / method supported interaction within the group", the participants agreed with the approach.

Several questions related to the clarity of the tool and its overall understanding. In this context, question 2: "The tool/method was easy to use" seems to indicate that the tool was considered accessible. On the other hand, for question 3: "The introduction of the tool / method was clear", three participants answered "strongly agree", with another answering "rather agree". This could indicate that there was not enough space and time for participants to ask their questions. The practical, concrete aspect is highlighted through question 5.

A focus on the participants' perception of the working dynamic within the group can be identified in questions 12, 13, 15 and 16. The results for question 12: "There was enough time to get to know each other" immediately indicate that the students (except the one who did not answer) felt that the time allocated to the two workshops (8 hours in total) was sufficient to meet the other team members and get to know them better. Question 13 confirmed that the purely technical component (time, tools, labour, and deliverables) of the two workshops was successful.

On a personal level, each participant (referring to question 15) knew what was required of him/her in the group. Question 16: "I felt comfortable with my role(s) within the group" added some nuance to the answers. This is the only question where the results cover a broader spectrum, with 25% selecting "rather not agree", 25% "rather agree" and 50% "strongly agree". This seems to indicate that there could be problems linked either to emotion or to interpersonal interactions within the team itself. It would no doubt have been interesting to ascertain the reasons for these feelings with the help of additional questions.

The questionnaire included a set of open and complementary answers for questions 7, 9, 10, 11, 14 and from 17 to 20. In question 7: "What changes would you suggest?", only one participant indicated that he/she would have liked there to be other steps to facilitate the understanding and assimilation of the toolbox. It seems that this same person confirms his/her point of view in question 9: "What are strengths and weaknesses of the tool?"

We now turn to question 10: "What were the highlights of the tool?" From what we can observe here, the toolbox facilitates group work and allows the development of a concrete and efficient action plan. In addition, the aesthetics of the tool was emphasised.

The results of question 14: "How did you experience the group building process?" seem to indicate that, overall and despite the reluctance mentioned in the responses to question 16: "I felt comfortable with my role(s) within the group", the experience is appreciated and positive for subjective reasons. A response from one participant sums it up well: "This helped me improve my teamwork, control my behaviour and find out how my team works well".

The following questions, 17, 18 and 19 are about group dynamics. Question 17: "What were the highlights of the work/working in the group?" underlines the strengths of the group dynamics of the participants. All of them seem to point to the advantages of this collaboration, in particular the fact of generating new ideas, a certain harmony but also an awareness of one's own strengths and limitations. Alternatively, question 18: "What were difficulties of the work/working in the group?" dealt with the challenges involved, confirming by contrast the points addressed in question 17. Terms like "lack of trust", "communication" or "role uncertainty" confirm that a certain unease seems to be distilling within the group and that these are points to be taken into consideration.

Question 19: "What kind of emotional interactions did you experience within the group?" perfectly illustrates the group dynamics developed by Tuckman. The emotions felt were "excitement, motivation, happiness and fun", all of which have a positive connotation (except anger). The students appreciated the experience and retained positive memories in terms of group work.

This is confirmed by the last question: "What else do I want to say?" Although one participant answered "nothing" and another suggested a CD version of the box, the other two shared their support for the tool while realising the importance of communication as part of a working process within a team.

As the academic responsible for the process, the challenge of this experience is that I had to restrain myself in order to let the group grow at its own pace so that it could autonomously resolve conflicts and adopt a collective logic of problem solving.

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3.2 Peer coaching approach for a study group in higher education

In the following figure, the approach of peer coaching is described along with its different phases. This is the method suggested when the participants work in the study groups.

The aim of this peer coaching method is to reflect on professional practice among colleagues on an equal footing. Based on case examples, the group members develop options for future similar situations together. Case examples are concrete situations or concerns from the professional context. The strength of the method is to work with the resources of the whole group in sharing experiences and proceeding with structure of five phases. The process is solution-oriented and moderated by one participant of the group to enable an efficient and structured discussion within the group (Lippmann, 2009; Tietze, 2020). The approach used is an adaptation from Lippmann (2009) which has been simplified and shortened to ensure the participants are able to handle the method within their study groups in the given time frame (Figure 1).

Essential for the success of the approach is a clear introduction provided by the coach. The coach is in this case in a double or even triple role of lecturer, coach as specialist for supporting peer coaching processes and assessor for the programme.

1. Situation	Description of the situation and question
2. Information	Question for understanding
3. Hypotheses	Formulate hypotheses, express impressions
4. Options	Develop ideas, solutions
5. Measures	Further proceeding, concrete next steps
6. Reflection	Feedback to the procedure

"Heart" of Intervision / Peer Coaching
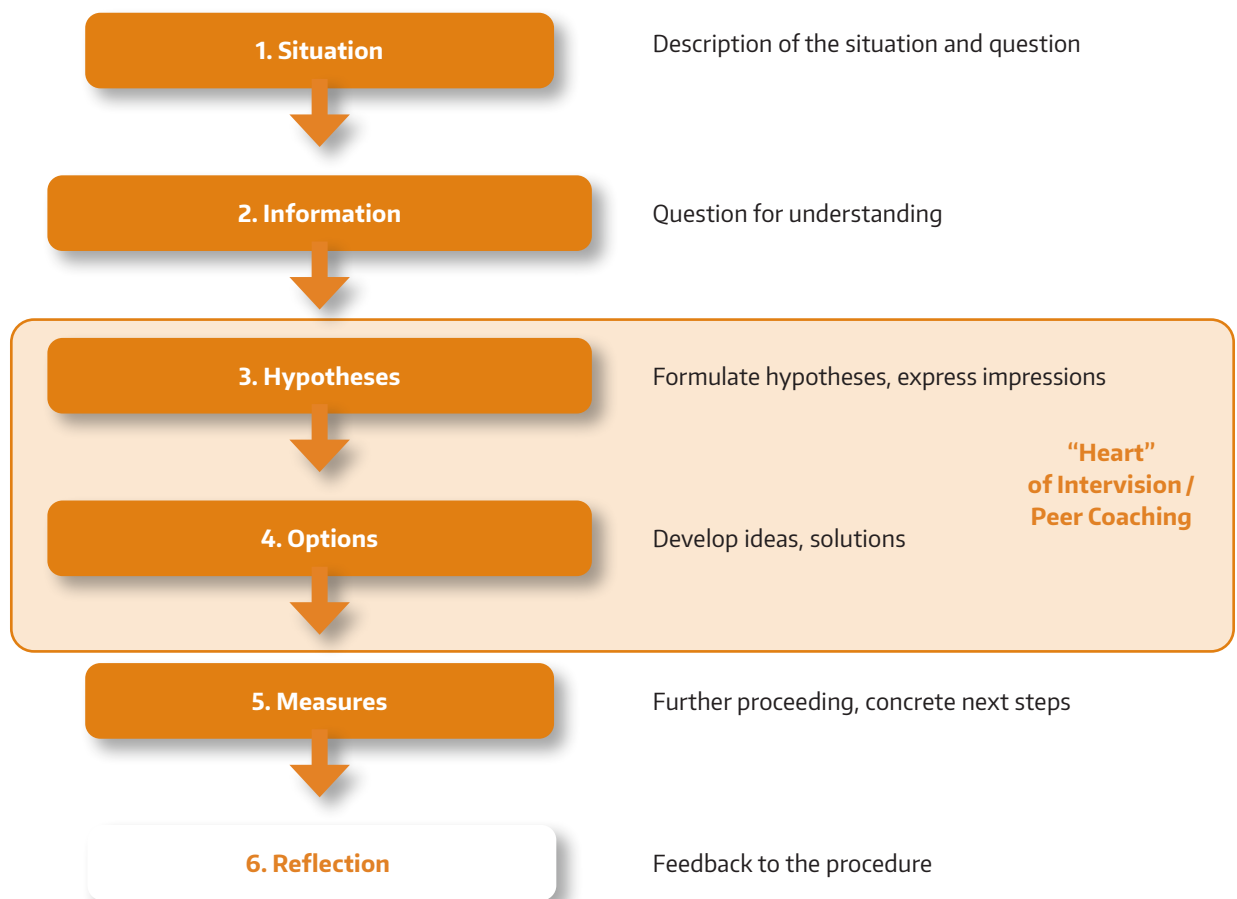
Figure 1: Method of Supervision / Peer Coaching (illustration by D. Engfer, adapted from Lippmann, 2009)

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Methodological process

The following section provides a short description of the main phases:

Phase 1:

Description of the situation and concern/question

After a moderator has been appointed, the cases of the group members are collected and presented as a headline. The group decides which case will be analysed. The case owner gives a short description of the situation and formulates the question and concern to the group as specifically as possible. The moderator asks which method the case owner would prefer the group to work with.

Phase 2:

Information

The group members ask questions of comprehension and decide, if they have enough information to start with phase 3.

Phase 3 and 4:

"Heart of peer coaching"

The group members – without the case owner –now use one single method of peer coaching to get as many options as possible for the concern of the case owner.
One potential option here is to work as a reflecting team, with brainstorming, exchange of experiences, collecting ideas or with a creative method such as the "resources wheel", "six thinking hats" or others. The moderator is responsible for the time schedule and the structure of the discussion. During this phase, the case owner remains outside of the group and is not involved in the discussion. The group members do not address the case owner directly.

Phase 5:

Measures

The case owner asks questions if something needs to be clarified and shares which ideas or aspects were helpful and what will be the next step to pursue.

Phase 6:

Reflection on the process

The whole group gives short feedback concerning the performance of the method and the process. Before leaving, the next meeting and the moderator are fixed.

Description of the group of participants

The study sample is a group consisting of 19 participants from different disciplines and with diverse teaching experiences, from novices to experienced teachers with up to twenty years of teaching experience. The majority teaches at universities of applied sciences. A few participants work in private schools, foundations or public administration.

They are part of a one-year programme in higher education (Certificate of Advanced Studies CAS in university didactics). The programme ends with a certificate in higher education. The programme consists of thematic courses in university didactics and is accompanied by individual work, peer observations and study groups of 6 participants.
The aim of these study groups is to offer a learning platform that can be designed by the participants themselves and where they can work on individual questions concerning their teaching. They should meet four times in three hours sessions over the whole programme. After the three groups were put together, I introduced the method of peer coaching and handed out a guideline with the description of the approach as well as the structure with different options on how to design the group sessions.

Pre-process: Team-building process

The programme starts with a three-day intensive course. In a team-building process, at the beginning of the programme the participants had the possibility to get to know each other and exchange common interests, motives and individual aims for the programme. For this process, I used an interactive method which required changing constellations of the participants. The interactivity was designed like a journey on a train. In three rounds of 15 minutes each, six participants talked together to discuss three questions:

■ What are my experiences, resources and skills?

■ What are my interests for the programme? What do I want to learn?

■ Where do I like to have an exchange, support etc.?

This was one intervention specially aimed at the participants meeting each other, but during this first day of the course the participants had other activities that offered possibilities of exchange more in depth and thematical-

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ly. Altogether, it created a common ground and a working culture based on trust and open communication as the starting point of the programme.

At the end of this two-day initial course, the three study groups were established based on different criteria such as geographical location of the participants, disciplines, interests, etc.

Reflection of my own role

Throughout this process, I wore at least three different hats: firstly, I was the programme manager, and therefore responsible for the whole study programme. Secondly, I was the lecturer who introduced this method of peer coaching and thirdly, I was somehow a coach when participants had questions or individual concerns during the whole programme. Additionally, I supported the groups in applying the peer coaching method.

Analysis of the results from the survey

The sample is a cohort of the one-year programme in higher education of 19 participants. 14 out of the 19 answered the questionnaire. Specifically, their answers to the open questions will be analysed below.

Initial phase:

- The participants estimated the time for the team building process as long enough to get to know each other. They appreciated that they could talk to different participants in changing constellations (stepwise approach).

- The choice of methods for the team-building process was named as appropriate, diverse and dynamic; some answers described it as calm and careful, and one answer formulated a wish to use more different tools for this phase, but the others liked the variety of the methods used.

- In summary, the participants appreciated how the team building process was designed. It supported the finding process for building the study groups.

Introduction of the tool:

- The introduction of the method peer coaching was very clear for half of the participants and quite clear for the other half. This means there is potential for improvement in the future.

Assessment of the peer coaching method:

- The participants considered the peer coaching method as very supportive.

- Its strengths were named as: offering the possibility to highlight a concern from different perspectives, to reflect a situation on the basis of the perceptions of others and adapt the own picture; get feedback from colleagues; enables to structure a group discussion effectively; brainstorm ideas and solution options; use it as a method for thinking out loud; get to know each other and get insights in contexts of the others; exchange experiences and learn from the others.

- All participants appreciated the atmosphere in their groups: respectful, empowering, supportive, there was room for laughing, there was room to be emotional and the group was able to handle it.

Application of the method peer coaching in the study groups:

The answers received from the participants varied considerably. Some participants found it difficult to practice the method. Especially the moderation of the process was considered challenging. Here are some quotes:

> "It was challenging to keep the structure during the discussion. Someone has to take over the moderation".

> "The case-owner shouldn't intervene with statements like 'that's not possible'".

> "The concern or question to the group should be clear and well-defined".

The last quote shows an important aspect that needs to be considered in this peer coaching approach. Only with a well-defined and concrete concern is it possible to develop useful solution options.

Conclusions

The feedback from the participants confirms my own experiences with the method peer coaching. All participants found the method helpful and effective when working on a concrete professional concern. Especially the aspect of learning from each other has been confirmed by the participants. This is one of the aims and strengths of this approach (Tietze, 2020).

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Therefore, I will continue to work with it. But I will pay more attention to the introduction of this peer coaching approach and offer the possibility to practice it during the course. This offers the possibility of giving direct feedback and pointing out the most important aspects that need to be considered in the practice.

3.3   Peer coaching in an interdisciplinary team of experts

The group that is being used as a source for collecting data is the InterDisciplinary Team (IdT) of the public Secondary School Aemtler in Zurich. It is a group that meets five times a year and examines different student cases, decides on measures (pedagogical, social, behavioural, etc.) and follows up on the development of the students.

The IdT consists of the following participants: the school psychologist (SP), homeroom teacher (HT), special ed-teacher (SET), coordinator of special ed (CSE), school doctor (SD), school social worker (SSW), principal (P) and the alternating case teacher (CT). The alternating case teacher could be any teacher that is confronted with a challenging student-situation. Sometimes teaching assistants or supporting teachers are also present, depending on the student and the case.

Methodological process

Phase 1:

Opening and approval of the minutes from the last meeting

The principal leads the meetings. It starts with a short welcome to all the participants, followed by the approval of the minutes from the last session. This phase should not last longer than 2 minutes. Each session is summarised in minutes; the school social worker writes these minutes and sends them to all the participants within a week of the meeting. These minutes are also the basis for keeping members of the IDT who were not present updated.

Phase 2:

Retrospection

Old and former cases are discussed in a brief 10-minute retrospective. It is important to hear what has happened since the last meeting and how the situation has progressed from the different participants. Depending on the situation, this phase can sometimes last longer than 10 minutes if the situation has worsened or needs further or deeper attention. It is a crucial phase to look at the different developments and to reflect on the suggestions made by the IDT: were they successful?

Phase 3:

Presentation of new case

This phase is broken down into five steps. Every teacher is allowed to present a case of a difficult and challenging student situation to be discussed in and by the IDT. There is a list in the teachers' lounge where all the teachers can write down their names to show which case they want to discuss in the IDT. The principal then sends the agreed teacher a spreadsheet to prepare the case in a structured and standardised way. The focus of this preparation spreadsheet is that the teacher holds in perspective a focus on the positive than on the negative aspects of the student. The preparation is written. Here is a summary of the process:

▪ **Step 1: Explaining and defining the main question**

The CT explains the situation, shares the information from the prepared spreadsheet and formulates a clear question that they would like to be answered. In this step, only the CT speaks; the rest of the IDT just lists. *Time allocated: 7 minutes.*

▪ **Step 2: Clarifying questions**

All the members of the IDT are invited to ask questions about the case, the situation and the student. The CT will answer, as far as they know the answers. An important part is to ask about interventions which have already taken place and the emotional implications of the case. The CT should not explain and the IDT should not offer solutions or ideas for intervention at this time. *Time allocated: 5 minutes.*

▪ **Step 3: Interdisciplinary thinking**

The IDT commences discussions. They talk about everything they heard, they saw, incidents they have experienced themselves, etc. They should also reflect on the role of the teacher in this situation, bearing in mind how emotions play an important role. What feelings did they sense? Is the CT already very upset and how do they interpret the CT/student relationship? In this step, the CT should not speak; only the other members of the IDT should be discussing the case. Every member brings in aspects from their fields of expertise: special ed, psychology, medicine, etc. There is to be no negative criticism of the CT or the student, but there should be also room for the individual feelings and emotions of the participants while listening to the case. Different versions and hypothesis are allowed and valued equally. *Time allocated: 7 minutes.*

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▪ **Step 4: Presenting possible solutions**

The IDT continues talking, but the CT re-enters the conversation once more. At this moment, possible solutions and interventions are suggested and discussed. Again, everybody brings ideas and suggestions from their perspective and field of expertise. In the end, the group decides together on the next steps that should be taken, and by whom. *Time allocated: 8 minutes.*

▪ **Step 5: Direct feedback**

The CT comments on the proposed solutions and interventions, and also how they felt during the whole process. Again, emotions play an important role here as the CT should feel valued, appreciated and supported. *Time: 3 minutes.*

This whole phase lasts about 30 minutes, meaning each session allows two cases to be discussed in depth.

Phase 4:

General situation in the school

The situation in the whole school is discussed: are there any situations in classes or with individual students that require action from some of the members of the IDT? Is there a student that should see the SP or the SD? Should we arrange a meeting for a student with the SSW? Would it be a good idea to meet with the parents of a student as a result of something that we experienced or observed in working with a student? Every grade (consisting of three classes and about 60 students and 10 teachers) is represented by one teacher, and they summarise the general situation in a timeslot of 10 minutes. To make sure nothing important receives too little time, they prepare a short text as a summary of the case and send it to all the participants of the IDT a week before the meeting. There are three grades, so in total this phase takes 30 minutes.

Phase 5:

Meta level

There is a short timeslot to bring in thoughts that have not been discussed or that seem to be bothering some of the participants. If a major topic arises from this discussion, then it is put on the agenda for the next session.

Phase 6:

Ending the meeting

Closing the meeting and wrapping everything up.

Analysis of the results from the survey

On a broad scale, the method as it is applied was evaluated positively. Items in the survey that were answered with a value of 4 (strongly applies) are as follows:

▪ The tool/method was helpful.

▪ The tool/method was easy to apply/use.

▪ The tool/method supported interaction within the group.

▪ I knew what could be expected from the group.

▪ My roles in the group were comfortable and clear to me.

Regarding the question on whether the participants would like to change anything in the structure of the tool/method, 100% of the participants answered "no". This is also reflected in the answers to the open questions. Something that is valued highly is the clear structure, the set and fixed timeframes as well as the assigned roles that the participants are given.

The question with the most critical response was the "difference between theoretical background and practical use of the tool/method". This was given an overall score of 2.5, and in the open questions the answers were mainly focused on the personal level, e.g. not enough time to ask all the questions, deviations in the structure or timeframe or sticking to the framework of the method.

It can therefore be said that, overall, the method is useful and constructive in the structure and the roles as well as the timing. But in certain cases, the situations are not as easily and clearly depicted as desired or necessary. The reason for this can be found in two circumstances:

1. Not enough time to describe the complexity of the circumstances: this method is applied to students' life and school situations. They are multi-layered and very complex, and summarising the situation can result in pieces of information getting lost.

2. This method is not used equally by everybody: people are individuals – they will summarise and interpret differently, they have different levels of willingness to stick to rules, they see life differently and have different mind-sets and values. Especially for this dilemma, the discussion-process of this method is very helpful to try and objectively depict the situation.

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One other open question focused on how the interactions within the group were and how the working atmosphere was perceived by the participants. All the participants answered openly to this question, saying that the climate and atmosphere were open and comfortable, as well as well-structured and carefully led. The participants also appreciated the openness and the comfortable feeling they had in the group to be open enough to speak about anything. Nobody felt discriminated against or left out – every voice was heard. This made the cooperation constructive, and the individuals felt stronger due to this cooperation.

In addition to the results of the survey, a self-reflection of the coach is included.

The group already existed, but with different participants and different roles. Nobody was happy with either how the group worked together nor with the results they produced, which is why the group was open for a new set up and a new method. New members were included (they had to apply to join this group), others left the group (because they had already been there for many years) and the new method was introduced. The first two sessions were intense, because the method was new to everyone. The role as a peer-coach included:

- hearing/seeing/detecting that the existing group was ineffective;

- starting the change process to get new people into the group and others leaving the group;

- finding a method that is applicable and effective for the purpose of the interdisciplinary exchange;

- getting the participants to accept this new approach and

- reminding them to stick to the guidelines of the method.

One aspect that quickly became clear was that everybody in the group needs to know exactly what is expected of them and where there are limitations. It is also crucial to stick as much as possible to the established timings. These were the main tasks for the coach to remind the participants about the guidelines and limitations. The clearer this is to everyone, the better they can go into depth with their investigations.

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4.   Comparison of the results of the survey in the three approaches

The following table provides a summary of our three approaches and a direct comparison of the analysis:

	Peer coaching approach for a study group in higher education n=14	Peer coaching in the context of a university Bachelor: "DIY" approach n=4	Peer coaching in an interdisciplinary team of experts n=4
Initial phase	The participants valued the time that was given to get to know each other. They estimated the tool as helpful for their group work, but the application of the tool seemed difficult (moderation, keep the structure); they appreciated the carefully designed introduction.	The student group (future primary school teachers) had successfully completed the first stage of the workshop with A output being a map of the knowledge and skills they needed to implement projects for the 2019-2020 academic year.	The application of the approach needs practice. The participants found it not so easy to use. They found that the structure of the approach was helpful, but it was estimated as difficult to keep on track with the structure of the approach.
Characteristics of the process	The application of the approach needs practice. The participants found it not so easy to use. They found that the structure of the approach was helpful, but it was estimated as difficult to keep on track with the structure of the approach.	The work process was fluid. It took a little while for participants to get the most out of the tool. Once assimilated, the participants independently ensured the success of the process and the implementation of its various stages.	The process was sometimes difficult, especially with the timing. The participants sometimes had the feeling they should have been able to prioritise the case they wanted to discuss over sticking to the timing of this method.
Aspects of the teamwork	The working atmosphere was described as constructive and offered the possibility to share experiences and discussions in depth. The given approach supported their discussions, even if sometimes it was difficult to moderate it. The interaction with each other was described as respectful, appreciative and very helpful; especially for sharing experiences and for getting new perspectives on the participants' own concerns.	Teamwork was both peaceful and motivating. The participants worked collaboratively with the goal of achieving an action plan. The discussions were rich, sometimes lively, but always moderate in a participatory approach and aimed at the success of group work. Even though the survey shows that there were sometimes things left unsaid, the group work was generally successful.	An aspect that was appreciated by everyone in the group was that the common goal was the same and everybody could help achieve this goal. Everyone had their specific role, and sometimes they had to be quiet even though they wanted to speak, but they had to listen to the other participants' thoughts and ideas. That was described as challenging.

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Group dynamics	The participants appreciated the concentrated and effective work within the groups. They considered it advantageous to get insights into different fields using the approach. The exchange within the group was helpful because of the different perspectives and the experiences at different levels. They estimated the group size as good when working on individual case examples with the approach.	The group dynamic was, overall, successful. As they did not know each other, the students learned to get to know each other during these workshops. Everyone seemed to be able to express themselves without feeling like they were being judged by their peers. This point made it possible to develop a positive group dynamic during the 3 workshops.	Very time consuming in the preparation of the individuals, respectful language use of all participants, and interdisciplinary work of all participants was much appreciated.
Peer coaching approach	The approach enables reflection from different perspectives, but it needs discipline to practice it properly. Important is a concrete formulated concern to work effectively with this approach. All in all, the approach was helpful. They would not change it, even if it is a little difficult to implement and requires experience, especially when moderating.	The methodology of this approach requires leaving a week's time between the pre-phase, during which the participants selected the theme on which the team wishes to collaborate, and the start of the workshop. The point here is to give participants time to start thinking about the strengths and obstacles to the smooth running of efficient information sharing within the group.	The methodology of this approach requires leaving a week's time between the pre-phase, during which the participants selected the theme on which the team wishes to collaborate, and the start of the workshop. The point here is to give participants time to start thinking about the strengths and obstacles to the smooth running of efficient information sharing within the group.
How helpful was the method for the participants?	They estimated the approach as a helpful guideline for their discussions.	The participants greatly appreciated the tool and expressed their wish to reuse it in other contexts or projects.	The participants highly appreciated the method. They were very happy about the way it was introduced to the group.

In all the groups, the participants felt comfortable with the approach and found it can be used in a constructive way. The group dynamics in each group were very similar. The participants named the atmosphere as supportive, helpful, and felt appreciated. The introduced approaches were a methodological guideline for the participants that enabled effective and reflective collaboration.

Not every group answered the questionnaire (see questions in the appendix) as reliably as desired, but the results still can give a picture of the processes within the groups of the participants.

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5. Self-reflection of the TRIO work; our exchange in the TRIO

This section looks at the process of the Trio work in more detail and the three authors draw conclusions for their own professional roles.

What did we experience?

All the Trio meetings in person were very helpful and enriching because it made working on the same page easier than working together through virtual meetings. Because of the Covid-19 pandemic, we could not meet as a Trio in Egypt and missed the chance to bring the teamwork and our project to a more concrete and stable foundation.

There were no real cultural differences that we encountered. There might have been some difficulties in the organisation of our work and of the expectations towards each other. During the process of self-reflection, we found out that it might have been helpful to discuss more about the organisational topics and not just the content. One of the great results of this cooperation in the Trio was that we got to know each other better as individuals.

Individual reflections:

Person 1:

The groups were formed during the first meeting in Zurich. The group dynamic of the whole group seemed to me a little bit stressful and too short. The groups were formed very quickly and before the introductory phase that aimed at getting to know each other had been finished. This meant that those members who wanted to get to know everyone first before deciding which group to join were too late. This is a very personal and individual impression, and I am not sure if others experienced the process in a similar way. It is quite contrary to the process chosen for the team-building process with the participants in higher education (see section 3.2) where enough time was planned for getting to know each other and there was enough time for setting up the groups.

Person 2:

Our collaboration got off to a smooth start. Indeed, our less academic approach and more in the search for a role of a coach or a mentor with our teams, immediately got us excited. For my part, the difficulties arose

with the Covid-19 pandemic. Indeed, the flow within the group slowed down because of the inability to see each other face to face. Remote work complicates the task of collaborating on an article, since the human aspect of the relationship disappears. However, our desire to achieve a result has made it possible to summon up the challenges of group dynamics. And this article has become a journey, online, during which I learned a lot both professionally and on a human level.

Person 2:

I got to know the participants of the whole group during their visit to my school. I was not yet a part of the group-building process in Zurich – but I got to be a part of this process during our visit in Tunisia. I myself was worried whether I would be able to deliver helpful contributions to this group work, as I do not have an academic background as the other participants. I was happy to find the other two members of the Trio, and excited that after some discussions we found a common topic.

Collective reflection:

During the meeting in Tunisia, the idea was created together and there was a lot of enthusiasm in brainstorming ideas, even if the project plan had not yet been defined concretely. It remained as a very vague plan, but the main topic seemed quite clear: to work on the peer coaching approaches we use in our teaching. In a short meeting in Zurich, we developed the survey and defined the questions. This part of the work was very effective and led to useful results from our participants. Then, because of the pandemic and other reasons the continuation of the project slowed down. A realistic plan with frequent and periodic meetings could have been helpful for the workflow. But the circumstances, the time factor and our engagements in our jobs held back such a plan and there was not always the necessary time for the Trio work. Sometimes it was difficult to make sure we were all going in the same direction and at the same pace. The meeting that was planned for Egypt would surely have been helpful to coordinate better and get to know each other more deeply. At certain points in the project, we found ourselves lagging in terms of progress. Indeed, at different stages of the project, we had personal and professional commitments which created a sort of temporal dissension. Finally, we overcame all these difficulties and after several online meetings we restarted our project and felt again as a Trio working collaboratively together.

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6.   Conclusions

All three of us learned a great deal from our project that can be transferred to our professional work. In this section, we describe what we think the most important things we learnt were.

1. **Clarify expectations**
   It is important to express one's own expectations. What do we expect from each other in a collaborative work? It is crucial – and even more so in an online-setting – to formulate how a group work is organised and what the team members need in order to work together.

2. **Roles**
   Define roles within the Trio but also in general to make sure everybody knows what is expected of them and what they must do. This clarity can help to avoid misunderstandings.

3. **Commitment**
   Clarified expectations and defined roles can help raise the commitment of the participants towards the project.

4. **Transparent and open communication**
   Ask questions instead of remaining in interpretations and conjectures. Be and stay open for feedback of others and of the peers in the peer feedback rounds.

5. **Acknowledgment**
   Appreciate the contributions of the other members of the Trio.

6. **Establish a confidence-based relationship**
   It takes time to establish a trustful and confidence-based relationship as a basis for collaborative work.

7. **Take time to talk about personal things too**
   It is important to respect the fact that everyone has different life situations, and they deserve recognition and attention.

8. **Humour and laughter:**
   For the group dynamics, it is important that there is space and time for the personal level and not to take oneself too seriously.

All these aspects are pointed out in our teaching. It was very enlightening to experience such a group work process in our Trio for our own professional work. Only in experiencing it on our own are we again completely convinced how important it is to communicate within a collaboration, to exchange and clarify expectations. It is not enough only preaching these things but experiencing them creates a consciousness and an awareness for establishing constructive teamwork. Coming back to the prologue, not only nature finds its ways… We have overcome obstacles, we stayed tuned, believed in a solution and in our journey. Thanks for this experience!

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Appendix

Questionnaire:

1. The tool/method was helpful.

2. The tool/method was easy to use.

3. The introduction of the tool/method was clear.

4. The tool/method supported the interaction within the group.

5. There was a gap between the theory of the method and its practical use.

6. Would you like to change something of the tool and/or its use? (yes/no)

7. If you answered "yes" to question 6, what changes would you suggest? – Type in your answer here:

8. I will use this method in my context/my working.

9. Strengths/Weaknesses – What are strengths and weaknesses of the tool?

10. Highlights – What were highlights of the tool?

11. Difficulties – What were difficulties of the tool?

12. There was enough time to get to know each other.

13. The setting in the module 1 (course) was supportive for the group building process.

14. Group Building Process – How did you experience the group building process?

15. I knew what is expected of this group work.

16. I felt comfortable with my role(s) within the group.

17. Highlights – What were highlights of the work/working in the group?

18. Difficulties – What were difficulties of the work/working in the group?

19. Emotions – What kind of emotional interactions did you experience within the group?

20. What else do I want to say?

Categories for closed questions:

▶ I don't agree at all.

▶ Rather disagree.

▶ Rather agree.

▶ Strongly agree.

▶ No answer possible.

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Teaching philosophy:

▶   Looking at my own learning biography, I always needed to find my own way of learning. Sometimes it was not easy because my learning path deviated from the given one. Therefore, I consider it crucial in teaching to offer choices, provide specific feedback and support the individual's learning processes (for example with coaching) in order to answer to individual needs.

Because I often find experiences vary greatly, I try to consider heterogeneity as a resource and try to integrate it actively. This aims toward more targeted and individualised learning environments and to offer different assignments depending on the background of participants.

To provide diverse, individual and peer-learning opportunities often requires supervision and coaching approaches, so I developed the "Blended Coaching" concept (Engfer 2018). It is understood to combine teaching with approaches of peer supervision and peer coaching. The concept's main emphasis is to enforce peer learning through practice: peer coaching, peer observation, individual coaching, peer supervision and peer feedback are among the most relevant elements.

In this regard, I understand teaching as co-creation and co-learning between me and the participants, and between the participants themselves in designing interactive settings for peer learning.

Dagmar Engfer

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10   Are university teachers' teaching competences visible? Analysing institutional documents from the Haute école pédagogique Vaud (HEP Vaud) and American University in Cairo (AUC)

Mohammed W. Rizkallah
American University in Cairo, Cairo, Egypt
rizkallah@aucegypt.edu

Paola Ricciardi Joos
Haute école de santé Vaud, Lausanne (previously at the Haute école pédagogique Vaud), Switzerland
paola.ricciardijoos@hesav.ch

Abstract:

Good teaching is a vague term used to describe an environment in which both teachers and learners are exposed to a variety of factors that aim to transcend the traditional sense of the term. Through good teaching, teachers are able to gain and transfer knowledge, encourage students to become active participants and reflect on their own teaching in an attempt to improve it. With teaching being one of the university's main missions, teaching standards and the qualities of good teaching are not always explicit in their educational project and other institutional documents. Both the American University in Cairo (AUC) and Haute école pédagogique Vaud (HEP Vaud) provide their faculty members with official documents outlining the framework for teaching and learning at the institutions. To determine whether and which university teaching competences are expected, we first observe and compare the institutional values, job requirements, and institutional objectives presented by these two universities. We then discuss them in relation to Heinz Bachmann's "Generic teaching competence model for teachers of higher education" (2019) that specifically addresses the required teaching competences for good teaching. In the analysis, it is shown that neither of the two institutions distinctly states the elements of the aforementioned Competency Framework as necessary, however, they both integrate some elements within the requirements and expectations of faculty members.

Keywords:

- higher education

- university teacher

- teaching competences

- Competency Framework

- professional standards

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1.   Introduction

Different competency frameworks outline the expected teaching competences faculty members need to master to become effective university teachers. One example is the United Kingdom SEDA (Staff and Educational Development Association) Professional Development Framework, which includes values and teaching competences for university teachers. Against this framework, SEDA provides recognition for higher education institutions and organisations, accreditation for their professional development programmes and recognition for the individuals who complete those programmes. Similar frameworks exist in Australia (HERSDA) and Spain (Marco de Desarrollo Académico Docente, MDAD). The development of these frameworks has prompted courses specially designed for early-career academics, and other colleagues in roles with significant learning, teaching, and assessment responsibilities aiming to empower participants to explore a range of theories, concepts, issues and practices in relation to the design and delivery of inclusive and engaging learning experiences for their students.

In Switzerland, a temporary working group on university didactics at Universities of Teacher Education (UTE) was set up by the Chamber of UTE of *swissuniversities. Swissuniversities* is an official and national organisation that reflects "*the common voice of the Swiss universities and promotes cooperation and coordination between the universities and the various types of universities*" (swissuniversities.ch, 2021). One of the main tasks of this working group was to establish the basis for a UTE-specific competency framework. This working group gave rise to intensive dialogue and collaboration between representatives of the various UTE in Switzerland on Universities of Teacher Education-specific competence requirements (Joller-Graf *et al.*, 2019). It also offered the opportunity to provide an overview of the existing framework.

In Romandie (the French-speaking region of Switzerland), four UTE were consulted about their reference points and expectations regarding a competency framework, including the HEP Vaud. It emerged that there is no UTE-specific model in use in Romandie. The topic of a UTE-specific competency framework does not seem to be prioritised. Among the elements mentioned by the interview partners, the following two points were highlighted: respondents expressed a preference for adopting a pragmatic approach emphasising the power to act rather than the desire to strive for an ideal (which would be reflected in a reference framework); they also fear that a reference framework may be irrelevant in a field where practices evolve rapidly and are in constant transformation: current approaches to reference frameworks

tend to reify practices, or even constrain them (set limits a priori). Nevertheless, the members of three HEP state their intention to use a framework in the future, but do not mention a particular model or reference. This seems to reflect an interest in increasing reflection on this subject in the long term, rather than a real investment by HEPs in this area in the immediate future.

The workgroup also explored the competence frameworks used by four other higher education institutions (two universities and two universities of applied sciences) in Romandie. The consultation with the two universities revealed that they both use a competency framework. One of them uses a competency framework that focuses on the 'teaching' components of the activities of teacher-researchers. This reference framework is used to organise training courses in university didactics. The modules constituting a CAS and a DAS are developed, evaluated and regulated according to this competency profile. This profile has been adapted from the SEDA (Staff and Educational Development Association) competency framework. It has undergone some adjustments over the years, mainly to add or clarify certain aspects. The other university is inspired by two frameworks: the SEDA competency framework and Nancy Brassard's competency profile (2012). Both sources are used to develop the teacher education program; the second is also used in a workshop on the teaching dossier which allows participants to have a complete analysis of the profession and the expectations of a university teacher. In the past, this university had also used the Association Internationale de Pédagogie Universitaire (AIPU) competency framework (Institut de Pédagogie universitaire et des Multimédias, 2005) to plan certain training courses and assess the scope of the competences they covered.

The two universities of applied sciences consulted by this workgroup are attached to The University of Applied Sciences and Arts Western Switzerland (HES-SO). The HES-SO organises its training based on three standards:

a. training in the pedagogical and didactic field, based on a framework of didactic and pedagogical competences for higher education derived from the AIPU competency framework;

b. training for research staff, based on a framework of transversal competences for research developed internally by the HES-SO; and

c. training in the domain of 'Higher Education Policy and Management', based on an internal framework built on different existing frameworks.

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One of the universities attached to the HES-SO has developed a competency framework for its own teachers. This reference framework is a development of the HES-SO reference framework, which associates each of the ten competences with one or more indicators, which are themselves specified across three levels of acquisition. This reference framework exclusively concerns the pedagogical activity of teachers (and not the activities specific to their fields of expertise). It is valid for all teachers, regardless of their employment percentage.

For the German-speaking area of Switzerland, a number of competency frameworks in use were collected by this workgroup (which does not claim that this is a comprehensive representation of the current situation). Most models stem from universities or universities of applied sciences. All the competency frameworks analysed were structured according to core activities in teaching that can be grouped and summarised as follows:

a. planning,

b. the design of teaching and learning activities,

c. coaching and

d. assessment of student learning.

Furthermore, all models try, more or less systematically, to define 'cross-sectional competences', 'institutional or socio-professional dimensions' or 'role, reflective and institutional competences'. Among them, let us highlight the empirical approach of the FHNW (University of Applied Sciences and Arts Northwestern Switzerland) School of Education which asked their faculty to name important activities for teaching. From these findings they deduced a competency framework (Kraus *et al.*, 2015).

Bachmann's *generic teaching competence* model for teachers in higher education (2019) is another model we discovered during our participation in the Swiss-North African Academic Network - SINAN project. This model distinguishes among three types of competences: teaching skills (skills), professional expertise (knowledge), and personal abilities (attitudes). It also specifies the elements that constitute these competences. Its accessibility and understandability immediately seemed particularly adequate to support and facilitate an intercultural exchange within the framework of SINAN on the (minimal) teaching skills expected from higher education teachers.

The competences represent a summation of qualities or attributes that address some of the underlying problems in higher education, specifically in terms of unquantifiable personal skills. For teaching staff at higher education institutions, and as perceived through both our universities' official documents, teaching skills and professional expertise are explained and measured through certain indicators. Personal abilities, however, are rarely mentioned or clearly explained. Accordingly, personal abilities are difficult to compare either against Bachmann's model or among both institutions. These comparisons are crucial in identifying efforts made by higher education institutions to achieve competence in both teaching and learning. Furthermore, it is assumed that the universities' teaching staff do possess competences, but it is not known which. With these comparisons, it is easier to identify specific competences and evaluate them accordingly.

In this paper, our institution's respective competency model is set against the backdrop of Bachmann's framework in an attempt to unveil their commitment to competence-oriented teaching and learning. This analysis will serve to develop an understanding of how higher education institutions define teaching competences and their dedication to enhancing teaching and learning for students and staff alike.

2.   Conceptual framework

In his book *Learning to teach in higher education*, Paul Ramsden (2010) examines the relationship between teaching and learning in higher education, explaining that both are invariably linked and cannot be examined as separate entities. Ramsden discusses the effects of teaching on student learning, stating that the results are usually unexpected. Accordingly, he deduces that good teaching should include a constant effort to learn more about student understanding and how teaching affects it. Furthermore, Ramsden communicates the importance of research in university teaching, emphasising the necessity for university teachers to conduct and engage in research alongside their university duties. According to Ramsden, teaching alone unaccompanied by research is of little value.

L. Dee Fink, in *Creating Significant Learning Experiences: An Integrated Approach to Designing College Courses* (2013), similarly makes a connection between teaching and learning, stating that the purpose of good teaching is in fact to support good learning. Fink adds that institutions should develop learning-centred criteria that enable them to identify excellence in teaching, where teaching in this context is proven by significant

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student learning (2005). Good or better teaching implies teachers helping students grow as learners by developing a strong and proactive sense of themselves (Fink, 2005).

The eLearning Competency Framework for Teachers and Trainers outlines 10 areas of competence which include supporting learners, managing one's own professional development and assessing learner progress. The framework's competences are mainly divided between two elements: knowledge requirements and performance criteria.

Ernest L. Boyer, in *Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate* (1990), emphasises the importance of four dimensions in university faculty. These are research, following developments in their fields, integrity, and assessment. Boyer adds, "Yet, today, at most four-year institutions, the requirements of tenure and promotion continue to focus heavily on research and on articles published in journals, especially those that are refereed. Good teaching is expected, but it is often inadequately assessed. And the category of 'service,' while given token recognition by most colleges, is consistently underrated, too" (Boyer, 1990, 28).

In his book *Competence-Oriented Teaching and Learning in Higher Education – Essentials*, Heinz Bachmann (2018) explains the need for teacher competences that establish better teaching and learning. To shift from the traditional teacher-centred classroom to student-centred learning, Bachmann suggests a focus on independent learning, using new media, and positioning the teacher as a moderator (Bachmann, 2018, 20 – 21). This change leads to "[…] mature and independent students who set learning objectives for themselves and determine how to achieve them" (Bachmann, 2018, 21). He also examines the effects of practising these competences in a learning environment in order to achieve competence-oriented teaching and learning. In an article (2019), he then suggests a "Generic teaching competence model for teachers of higher education" (Bachmann, 2019). These competences, which include teaching skills, professional expertise, and personal abilities, are a guideline for teachers and institutions alike.

Competence is described as "an ability to solve problems in concrete and specific situations" (Bachmann, 2018, 27). He continues, "[…] *competences are a combination of knowledge, skills, and experience that help in mastering complex situations. Competences also include motivational elements such as a willingness to solve a problem, the perseverance to overcome setbacks, tolerance in dealing with ambiguity or being optimistic that a solution can be found*" (Bachmann, 2018, 27). Bach-

mann's model follows Franz E. Weinert's competences which describe an individual's abilities to learn and overcome tasks, acquire knowledge, and achieve better performance (Weinert, 2001).

What is competence-based teaching and learning? And is this good teaching?

Through Bachmann's model, it becomes clear that the implementation of these competences requires tremendous effort from the institutions and their staff. Furthermore, the model indicates that in order to consider teaching design, one must first consider performing and learning. This means that we must first evaluate what graduates need to succeed in modern society, "[…] to infer what students need to learn and how learning is possible. Only then, in a final step, should relevant teaching designs be considered" (Bachmann, 2018, 18). As such, the "[…] formal acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes is not an end in itself but always stands in relation to what society and the world of work demands of the graduates" (Bachmann, 2018, 17). Bachmann further elaborates on the "performing-teaching-learning" (Gonzáles & Wagenaar, 2003, in Bachmann, 2018, 17) triad by explaining the need to first examine the demands of society and the working world, defining the necessary competences, determining learning objectives and assessment, before finally reaching the optimum teaching methods (Bachmann, 2018, 18, Fig. 2). In this model, it becomes evident that learner-oriented teaching relies heavily on competence-oriented teaching, which can only be achieved by determining what graduates need to thrive in the working world.

"Further, good teaching means that faculty, as scholars, are also learners. All too often, teachers transmit information that students are expected to memorize and then, perhaps, recall. While well-prepared lectures surely have a place, teaching, at its best, means not only transmitting knowledge, but transforming and extending it as well. Through reading, through classroom discussion, and surely through comments and questions posed by students, professors themselves will be pushed in creative new directions."
(Boyer, 1990, 24).

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3.   Methodology

The study carried out examines the competency frameworks outline of two universities (Haute école pédagogique Vaud and the American University in Cairo). HEP Vaud offers university-level training to future teachers and postgraduate training to teachers and professionals in the educational world. The institution also actively engages in the field of research and development in educational sciences, in particular within the framework of international research projects. Moreover, it offers a set of educational resources to school professionals.

The American University in Cairo (AUC) is a higher education institution which offers 40 undergraduate, 52 Masters, and two PhD programmes. The liberal arts university is highly committed to teaching and research, as well as creating a culture of leadership, lifelong learning, continuing education, and service. AUC is an independent, not-for-profit, equal-opportunities institution.

The HEP Vaud has a competency framework for its students, which describes the competences expected from the students once they have completed their training. However, neither HEP Vaud nor AUC has a specific document to describe the competences required from its teachers. The objective of this study is to determine the extent to which teacher competences are clearly outlined for university staff.

In order to get an idea of the competences demanded of them, it is necessary to have a closer look at other published official documents. More specifically, this can be done by looking for the elements that would describe what good teaching is and the conditions necessary to provide it.

Content analysis was specifically chosen as it serves the purpose of the paper: to analyse competences required by HEP Vaud and AUC based on official documents published by the universities. We wanted to highlight the competences identified, appointed and formally promoted by the management of the two universities. Written, approved material therefore seemed to us to be the most reliable source. We do not assess how these expectations are perceived by the professors who are asked to present these competences, nor will we ask students about the relevance of these competences.

To analyse and compare the differences and similarities between the competency framework and the competences required by HEP Vaud and AUC, the relevant data were collected from each university. Official documents, mainly job descriptions, instructor handbooks, and course outcomes (published by the universities and made available for the public) were reviewed. The official documents reviewed for the HEP Vaud were the Plan d'intention 2017–2022 (Haute école pédagogique du canton de Vaud, 2017), Plan stratégique 2017–2022 (Haute école pédagogique du canton de Vaud, 2017), Directive 03_03 Cahier des charges des enseignants HEP (Haute école pédagogique du canton de Vaud, 2014), Directive 03_11 Procédure d'évaluation lors du renouvellement des fonctions (Haute école pédagogique du canton de Vaud, 2015) and the Charte éthique de la HEP Vaud (Haute école pédagogique du canton de Vaud, 2017). The documents reviewed from AUC are the Faculty Handbook (The American University in Cairo, 2019b), Adjunct Faculty Handbook (The American University in Cairo, 2013), AUC's Centennial Strategic Plan 2019–2022 (The American University in Cairo, 2019a), job descriptions and course descriptions and outcomes through AUC's official website. Content from both universities' documents were analysed in order to highlight all the elements that can describe the competences expected from teachers. These were then compared with one another, and then also with Bachmann's competency framework.

4.   Analysis of results

4.1   Ethical guidelines and values of the institution

The HEP Vaud guidelines (Charte éthique de la HEP Vaud, 2017) set out the five values that serve as the basis for its activities and development: respect, autonomy, responsibility, cooperation, and openness. The AUC is also committed to upholding similar values to serve the process of learning. AUC's five values – honesty, trust, fairness, respect and responsibility – stem from the university's commitment to academic integrity. A crucial value here is autonomy. Autonomy implies, among other things, encouraging the development of critical thinking and questioning the knowledge the university transmits and adjusting its study programs accordingly. Responsibility implies encouraging the professional development of all its staff. Openness is expressed by encouraging a critical approach among the diversity of currents of thoughts and conceptions in the field of the university's training and research activities, and by promoting both theoretical and empirical knowledge. Trust and respect are indicators of an environment where scholars and students can openly and freely exchange ideas and knowledge, without any bias or prejudice. Furthermore, the AUC Faculty handbook encourages professors to "promote an atmosphere of mutual tolerance, respect, and civility" and "allow the free expression of opinions within the classroom that may be different from their own and should not permit any such differences to influence their evaluation of

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their students' performance" (The American University in Cairo, 2019b, 44).

4.2   Faculty and staff requirements

Both HEP Vaud and AUC display some similarities in terms of faculty hiring requirements, job specifications, contracts and workload. Moreover, both institutions require faculty to carry out self-assessment exercises as a means of developing the teaching efforts carried out by faculty members. Faculty members at both universities must also engage in teaching, research, and service as part of their duties and are assessed on them. However, in this regard the institutions also have some specific differences.

In concrete, the job specifications of the teaching and research staff of the HEP Vaud (Directive 03_03 Cahier des charges des enseignants HEP, 2014) define the four missions they must assume: teaching, research, services, and administrative tasks. Depending on whether they are employed as assistants, lecturers, associate professors, or full professors, the time they spend taking classes can vary from 20 to 75%. This teaching activity can take various forms: structured teaching, supervision of personal work, supervision of practical training, occasional specialised interventions in certain courses and organising teaching, etc. The responsibilities of the teaching profession include the obligation to invest in continuing education: continuing education is seen as both a right and a duty.

The teaching staff at the HEP Vaud has limited six-year renewable contracts (Directive 03_11 Procédure d'évaluation lors du renouvellement des fonctions, 2015). Renewal of the contract is based on a report in which the teacher has to describe their professional activities, including teaching. Their comments are organised according to various headings, including: general intentions of the teacher in relation to teaching, preparation of teaching materials, teaching methods used and possible pedagogical innovations, possible comments on examination results, a commentary on the students' evaluation of teaching, and an overall assessment of the teaching activities including strengths, skills to be developed, problems encountered and projects.

In the case of the AUC, faculty job descriptions, regardless of the subject taught, focus on teaching experience and research within the job description and requirements. A faculty member at AUC must display a commitment to teaching, research and service. While one element can be emphasised over others, teaching and research activities should occupy 70% of a faculty member's workload. This may differ for instructors and professors of practice. At AUC, instructors are untenured faculty members holding at least a Master's degree or equivalent in a relevant field (The American University in Cairo, 2019b, 18). Professors of practice are "faculty who possess substantial professional experience and expertise that meets specialised instructional needs in the creative and performing arts, business, law, journalism, public policy, engineering, education and other arenas of professional endeavour," (The American University in Cairo, 2019b, 16).

Once appointed at the AUC, initial contracts range between two to five-year contracts which can be renewed upon reviews and departmental recommendations. Faculty performance is assessed annually, and each member is expected to submit a report that includes teaching records, research records and service records. The teaching record demonstrates, among other things, the faculty member's development of courses and evaluations of the quality of teaching. The research record is demonstrated by any disciplinarily appropriate scholarly, scientific or creative activity. The service record includes participation in university or external services, either academic, professional, or community service activities. Teaching is also assessed through student evaluations, chair and peer observations, and self-assessment.

The minimum requirements to be employed as an instructor, assistant, lecturer, associate professor or ordinary professor at both universities vary from a Master's degree to a Doctorate. For some fields at AUC, other professional degrees and scholarly achievements are recognized *in lieu* of a Master's or Doctorate. However, in the case of Associate Professors of Practice (APoP) and Professor of Practice (PoP) at AUC, advanced degrees are preferred but are not a necessity for appointment or promotion.

The recognition of diplomas from the HEP Vaud is subject to regulations formulated by the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (abbreviation: EDK in German; CDIP in French). The EDK defines more precisely the qualifications required for teacher trainers (CDIP, 2019): they must possess a university degree in the subject area to be taught, teaching qualifications for teaching at the university level and, as a rule, a teaching diploma and teaching experience at the relevant degree. In practice, these requirements are difficult to meet perfectly. At the HEP Vaud, the requirement for the pedagogical qualifications for teaching at this university does not necessarily consist of a formal diploma. These qualifications can be recognised through equivalences: for example, by a PhD. in the (didactics of the) subject being taught, a Master's degree in educational sciences, or the recognition of other career paths.

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Requirements	HEP VAUD	AUC
Continuing education	Yes	Yes
Reflective posture/self-assessment	Yes	Yes
Degree	Yes	Yes
Teaching diploma at a university level	Yes, but in practice recognition of other diplomas and pathways can lead to equivalence	No
Teaching experience	Yes	Yes
Pedagogical competences	Yes	Yes
Research	Yes	Yes
Digital skills/technology Integration	Yes	Yes
Service	Yes	Yes

Table 1: Faculty and staff requirements

4.3 Specific institutional objectives and measures for the pedagogical development of teachers

HEP Vaud's plan of intent 2017 – 2022 (Haute école pédagogique du canton de Vaud, 2017) specifies the areas in which it plans to develop in the coming years, including the following:

- Striving for excellence in vocational and academic training for teachers of all degrees (obj. 1.2.): Developing a core of expertise in pedagogy for higher education (measure 1.2.6). The achievement criterion for this objective is:
    - achievement (recruitment, offer, partnership, publication, etc.) in the field of pedagogy for higher education.

- Establishing the strategy for the promotion and valorisation of research (obj. 2.1): Contributing to the development of a teacher-researcher profession framework in the field of teaching (measure 2.1.4.). The achievement criterion is:
    - achievement to produce a teacher-researcher profession framework.

- Developing the qualification of HEP Vaud staff with regard to the challenges of a university with a professional and academic vocation (obj. 4.3): Ensure the training of new HEP Vaud teachers in pedagogy for higher education (4.3.4), and developing "administrative and technical staff", "teaching and research staff" and "managers" continuous training (4.3.5). The achievement criteria are:
    - achievements of "administrative and technical staff", "teaching and research staff" and "management" training activities (offers and beneficiaries).

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The strategic plan of the university 2017 – 2022 (The American University in Cairo, 2017), based on the university's plan of intent, sets out operational objectives and measures for the coming years, including the following:

- Ensuring the quality of training (obj. 1.1): Guarantee the professional and academic quality of the training courses while respecting the diversity of pedagogical approaches and the reality of the classes, in parallel with the increase in enrolments (measure 1.1.2). The achievement criteria for this objective are:

  - recognition of education programmes by the EDK (Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education) and SERI (Swiss State Secretariat for Education, Research and Innovation), student supervision rate, review of the development of the diversity of pedagogical approaches worked on in teacher education.

- Strengthening culture and skills in the technical and digital sciences (obj. 1.2): To analyse, support, and develop the use of digital solutions in teaching at HEP (measure 1.2.3). The achievement criterion is:

  - achievements in the implementation of educational schemes using digital solutions.

- To support the qualification of HEP Vaud staff with regard to the challenges of a university with a professional and academic vocation (obj. 4.3): Continuing to develop staff qualifications (measure 4.3.2). The achievement criterion is:
  - achievements of "administrative and technical staff", "teaching and research staff" and "management" training activities (offers and beneficiaries).

AUC's Centennial Strategic Plan 2019 – 2022 was formulated to enhance the university's quality and includes the following chosen objectives:

- **1.1** Enhance student learning through innovative pedagogies and effective assessment learning experience
  - Improve the learning experience by continuous re-examination of the curriculum and the pedagogies employed (all schools/ALA)
  - Introduce and assess innovative pedagogies (all schools/ALA)
  - Support and enhance quality teaching by improving the assessment of teaching and by institutionalising teaching professional development of faculty (all schools/ALA)
  - Enhance the admission process and financial aid to recruit

- **1.2** Promote high-impact, quality research to enhances learning experience
  - Increase quality faculty research with high impact (all schools)
  - Increase opportunities and support interdisciplinary research (all schools)
  - Expand undergraduate and graduate research opportunities (all schools)
  - Provide community-based research opportunities for faculty and students (all schools)

- **1.3** Optimise the university's educational, operational and financial models and platforms
  - Establish performance evaluation and competency framework for individuals and organizational excellence (A&F)
  - Provide professional development opportunities for faculty and staff (all schools)
  - Revisit the policies and procedures of hiring, retaining and advancing human capital (all schools)" (The American University in Cairo, 2019a)

HEP Vaud Strategic Plan 2017 – 2022	AUC Strategic Plan 2019 – 2022
Ensure the quality of training	Enhance student learning through innovative pedagogies and effective assessment learning experience
Strengthen culture and skills in the technical and digital sciences	Promote high-impact, quality research to enhance learning experience
Support the qualification of HEP Vaud staff with regard to the challenges of a university with a professional and academic vocation	Optimise the university's educational, operational and financial models and platforms

Table 2: Specific institutional objectives for the pedagogical development of teachers

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5.   Discussion: what is good teaching for the HEP Vaud and for AUC?

We might answer that generally good teaching is teaching that enables students to achieve the competences as described in their (students') competency frameworks. In this sense, the students' competency framework could be seen as the 'performing' elements of the 'performing – learning – teaching' triad (Gonzáles & Wagenaar, 2003, in Bachmann, 2018, 17). But what about the competences that teacher trainers should have to ensure student-centred learning support and not teacher-centred information communication? (Bachmann, 2018, 21, Fig. 3). Teacher trainers explain to their students how to teach and guide them to acquire the competences necessary for their professional practice. But what about the competences they themselves need to do their own job properly?

5.1   Explicit visibility and positioning of required teaching competences

HEP Vaud informs teachers trainers of the values in which they must inscribe their practice (Charte éthique de la HEP Vaud, 2017). It asks them to invest in continuing education (Directive 03_03 Cahier des charges des enseignants HEP, 2014), to have a reflective posture, and to develop their practice accordingly (Directive 03_11 Procédure d'évaluation lors du renouvellement des fonctions, 2015). It also asks them to have a degree in their discipline, a teaching diploma, some experience, and pedagogical competences for higher education (CDIP, 2019).

Furthermore, in its plan of intent, the institution has formulated objectives regarding development in pedagogy for higher education and a researcher-teacher profession framework. In its strategic plan, it has also formulated objectives regarding the professional and academic quality of training courses (including skills in digital sciences) and the development of its staff qualifications. While these texts contribute to defining the role of teacher trainers (job specifications), to ensure their professional qualifications (before and during their engagement), and to provide the ethical principles in which they evolve, none of them – individually or together – explicitly describe the competences expected from a teacher trainer. This does not mean that the teacher trainers at the HEP Vaud do not have these competences; however, as we do not know which competences we are exactly speaking about, it is difficult to evaluate them or account for them.

To address such a question, HEP Vaud participated in the temporary working group on university didactics at Universities of Teacher Education (UTE) that was set up by the Chamber of UTE of *swissuniversities* mentioned above. The result was a competence framework that represents the important competences for university lecturers with a special focus on teaching at UTE (Joller-Graf *et al.*, 2019). The final report of this working group was written in English, but the framework that is inserted in it was written in French and German, two of Switzerland's national languages. It has proved extremely difficult to express the same concepts in these two languages, and its translation into English would deserve special attention. This is why we do not share it here.

This bilingual text provides a useful basis for the development of qualification programs and activities to support lecturers at UTE and supports the possibility of building up expertise within teaching (specialisation opportunities) as well as developing a career as lecturer which also offers perspectives within teaching. This framework might support those responsible for study programmes and personnel development in the development of specific solutions. It can be used to stimulate discussions about possible (innovative) developments and to examine which competences would be necessary to renew teaching. But the current version of the framework reflects the existing situation as perceived in the working group – and not a national perspective – and does not present guiding points for innovation. It is primarily the task of those responsible for education to initiate and support developments in teaching.

The same can be said about AUC, where teaching competences are not precisely stated but are rather derived from the texts. Promoting mutual tolerance, respect, and civility is an effort to create a classroom experience tailored to the framework for 21st century skills (The American University in Cairo, 2019b, 44), where students are guided towards fostering skills that make them more employable in today's world.

These practices are once again highlighted in "Figure 11: Dimensions of excellent teaching and learning in higher education" (Bachmann, 34) where teachers are expected to "[…] favour and encourage participation as well as create a challenging and supportive learning environment for your learners." As part of the "Dimensions of excellent teaching and learning in higher education," it is believed that these practices will help foster the learning process and lead to changed behaviour in both students and teachers, which is necessary to truly impact teaching and learning.

Furthermore, these practices are also encouraged in the Adjunct Faculty Handbook, where the institutional expectations include:

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- "Liberal education is the hallmark of the educational system at AUC. Liberal in this regard relates to freedom; the freedom to think one's own thoughts and develop one's own point of view. This involves the ability to analyse opinions and assumptions – one's own as well as those of others. With liberal education, the stress is not on rote learning or mere memorisation of facts, but on critical thinking and a creative approach to problem-solving."

- "Faculty should encourage student questions and participation in class discussions." (The American University in Cairo, 2013, 23)

AUC adjunct professors are expected to follow the same guidelines as Bachmann sets forth in "Figure 11: Dimensions of excellent teaching and learning in higher education." These in the guidelines as well as in Bachmann's framework highlight the importance of encouraging participation and stimulating individual and group work that develops problem-solving skills (Bachmann, 34).

Moreover, AUC's "Institutional Expectations" (The American University in Cairo, 2013, 23) clearly follow the framework set forth under Bachmann's interdisciplinary competences, especially within social and personal competences. These competences include cooperative, communicative, and conflict-resolution skills, and self-management, ethical awareness, and identity, respectively. Interdisciplinary competences, or key competences, are of the utmost importance when attempting to achieve competence-oriented teaching and learning in higher education. According to Bachmann, "These key competences need to be strengthened and practised again and again; one cannot simply assume that students already possess them." (Bachmann, 2018, 28). Such is the case at AUC, where these competences are weaved within the "Institutional Expectations" (The American University in Cairo, 2013, 23) and are believed to be an essential part of teaching. In addition to following the key competences, these institutional expectations are in line with student and teacher expectations.

With the realignment of teaching, the expectations of the roles assigned to the participating protagonists have changed. Students, for example, are expected to participate more actively in class, to take on more responsibility for their learning, and to build networks in learning communities. The teachers are expected, among other things, to lecture less and instead promote participative learning among the students (thus taking on roles as learning coaches) (Bachmann, 2018, 33).

Here, we can see how AUC's liberal education rests upon these expectations that encourage student participa-

tion. While teachers are still expected to lecture, they should, nonetheless, foster a classroom environment that thrives on participation, critical thinking, and problem-solving. Bachmann goes on to mention that these expectations, from both students and teachers, should be clearly stated and passed on to students and teachers in one document. In AUC's student and faculty handbooks, these expectations are present and are available online with easy access. It is also considered whether to follow Bachmann's advice and distribute it amongst students and teachers.

5.2   Building 21st century competences in the curriculum

As for the university's core courses, they *"focus on building student skills in the liberal arts, including critical thinking, written and oral communication, critical reading and ethics, and civic engagement. A thematic approach that exposes students, non-majors and majors, to contemporary issues is key to demonstrating the relevance of research in everyday life and its applicability to challenges in various fields"* (The American University in Cairo, 2016). This is a framework that closely mimics those found under the framework for 21st century skills (Bachmann, 2018, 15, Fig. 1) and interdisciplinary competences. Through these courses, the university hopes to nurture skills and competences necessary for the modern world aimed at improving graduate employability. Skills such as language and thinking skills, cooperative and communicative skills, as well as ethical awareness, are considered key competences by Bachmann.

At the HEP Vaud, a reference framework of 11 professional competences underpins the entire student academic curriculum (HEP Vaud, 2004). These competences highlight what is expected of them at the end of their training. Undoubtedly, these competences address the skills, attitudes and knowledge that need to be developed and acquired in order to meet society's expectations and to move towards student-centred rather than teacher-centred teaching. However, while this framework exists for students in training, there is no such explicit framework for teachers at the HEP which are thus indirectly encouraged to put the student at the centre of learning.

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5.3 Research and teaching: Two sides of same coin

AUC firmly believes that individuals who actively pursue research and contribute to their field are more likely to create a healthier teaching and learning environment. According to the competence stairway model (Bachmann, 2018, 31), teachers should have sufficient knowledge in their subject area and be able to share it with students. It can be deduced that an individual who focuses on research is more likely to gain further knowledge in their field. This is also highlighted in terms of effective teaching strategies "[...] imparting knowledge is part of the teaching process, for which lecturing can be useful as one of several teaching strategies," (Bachmann, 2018, 32). AUC's insistence on hiring faculty who possess both teaching experience and research background is an attempt to enrich the learning environment through capable and competent individuals.

As stated in the AUC Faculty Handbook, faculty who qualify for tenure must possess qualities relevant to the Generic teaching competence model for teachers of higher education with constituent elements:

"To qualify for tenure, candidates must demonstrate a high overall level of teaching effectiveness, research accomplishment, and commitment to service. In the first instance, successful candidates for tenure must possess both the skills required to transmit the content of their disciplines and the capacity to motivate an active learning and pursuit of new knowledge or insight. Such skills and capacities require:

- Competence and familiarity with current developments in one's field;
- Thorough and imaginative course planning and preparation;
- Effective lecture presentations, discussion leadership, and tutorial guidance;
- Timely, careful, and fair review and evaluation of student work;
- Availability and effective guidance to students, particularly to those enrolled in classes or assigned as advisees." (The American University in Cairo, 2019b)

Faculty at AUC, while given leeway in terms of what they teach, must gain approval from their school or department to ensure the content contributes to the university's curricular programs. In that sense, they are encouraged and expected to formulate their own learning objectives. Moreover, AUC faculty members are encouraged to develop and enhance their media competences through the university's Center for Learning and Teaching (CLT). The CLT provides faculty members with programmes, services, workshops and lectures directed towards promoting innovative teaching through different instructional technologies.

Professional expertise, in terms of education, practical experience, and research, is a vital aspect in the hiring of faculty and renewal of contracts. The minimum requirements for appointments vary from Master's degrees to Doctorates or the equivalent in a relevant field.

Moreover, "research is expected of all professorial-rank faculty and welcomed and rewarded for instructor-level faculty as evidence of engagement with their discipline" (The American University in Cairo, 2019b, 43). Factors in the assessment of faculty research include "the quality of the research, the sustainability of the research, the productivity of the research, and its relevance and ability to enhance teaching and service" (The American University in Cairo, 2019b, 30).

AUC is also committed to expanding its faculty calibre by hiring skilled professionals who bring practical experience to the classroom. Associate Professors of Practice (APoP) and Professors of Practice (PoP) represent no more than 30% of the total full-time faculty appointments for each academic department. They must present a proven record of professional impact in their field and remain current in their professions as they carry on their teaching duties. APoP and PoP evaluations may not include research.

5.4 Personal abilities

Neither the AUC Faculty Handbook nor the AUC Adjunct Faculty Handbook focuses on the teacher's personal abilities which include empathy, patience, and friendliness. Faculty members are, nonetheless, expected to permit free expression of opinions, maintain an environment of mutual tolerance, respect, and civility, and encourage student questions and participation. Faculty members are expected to perform self-assessments as a means to reflect on and optimise their teaching and student learning. These assessments include teaching responsibilities, objectives, strategies, and methodologies, evidence of efforts to enhance teaching and student feedback.

This alone, however, cannot be comparable to the generic teaching competence model which comprises a range of abilities conducive to a competence-oriented teaching and learning environment.

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5.5   The specialised centres supporting teachers' professional development

The institutions' official documents, while presenting differences in teaching expectations and requirements, still inherently accentuate some competences. The universities also demonstrate a will for progress through support centres whose objective is to support teachers in the construction, implementation and search for continuous improvement in their teaching. For a few years, until 2020, the HEP Vaud had 3 support centres for its teachers: a research support centre, a teaching support centre and an e-learning support centre. The first assisted trainers in setting up research. The second one used to offer support for the development of teaching through training activities (workshops, conferences), student evaluation of teaching, pedagogical counselling, and support for teachers wishing to carry out research on a pedagogical innovation introduced in their own teaching. These two centres have since been dissolved. The third still assists trainers in setting up e-learning opportunities.

Neither refers – or referred – to a competency framework to develop their support offer. Not all trainers feel the same need to develop their skills in university teaching and their availability for their pedagogical development varies greatly. For this reason, and in the absence of an institutionalised skills repository, the teaching support centre opted to expand the services it offers. This was achieved by diversifying its training activities to provide training opportunities that respond to the diversity of teacher profiles. After a few years, the new school management considered that these activities could be carried out by the existing "teaching and research units" and that support could be provided in the future by peers working in the same field of teaching. Independently of this strategic choice, the question of the competences expected from the trainers is still open.

In order to further enhance the learning experience at AUC, the university's Center for Learning and Teaching is a dedicated body that works towards promoting better teaching and learning at AUC through various methods, including technology integration. Through this centre, university professors can receive help in "pedagogy (instructional design, experimenting with new pedagogies, etc.), technology integration (one-on-one support ranging from training on basic technologies to designing and developing engaging multimedia instructional materials) and formative assessment (including confidential mid-semester surveys, Small Group Instructional Diagnosis and custom classroom and departmental assessments)" (The American University in Cairo, n.d.). The existence of such a centre is in harmony with several focal points according to Bachmann, including methodological competences and the framework for 21st century skills. Higher education institutions must have an understanding that the teacher's role has changed and that graduates will need to adapt to a world where technological innovation is rapidly advancing (Bachmann, 2018, 36 – 37). AUC is able to adjust to these changes by developing this centre which aids teachers in their journey toward professional development. Encouraging professors to continue learning and improve their teaching is necessary to achieve competence-oriented teaching and learning in higher education as Bachmann states, "[…] learning is increasingly becoming a dialogue that can only succeed if both sides participate" (Bachmann, 2018, 33).

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6. Conclusion

As evident through the data presented, HEP Vaud and AUC both encourage and guide faculty members toward adopting and practising competence-oriented teaching and learning. Good teaching methods and practices are not clearly stated but are indirectly outlined in the universities' respective documents. Many competences as stated in Bachmann's framework have not yet found their place in the universities' requirements or expectations. However, given the novelty of Bachmann's framework, this outcome is expected. Moreover, AUC's efforts to outline competences is observed in the university's faculty handbooks. And the HEP Vaud Strategic Plan shows that this institution is indeed concerned with providing education that is relevant to the competences needs of tomorrow.

A competency framework (whether Bachmann's or another one), which include skills, knowledge and abilities does not constitute a main priority in both universities' documents. While at the AUC, for instance, some personal abilities are highlighted and expected of teaching staff, the main focus lies on hiring staff who possess teaching experience and partake in valuable research. At HEP Vaud, the documents present a framework for knowledge, but do not clearly outline expected skills and attitudes. Teaching staff at both universities are required to manifest a certain degree of skills and knowledge, represented through their previous experience, degrees, and dedication to research and self-reflection. It is therefore difficult to analyse the viability of Bachmann's framework at these institutions, where at most two of the competences are encouraged and explained. HEP Vaud and AUC may consider introducing mandatory pedagogy courses to their staff members aimed at developing the personal abilities that, according to Bachmann, contribute to competence-oriented teaching and learning in higher education. These courses, along with the universities' documents, will work toward creating a framework that attempts to replicate Bachmann's model. Moreover, it is necessary for these institutions to consider the "performing – learning – teaching" triad (Gonzáles & Wagenaar, 2003, in Bachmann, 2018, 17) to develop a solid yet adjustable framework for graduate expectations. By acknowledging the knowledge, skills and attitudes they must be equipped with, the institutions are more likely to design and implement teaching competences that work towards these goals.

Exhibiting a will to progress and improve teaching and learning, through support centres or otherwise, is, however, a solid step towards implementing strategies that may lead the institutions to develop and uphold their own competence frameworks. In light of the findings, it is doubtful whether these frameworks will be built (based on Bachmann's framework or another one). Nevertheless, the institutions show an eagerness to digress from traditional teaching and learning and embrace current methodologies in teaching and learning.

While the intent is there, it is highly recommended that these institutions actively strive to create a bridge between policy and practice. The existence of policies or frameworks alone is not enough to verify that competence-oriented teaching and learning is present and being practised. The institutions must put measures in place to assess the degree to which these competences are being applied and consider the outcomes, continuously aiming for improved teaching and learning conditions.

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Abstract:

This article documents the interesting and creative col-

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Teaching philosophy:

▶ My definition of teaching is to allow the exchange of practice between peers, to support the analysis of these practices and to use evidence-based approaches and resources to discuss the planning, delivery and evaluation of teaching activities. This is all centred around the involvement of the faculty members, individually or collectively, in order to ensure that they are active in their own teaching development.

Paola Ricciardi Joos

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Part III Theatre in mathematics education:
Examining examples integrating theatre elements in mathematics teaching in an international perspective

11 Theatre in mathematics education: Examining examples integrating theatre elements in mathematics teaching in an international perspective

Zakaria Gaber Henawy
Faculty of Education, University of Asyut, Asyut, Egypt;
zakariahenawy@yahoo.com

Selina Pfenniger
FHNW School of Education, University of Applied
Sciences and Arts Northwestern, Switzerland
selina.pfenniger@fhnw.ch

Andira Radhi
Higher Institute of Childhood Staff, University of
Carthage, Tunisia
dr.andiraradhi@gmail.com

laboration between mathematics didactics and theatre education within an international trio. The aim was to develop didactic settings that integrate theatre elements into mathematics teaching in higher education. Based on a common understanding of good mathematics teaching, in a first sub-project the mathematicians had the pre-service students dramaturgically rework exemplary and historically tangible moments of mathematics for secondary level I. This was accomplished in accordance with the concept of *Lehrkunst* – the art of teaching – by Christoph Berg. These dramaturgical adaptations should meet the standards of teaching methodology in mathematics. Furthermore, they aim to be motivating content-wise. The design of the learning environment and the stimulation of the learning process are as important as the choice of the materials The students in Switzerland (19 students) and in Egypt (24 students) produced six teaching plays. According to the criteria established, it was possible to determine that all the teaching pieces met the requirements. The second sub-project is based on an idea of the theatre pedagogue in the trio. This part gives an insight into the work with students whose target level is students of pre-school education. Here, the figures are brought onto the stage in a personalised way and the learners are encouraged to engage in linguistic exchange. This stimulates their communicative and argumentative skills in mathematics.

Keywords:

- mathematics education

- mathematics didactics

- theatre

- teaching performance

1. Introduction

The collaboration between subject didacticians across

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the disciplines came about at the first meeting. The combination of mathematics didactics and theatre education was challenging, but at the same time opened up creative horizons. Supporting students in using dramaturgical elements in mathematics teaching quickly became a common goal. The aim was to be able to make use of the teaching expertise of all the participants. The focus was on implementing learning theories of good teaching in general, and also used for mathematics teaching in particular: constructivism and sociocultural theory. While the first focuses on the individual learner the latter puts emphasis on the social and cultural aspects of the classroom. These theories are not competing, but are actually complementary (Norton & D'Ambrosio, 2008). Thus, using theatre in a maths classroom is applying sociocultural theory in teaching. Van de Walle at al. (2014) believe that there are features of mathematics classroom that promote understanding. These are:

- Children's ideas are valued;

- Opportunities for children to talk about mathematics should be created;

- Multiple approaches are encouraged;

- Mistakes are good opportunities for learning and

- Maths is meaningful.

The two teachers of the didactics of mathematics worked more closely together and looked for exemplary moments of mathematics from their cultural contexts that could be dramaturgically staged by secondary school students. The drama teacher chose her own approach by staging a small theatre for students with a younger target group of pre-school children.

After an introduction, this article is divided into two longer independent chapters. This first of these chapters (Chapter 2), is entitled 'Trainee teachers integrate pedagogical theatre scenes into mathematics education'. It contains the contribution by the two academic teachers of the didactics of mathematics. In a first part, after an introduction, they explain the theoretical background (Chapter 2.2) and the research question (Chapter 2.3), after which they describe the methodology and the results (Chapters 2.4–2.6) and conclude with a short discussion (Chapter 2.7). The appendix contains three of the examples discussed (the three faces of probability theory, the Chinese remainder theorem and the story of Berma [Samy, 2007]).
Chapter 3 is entitled 'The use of drama to simplify the teaching of mathematics for pre-school education' and contains the drama teacher's report. It begins with an

introduction (Chapter 3.1) and practical examples (Chapter 3.2). These are followed by the research question (Chapter 3.3), its relevance (Chapter 3.4) and the results (Chapters 3.5–3.6).

2.   Trainee teachers integrate pedagogical theatre scenes into mathematics education

(Sub-project by Selina Pfenniger and Zakaria Henawy)

2.1   Introduction

Mathematics is a cultural asset thousands of years old, and a dynamically evolving and empirically embedded discipline. The combination of mathematics education and pedagogical theatre offers exciting possibilities to make the development of the discipline and the contexts from which it emerged tangible. Indeed, staging mathematical problems as a theatrical classroom experience offers a new and more comprehensive view of mathematics.

Pedagogical theatre is considered as one of the most enjoyable techniques where students tend to be active during the learning process; it also encourages students to be more effective and excited in the maths classroom. Dramatisation can contribute to changing the abstract form of mathematics to more concrete shapes, which leads to building more positive attitudes toward it. Theatre arts also incorporates the use of role-play, which gives students a chance to explore more actual options (Lens, *et al.*, 2002). Many studies revealed the importance of applying theatre to maths education. For example, Richards (2010) explored the impact of theatre on the academic self-efficacy towards the study of mathematics among a sample of middle-school girls. Results showed a statistically significant increase in the self-efficacy rating from pre-test to post-test. Also, Gonzalez's 2006 study explored the impact of teaching elementary students educationally at-risk through dance, theatre, and visual arts to support and demonstrate the achievement of shared concepts and promote understandings in reading, writing, and maths. At the end of the summer programme, more than 90% of the students in each grade level achieved the learning objectives of the course.

Teachers with an understanding of the added value of theatre in the teaching of mathematics will have to adopt a constructivist perspective on teaching, which is more effective for learners[14] than a static view that leads to a

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transmissional pedagogy (Voss, *et al.*, 2011). In addition to bringing the cultural-historical context of mathematical discoveries to life, pedagogical theatre has the potential to allow both teachers and learners to see the nature and methods of mathematics as the result of a process.

During foundation courses, trainee teachers in Egypt as well in in Switzerland learn about mathematics education as a discipline, the rationale behind teaching mathematics and the underlying didactic principles. Integrating theatre elements into mathematics teaching in these courses may increase trainee teachers competence in all these areas. The aim of the presented sub-project here was to use pedagogical theatre to increase trainee teachers' and their learners' competence in Switzerland and Egypt, rather than merely providing methodological variety to enhance motivation[15]. Developing a teaching sequence based on appropriate theories can allow trainee teachers to understand mathematics as an evolving discipline within a cultural history[16] and to pass this understanding on to their learners.

2.2 Theoretical background

This project brings together two theoretical approaches: competence-oriented mathematics teaching and *Lehrkunst*, which translated directly means 'the art of teaching' as in Grammes & Berg (2006).

■ Competence-oriented mathematics teaching

In competence-oriented mathematics didactics, three areas are relevant for the successful design of lessons: content selection, material development and stimulating subject-related learning (Vollstedt, *et al.*, 2015; Reiss & Ufer, 2009). The theories informing these three areas serve as the basis for developing and evaluating teaching units with pedagogical plays.

Lehrkunst

Lehrkunst (the art of teaching) is a didactic concept with

14 In this report, 'learners' refers to learners (i.e. pupils) in school while (education) 'students' refers to trainee teachers studying at a higher education institution.

15 e.g. Küpper, *et al.*, 2020 with further literature or the commercial plays shown in Gratz (n.d.).

16 Mathematics that seems to be complete today has grown culturally and historically over the course of centuries. New insights usually developed in a roundabout way, through the exchange of ideas, were based on what was already known. Accordingly, pupils also often depend on detours and exchanges with others to develop new insights) (EDK, 2016).

a cultural history rooted in the pedagogy of Martin Wagenschein and Wolfgang Klafki and developed by Christoph Berg and others. Applied to mathematics, *Lehrkunst* addresses problems and findings documented in the cultural history of mathematics and uses dramaturgical elements to create opportunities for learning. The learning process should enable learners to gain insights based on their own perceptions, stimulated by intriguing or fascinating phenomena, events or impressions (Wildhirt & Gerwig, 2013). On the one hand, learners should acquire knowledge and skills and, on the other hand, they should develop a motivated and interested attitude towards the learnings of maths.

Lehrkunst is guided by three principles: exemplarity, genetic and dramaturgy. The exemplarity principle stipulates that the chosen content ideally represents important concepts in mathematics that matter in the subject's cultural history up to the present day and exemplify the subject's 'essence'. This content should enable new insights and create the basis for future learning. Genetic learning (with genetic understood as the combination of phylogenetic and ontogenetic perspectives) is oriented towards students' development. The developmental aim is that learners are enabled to do mathematics independently and to exchange ideas and solutions with each other. In this regard, cognitive and non-cognitive skills, such as motivational and social readiness, should be promoted. Teaching units are dramaturgically designed, like plays that are divided into acts and scenes. In the course of these parts, thought processes are stimulated with a (historical) problem, (historical) approaches to a solution are acted out, and a solution is found. In a pedagogical play, the originators or authors of a discovery often appear, or a historical source is chosen as the starting point for the mathematical problem. The classroom is set up as a stage and the necessary objects and illustrative materials are available as props.

Application of the theoretical approaches in the project

The trainee teachers engaged in this project had to design a teaching unit based on the theories explained above. They had to select the content, create teaching materials and learning environments, and stimulate the learners' learning process. The content had to be legitimised by mathematics' didactics (general educational goals and curriculum). The teaching and learning materials were developed with colleagues from Egypt to Switzerland. Teachers had to stimulate the learning process of learners according to the genetic principle, and the learning process had to facilitate social exchange and illustrate possible knowledge that pupils could gain.

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Motivational aspects and overview

Previous considerations focused on the cognitive aspects of competence-oriented learning. However, competence orientation also requires the promotion of learners' motivational, volitional and social readiness (Klieme, *et al.*, 2007, 72) . Staging mathematical cornerstones in the classroom can contribute to such willingness under the following aspects:

- Learners perceive mathematics as a product of the intellectual achievements of mathematicians corresponding with each other or recording their findings for posterity. When learners enact this role, the exchange becomes meaningful and motivates learners to increase their own knowledge.

- A skilful staging of the mathematical problem enables emotional access to mathematics and can support learner motivation.

The following table provides a structured overview of the contribution of a mathematics education that develops learners' competences with the principles of *Lehrkunst*:

2.3   Objectives of the project and research questions

Lesson design	Mathematics	cognitive level	Content selection	Design of teaching materials and learning environments	Stimulation of learning processes
		non- cognitive level	Motivational, volitional and social readiness		
	Lehrkust		exemplary	drama-turgical	genetic

Table 2: Specific institutional objectives for the pedagogical development of teachers

A part of the university's goals established at the level of the study programme, trainee teachers are expected to develop a teaching sequence: to *design developmental, learning and educational processes and to participate in the profession-specific subject discourse*.

Specifically, for the context of the subject of maths didactics, and as part of this project research, the prospective teachers had to acquire theoretical knowledge in subject didactics, combine this with the concept of *Lehrkunst* and apply both to design a competence-oriented and a motivating lesson using theatre elements. The exposure to theory enabled students to participate in the profession-specific subject discourse and promoted communication about some subject-didactic aspects of teaching and learning. Thus, the development of a teaching play for practice can contribute to bridging the theory-practice gap in university teaching.

The research questions of the study include: Can *Lehrkunst* pedagogy in university teaching help prospective teachers to combine theatre elements with competence-oriented mathematics teaching? And can this be done in a way that is subject-didactically sound so that it develops the students' competence goals as set by the university?

2.4   Data collection and methodology

Participants and time frame

The project was conducted at a university of applied sciences and arts in Switzerland and at the Faculty of Education of Asyut University in Egypt. In Switzerland, 19 trainee teachers took part. They were in the first semester of a 6-semester Bachelor's degree and took the compulsory foundation course in mathematics education for secondary school.[17] As for the Egyptian part, the participants were 24 trainee teachers in post- graduate studies. They were enrolled on a course on special strategies for teaching maths. The project ran the whole semester (August to December 2019). The Swiss participants were split into five groups, each presenting their play in one of the last sessions of the course. Scripts and lesson plans were submitted electronically, and presentations were video recorded. The Egyptian participants were divided into three groups, each presenting their play (Hissat Berma) in one of the last sessions of the course.

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17   12 to 16 year-old students in their 7th – 9th years of compulsory schooling.

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Preparation and task

During the first weeks, the trainee teachers were introduced to the benefits of mathematics teaching for their pupils' general education and to teaching-learning processes. Then, to familiarise students with genetic learning, the lecturer staged 'Achilles and the tortoise' as an example of a pedagogical play (Brüngger, 2013). Students read the text by Wildhirt & Gerwig (2013) as theoretical background and were given access to other pedagogical plays as orientation (ibid.).

The task was to outline a teaching play and to develop and stage the opening. Developing a whole teaching unit with a pedagogical play would have exceeded the course's time budget. To complete the task, the prospective teachers chose mathematical content from the curriculum for first-year secondary level pupils and followed the subject-didactic requirements for designing lessons.[18]

Methodology and data collection

Three qualitative criteria were used to evaluate students' work:

a.   content choice,

b.   the motivating design of the materials, and

c.   *the constructivist stimulation of the learning process.*

Observation and document analysis were the instruments used to collect data.

1.   Selection of content:
In the case of Switzerland, the *selection of content* was evaluated according to two criteria. The selected content had to relate to the Curriculum 21 (EDK, 2016)[19]. Furthermore, the content had to represent an element of the cultural history of mathematics. As such, it had to have found its way into one of the authoritative histories of mathematics, for which Wußing (Wußing, 2008; Wußing & Alten, 2008) and Pickover (2013) served as points of reference.

2.   Motivational design of the materials:
To evaluate the *motivational design of the materials*, the four strategies to promote intrinsic motivation proposed by Pintrich & Schunk (1996) were applied as criteria:

−   "Challenge students' skills with activities of intermediate difficulty. Ensure that students do not become bored with easy tasks or reluctant to work on tasks perceived as overly difficult.
−   Curiosity: Present ideas slightly discrepant from learners' existing knowledge and beliefs. Incorporate surprise and incongruity into classroom activities.
−   Control: Allow students choices in activities and a voice in formulating rules and procedures. Foster attributions to causes over which they have some control.
−   Fantasy: Engage students in make-believe activities, games and simulations. Ensure that the motivational embellishments are task relevant and not distracting." (279f.)

3.   Constructivist stimulation of the learning process:
The *constructivist stimulation of the learning process* was evaluated based on three perspectives: problem orientation, linking to prior knowledge and social learning. The instructional dramatisation was examined to assess whether the learning process was initiated in a competence-oriented way and whether it facilitated independent and social learning. To determine whether the lessons were developmental and level-appropriate, the Swiss educational standards served as reference.

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18   Which is the 7th year of schooling.

19   Such as proportionality, understanding of number concepts, probability (EDK, 2016).

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2.5   Results

To answer the research question, the three qualitative criteria used to evaluate individual students' work were applied to the group as a whole and their joint work. The students produced five pedagogical plays on the following topics

Project 1a and 1b	The correspondence between Blaise Pascal and Pierre de Fermat on the calculation of probability (twice)
Project 2	Archimedes and the Archimedes' principle
Project 3	The chessboard legend
Project 4	The Chinese remainder theorem
Project 5	The Calculation of Berma: A traditional Egyptian story

Content choice

Overall, the students chose content corresponding to the curriculum. The calculation of probabilities (projects 1a/b) is of considerable importance to data and chance. Archimedes' principle (project 2) is used in the pupils' teaching materials and serves to understand functional relationships with compound quantities as well as the concept of volume. The chessboard legend (project 3) is suitable to comprehend exponential growth. While the Chinese remainder theorem (project 4) is not explicitly included in the relevant curriculum, it can be used to deepen the discussion of divisors and multiples. All selected content can therefore be legitimised at secondary level I with the current curriculum, even if the Chinese remainder theorem represents an excursion into a special mathematical topic.

The trainee teachers succeeded in finding content with a long historical tradition, as reflected by their inclusion in Wußing (Wußing & Alten 2008a; 2008b). Wußing discusses the correspondence between Pascal and Fermat from 1654 on multi-stage random experiments with dice (2008a, 78) and recounts the legend of the discovery of Archimedes' principle (ibid., 194). He briefly mentions the Chinese residual problem, with reference to Leonardo of Pisa's *Liber Abaci*. (ibid., 315). Libbrecht goes further back, attributing it to Sun Zi Suanjing in the fourth century.[20] The origin of the chessboard legend is

uncertain. In Pickover's *250 Milestones in the History of Mathematics*, it is assumed that the Arab scholar Ibn Khallikan was the first to tell the story (2013, 102).

Motivating design of the materials

To promote intrinsic motivation, the tasks must challenge, but not overwhelm learners. They should arouse interest, allow a certain autonomy and stimulate the imagination. The historical problems the students chose were challenging; they did not have ready-made solutions and prompted learners to use problem-solving strategies. Yet, they were manageable and can be found in the teaching materials for lower secondary school.

The instructional dramatisation of these problems guides learners towards important milestones of mathematical discoveries, sometimes following the original masterminds step by step. Trainee teachers appear in the role of mathematicians (projects 1a/b) or narrators (project 2). The performance of the play conveys the cultural background of the discovery. Rather than distracting learners, this additional information saturates the learning experience and enhances an understanding of the cultural-historical conditionalities of mathematics.

In total, the combination of mathematics and theatre elements follows the four strategies for promoting intrinsic motivation (see section 4.3.2 above).

Constructivist stimulation of the learning process

In all five plays, the chosen topics follow the development models of the national educational standards and the curriculum in Switzerland. They build on previous experiences and skills that primary school pupils are expected to master (EDK, 2016, 240–241), teaching for example (project 2) the skills of carrying out experiments to explore a situation and find examples, properties and relationships (EDK, 2011, 44). Through social learning in class following the plays, communication and discussion competences were also practised in all six teaching units. Teamwork as an important learning goal was achieved by dividing roles among trainee teachers to conduct the play.

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20 The author also mentions other mathematicians who have dealt with the problem from different cultures. The Europeans he names are Peurbach, Koebel, Jacob, Rudolff, Cardano and Tartaglia.

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2.6   Summary and interpretation of the results

Drawing on the theoretical backgrounds of mathematics education and *Lehrkunst*, the trainee teachers succeeded in combining theatre plays with good mathematics teaching, meeting the requirements of both subject didactics and *Lehrkunst*. The selection of content could be legitimised, the design of the teaching materials was motivating, and the stimulated learning processes were developmentally appropriate. The staged plays serving as introductions to the teaching units reflected a well-prepared learning environment and contextualised the mathematical problems within the history of mathematics.

The study and application of the corresponding theoretical background promoted the students' understanding of mathematics didactic theories and their competence in the application of this knowledge. The project thus contributed to bridging the gap between theory and practice.

The research question of whether the concept of *Lehrkunst* in university teaching can help students to combine theatre elements with competence-oriented mathematics teaching in a subject-didactically well-founded way and thus to advance regarding the competence goals of the university, can be affirmatively answered based on the results.

2.7   Discussion

The results indicate that the combination of theatre elements and mathematics teaching can be used profitably in teacher training to achieve the competence goals expected of trainee teachers. This combination allows prospective mathematics teachers to understand – and teach – their discipline as undergoing cultural and historical development. This constructivist approach enables students to stimulate independent, comprehension-oriented and discursive learning in learners. In this manner, both cognitive and non-cognitive competences are strengthened.

Although the result of this project can only be supported with qualitative data from teachers' observations and annotations, the findings may potentially be fruitfully extended beyond mathematics education. The concept of *Lehrkunst* is largely independent of school levels and subject content. This makes it possible to transfer the approach described here to other levels and other subjects.

3.   The use of dramatic arts in teaching mathematics

(Sub-project by Andira Rahdi)

3.1   The context and leading questions

With the generalisation of dramatic arts as a subject matter in middle schools in Tunisia and the spread of drama clubs throughout the territory of the Republic, pedagogical observers noticed an increased interest of learners in the subject and a rise in practical workshops. This helped increase research into the extent to which dramatic arts was able to help learners suffering from learning difficulties to imagine, think and express themselves during those classes, and to improvise dramatic situations in drama clubs. It also led to research into the extent of the boost those classes add to the learners' linguistic dictionary and development of their knowledge.

In addition to the formal teaching of theatre, formative courses were held for the primary school curriculum. Experiences of the application have proven two main things: the first is that the students' interest throughout the lesson and the desire to participate in it is noticeable. Second: the method facilitated the understanding of the lesson content and consolidated it.

This leads us to ask the following questions:

- Does the use of dramatisation in teaching mathematics achieve the desired cognitive efficiency at all levels of teaching?

- What are the limits of possible dramatisation in scientific subjects and in the traditional method for presenting knowledge?

- Does the traditional school permit the transformation of teaching spaces into workshops?

- Is the academic training of educators and teachers able to absorb the pedagogical aspect and modify its methodology and didactics? Because the educator who will carry out the process of dramatisation requires both mastery of the tools of dramatisation and the possession of the teachings tools for mathematics.

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3.2   Importance of research

Learning in the modern school is no longer an end in itself, but a means to a quality of life – a means by which the learner implements life skills. This approach makes the materials and knowledge intersect at various points. Where we are looking for the desirable, the motivating, and the funny, to support the necessary and useful in a systematic system. From this point of view, it is important to research the employing of the dramatic arts as a pedagogical mediator for the teaching of mathematics in order to:

- activate the intersection between knowledge and science;

- facilitate the application of active pedagogy;

- enhance the educator's ownership of communication and delivery skills;

- enlarge the horizons for researchers in the pedagogical field to develop teaching and learning methods;

- diversify active pedagogical bearings to achieve the expected knowledge and

- make learning attractive, enjoyable, and stimulating of development and advancement, and a source of knowledge, skills and high-end traits at the same time.

3.3   Research objectives

The educational process goes through many challenges on a practical level during the communication between the sender and the receiver. The entry of many means of modern technology and the development of global digitalisation and its invasion of the interests of new generations, has led to the reluctance of the learners to continue accepting traditional direct teaching methods. This prompted pedagogues to look for ways of developing their tools, and they found that dramatising is an effective and stimulating mechanism for learning.

Few are the countries that teach the dramatic arts as a basic subject in the field of assessment. It is a subject that is taught with the aim of helping students learn more life skills and improve their ability express themselves and communicate. Its purpose is not to make professional performers through performing techniques.

Additionally, it provides a multitude of skills under the general guise of gaining self-confidence, such as communication, expression, analysis and criticism. This is done in an atmosphere of wit and fun, where lies the importance of the research which:

- aspires to transfer the attractiveness of teaching dramatic arts to teaching exact science and

- activates the spirit of drama in the educational process by using different theatrical methods (stage/ puppets / dramatic games / narration and storytelling, etc.).

3.4   Theatrical education

Theatrical education is not a kind of art such as singing, dancing, drawing or acting. Rather, it is an educational phenomenon that relies on theatrical art as a tool to achieve educational goals and artistic and aesthetic goals, which ultimately serve general educational goals. The student in the school is neither an artist nor an actor, and should not be dealt with in this sense. Rather, they are a human being in the position of educational attainment, acquiring the experiences that shape their personality. In the school, theatrical education prepares the person, not the specialised artist. Art and its techniques are used to build the student's personality, not to provide them with an artistic profession. This axiom is considered essential in defining the concept of theatrical education and in formulating its academic programme, and is the main gateway to an understanding of this modern educational phenomenon. Theatrical education is part of the educational and learning process, not a luxury. It is the second wing to it, if we consider that the first wing is science, as the student will not be able to fly and sing with confidence, and feel their independence, unless they find this balance between their wings.

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Objectives of theatrical education

Theatrical education within an educational institution has several objectives, including what is educational, what is therapeutic, what is cognitive and what is skill, and they can be identified in the following points:

■ aspires to transfer the attractiveness of teaching dramatic arts to teaching exact science and

■ Simplify the study materials through 'dramatising the curriculum' based on educational foundations.

■ Develop a sense of artistic and aesthetic taste.

■ Give the student expressive courage, which strengthens self-confidence.

■ Instil the spirit of belonging to the group and co-operating with it.

■ Help the student acquire communication skills.

■ Contribute to detecting problems and social disturbances and fixing them.

■ Identify and treat psychological disorders.

■ Strengthen the student's relationships within the school environment, including colleagues, teachers and administrators.

■ Educate on discipline, order and good behaviour.

■ Activate the student's auditory and visual senses.

■ Train critical senses.

■ Encourage free thinking and expression.

■ Help in acquiring problem-solving skills.

Theatrical education is an independent learning material that has its own didactics in many countries such as Tunisia, Canada and others. It contributes to building the student's cognitive personality and has an effect on success and failure. However, it can also be one of the active and effective pedagogical tools in the modern institution and a vital and effective part of the educational curricula.

Educational curricula

The curriculum can be defined as all the activities and experiences that the school provides to the students under its supervision, whether inside or outside the school. It can also be defined as a set of planned and purposeful activities and practices that the school provides to help learners achieve a set of educational gains, and obtain the best results based on their abilities in the classroom. It aims to achieve a set of educational goals, taking into account that the goals are comprehensive and appropriate to different aspects of the student's personality, and not greater than their abilities considering their age. The curriculum is also a context for the scientific, educational or technical materials that are presented to learners during the study period, in order to make the education process coordinated, tidy, and not scattered and according to a systematic pattern. In Tunisia and most Arab countries, it is determined and audited. The method of notification and activation (the pedagogical aspect) is left to the diligence of the educator, their abilities and their training. The Inspection and Guidance Foundation in the Tunisian school has paid attention to the training of educators in the pedagogical field in an effort to compensate for the shortfall in the planning of teaching programmes. That was held in order to keep pace with developments in the pedagogical field and to train teachers on the most important active pedagogies that help them in good communication of information and the acquisition of skills.

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Active and interactive pedagogies

There are many methods of activation within the class which can be adopted by the educator in order to communicate knowledge and skills to the students. The importance of each pedagogical technique varies from one environment to another, from one educational level to another, and according to the contexts of teaching and the objectives of the subject, as well as its nature.

The most important of these methods and the most widely used among educators in the Tunisian school are case study or problem situation, brainstorming, discussion circle, group work, flipped classroom, field work, role play, Philips 6*6, cooperative learning, round table, watching and discussing, and dramatisation.

- **Case study or problem situation:**
  Xavier Roegiers defines a problem situation by saying, "It is a set of information that is placed within a specific context to link between them, in order to accomplish a specific task". Acquired skills so that the situation calls for the formulation of new and innovative work hypotheses from the student's own creativity.

- **Brainstorming:**
  the teacher begins the brainstorming session by asking a question, problem, or topic for discussion. Students then share their answers and ideas related to the topic of discussion. The teacher must accept all the answers without criticism or evaluation, and then summarise them on the board. Students carry out an open discussion session to evaluate these ideas one by one.

- **The discussion circle:**
  the students sit in a 'chamber' and the professor presents the topic or forms they want to talk about, opens the door for discussion and free association, and summarises at the end of the discussion the correct and appropriate ideas.

- **Group work:**
  the professor divides the class into working groups and distributes the topic axes to them. After each group completes its work, it is presented to the rest of the groups to be evaluated and approved.

- **Flipped classroom:**
  live instruction is done through video, or any other method that students can use individually before they come to the classroom. This shift in timing allows the teacher to use class time for work that either they prefer to do as a large group, or that requires the teacher's individual attention. In other words, the flipped class is a live instruction given to the learners outside the classroom, with more strategic use of time in the classroom for group work and individual care.

- **Field work:**
  as its name indicates, field work is based on visits to see things or get to know places for what they are.

- **Role exchange:**
  between the student and the teacher, where the student presents the lesson that they previously prepared, and the teacher takes position among the students.

- **Philips 6*6 style:**
  this technique is based on distributing the section group into groups of 6 members, who deliberate on a specific topic for 6 minutes, at the rate of one minute for each member. Each group chooses a mediator, a reporter and a spokesperson. The mediator interviews the members at a rate of one minute per member. The reporter records each dialogue in a paper. When the conversations are over, the reports are re-read, and then the team members discuss them. The spokesperson comments on the group report and reads it to the section group.

- **Cooperative learning 'mini-case' between two different levels:**
  learning within small groups of students (2–6 students with varying cognitive abilities) that allows them to work together effectively and help each other to raise the level of each other.

- **Talking in succession 'round table':**
  the students sit in a circle and raise the topic or the problem and everyone participates according to their seat and from the right of the path (educator) in answering and expressing their opinion.

- **Watching and discussing:**
  entails a flash, a short film, a scientific experiment, a map, listening to a piece of music, or following a theatrical performance and discussing its content.

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Dramatisation is the implementation of school curricula in theatrical or dramatic form, with the aim of improving students' knowledge, skills, concepts, values and trends. It leads to the achievement of the desired goals, in a likable and interesting way. It aims to organise academic content, reorganise the way of teaching and dressing it in a new dramatic form in order to serve, explain and clarify the educational material.

Dramatising from the technical perspective of pedagogical use

In the early part of the twentieth century in 1908, Nikolai Evreinov, a Russian who moved to France, used the term theatricality in a study he published under the title "apologie de la theatralite" (Fernandez, 2010). In his study he considers that the dramatising instinct is a natural human instinct like any other, and that this instinct precedes any aesthetic or artistic attempt (here it meets with Freudian studies). In 1917, he published a paper entitled "Theatre for Its Own" (Goetschel, 2005), in which he stresses the necessity of studying theatrical arts with its specificity, which is determined by dramatisation. He returned to confirm in this study the first meaning that he gave to the concept, as he linked rituals (especially religious ones) with theatre, as well as studying what he called "historical moments" from the point of view of dramatisation and studying the human need for that dramatisation. This means that from the beginning there are two dimensions in the use of the concept, the first human and the second theatrical, which emphasises the specificity of the theatrical art. Everything is subject to theatricality, subject to diagnosis, subject to communication elements in theatrical performance – sender – message – addressee – echo return – and the general context of the communication process.

Dramatising mathematics is a dramatic process that relies on pure imagination in the personalisation of numbers and signs. This is due to the variety of emotional states that personalisation carries and the possibility of colouring the voice and enriching the dramatic expression (gestures and movement). With the personalisation of things and their settlement in the theatrical artistic format, we use with it the pedagogy of right and wrong, by presenting the mathematical equation and arithmetic operations incorrectly at first by a dramatic character, then modified by a second character and controlled and proven by a third character. It is subject to basic conditions and principles to which the person dealing with the process of dramatising and artistic preparation is bound.

Basic principles of dramatising

- Observe scientific accuracy and integrity of facts and concepts;

- The person who carries out this process should be creative and familiar with the educational aspects;

- To have action and methods of excitement, suspense and wit;

- Taking care of drawing the characters that present the content to ensure that the students sympathise with those characters in their imagination;

- Concern for the basic idea of the lesson being dramatised without going to extremes in the intertwined details;

- The clear inter-relationship between the lesson and the theme of the play;

- Simplicity of style and language used and

- Adapting the presentation to the level of viewers.

Dramatising and action

In order not to fall into the trap of repeating the same content contained in the curriculum or the textbook, dramatisation depends on movements and emotions more than words, because words carry less than 35% of the meanings we want in a particular situation, while more than 65% of these meanings are transmitted through non-verbal messages (movements and gestures) (Guerrero & Floyd, 2006). We learn different words by imitation or by chance. We have within us a huge number of words that come out profusely from our mouths and endlessly make their way to our ears. We spend years studying and learning to read words until we put them together into phrases, and then we try to make these phrases a proper speech. At the same time, the movements, gestures and feelings we send out flow honestly and break all barriers, transcend languages and build bridges of honest and clear communication.

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Process of dramatisation:

a. Conclusions: the first thing a preparer does is:

- Extract and categorise text characters (primary and secondary/heroine and counter-heroine);

- Record the events of the story and arrange them with the logic that is acceptable to the owner of the project (arrangement according to chronological order / reverse order – flashback – / slicing order according to the author's vision) and

- flashback – / slicing order according to the author's vision) and

- Extract the places of the course of events, modifying them according to what is possible and cancelling what cannot be on the stage.

b. Wording: arrange the events according to the relationship of the characters to each other:

- Build theatrical scenes according to the presence of the characters in the event (the scene changes when a character exits or enters it);

- Write the dialogue between the characters to build the target event and

- Pay attention to the theatrical instructions.

c. Review and evaluation: the scene is reviewed according to:

- Logical events;

- Character strength and effectiveness (starring roles);

- The possibilities of executing the scenes in specified spaces and the logistics;

- The educational dimension of the work;

- The language to be used and

- Rhythm of the scene (tempo, not the accompanying music).

The dramatisation of mathematics does not differ much in its essence from what was mentioned, but we have to realise that numbers and equations can all be personalised.

What can we dramatise?

- Narrative texts

- Maps

- Mathematical equations

- Instructions

- Human values and other vocabulary of the educational process

- Characters capable of action, emotion and pronunciation

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3.5   Practical examples

First practical example:

Scene name:
Maths Scores

Dramatic medium used:
dramatic theatre

Target group:
first stage of basic education

Objective:
to train the child to use arithmetic signs and the ability to get their results

Steps and pedagogical scenario:
Steps and pedagogical scenario: a character appears from the right side to identify itself and represents the number (4), followed by the appearance on the left, a second character representing the number (2), and two characters representing the multiplication signs (×) and the result (=) come from the middle. The characters move in the space of the representation area to form the ends of the equation with short dialogues or to musical rhythms.

Then a character appears from one of the sides representing the number (9), knowing itself, confirming that it is the correct outcome and the logical result with confidence in the self, but in a funny sarcastic manner (in the details of the costume or the method of performance).

A character representing the number (8) comes out from the same place as the character that carries the number (9), speeding, angry, and declaring that it is right, and the other is wrong.

The characters of the signs can participate in the emotional scene activities of exclamation, disapproval, anger or sadness in a general comic framework. We can also involve the audience in correcting the mathematical equation in a special festive and intimate way.

Second practical example:

Scene name:
Numbers Train

Dramatic medium used:
dramatic theatre

Target group:
second year of basic education

Objective:
to distinguish between odd and even numbers

Steps and pedagogical scenario:
Steps and pedagogical scenario: a small train on alert, special for transporting numbers, consisting of two cars, one for odd numbers and the other for even numbers. The driver decides to set off after all the numbers have boarded the train. The observer comes to check the passengers and count their number. They find there is an even number in the car with odd numbers. Another odd number is hiding with a friend (the next even number) as they always want to be together. This makes the driver refuse to start until the passengers are seating in their reviewed places and each one is committed to the correct place in the car assigned to them.

In order to implement this, the educator divides the partition space into two parts using the tables designated for sitting. The lined seats are the train seats.

The teacher distributes among the children papers with numbers starting from 1 up to and including the number of members of the class (not counting the role of the driver's character played by the teacher in the middle of the scene). This is so the teacher can follow the children's play and direct them closely and motivate them to participate in the game and reach the desired results with ease and clarity.

Picture 1: Mathematics lesson play from the first year of primary Andalusia Private School in Tunisia

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Third practical example:

Scene name:
Vegetable Market

Dramatic medium used:
flat cartoon puppets

Target group:
second year of the basic stage

Objective:
to be acquainted with various coins

Steps and pedagogical scenario:
a father enters the market space to buy fruit. He hesitates in front of the variety and is confused what to buy with his coins. He stands in front of the strawberries, with their attractive red colour, while smelling their refreshing aroma. They talk to him about their nutritional richness and health benefits for him and his family members. He asks them about the price per kilogram. They answer that a kilogram costs one thousand five hundred and fifty millimes. He begins to take out the coins and calculates them piece by piece so that he can buy them – one thousand millimes coin plus one five hundred coin and one fifty coin. Before the strawberries jump cheerfully to the basket that the father holds in his hands, they repeat the calculations with the coins again so that the children can memorise and absorb the required amount by listing the coins.

Then he moves onto another delicious winter fruit, the orange, with its brilliant colour and streamlined, rounded size. The orange fruit talks to him to entice him with its benefits and the richness of its use in all meals. He asks it the price per kilogram. It answers that it is equal to eight hundred and seventy millimes. A five hundred coin is taken out, then three coins each equal to one hundred millimes. The orange requests he search for smaller coins in order to complete the price. He takes out three more coins. A coin of fifty millimes and two coins, each equal to ten millimes.

The orange rejoices in the sum of the coins and decides to join the basket that the father holds in his hands after repeatedly calculating the required amount and representing it in different coins so that the child can calculate, memorise and assimilate.

Before leaving the vegetable market, the father reviews again the sum of the coins he paid to buy the fruits he loves to return to the family.

Pictures 2-3-4: Workshop on educational puppets at the Higher Institute of Childhood in Tunisia

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Fourth practical example:

Scene name:
Troublesome Straights

Method:
glove puppeteer
(can be performed by shadow theatre)

Target group:
children of the third year of the basic stage

Objective:
to discover the difference between parallel and perpendicular lines

Steps and pedagogical scenario:
the scene begins with the passing of speeding vehicles on the road, and then stops in compliance with the red light so that pedestrians can pass over the designated white lines; then the movement calms down completely and the cars disappear and the legs of pedestrians disappear. The white lines stop from their place and move to the middle of the road and little by little they begin to dance perpendicularly with joy, taking different geometric shapes intersecting to the rhythm of dancing music. The traffic light installed on the side of the road is alert to their riotous behaviour. It calls to the set of white lines until they return to their place. They refuse to comply with orders and continue to dance and celebrate, indicating that they are tired of work and need rest and entertainment. The traffic light insists on the need to return quickly to continue work so as not to cause road accidents. It reminds them that the night is approaching and they can rest and have fun later, when the vehicle traffic subsides and the passers-by are asleep in their homes.

The music fades away little by little until it disappears, and the white lines come back to work. However, they return to their place in a disorganised manner, some parallel, the other perpendicular, and some refracted. The traffic light is trying to alert them to the importance of their parallel position side by side, but the lines do not understand the intended meaning and cannot differentiate between standing parallel or perpendicular. The traffic light then has to leave its place to approach them and help them to keep to the previous arrangement, turning them all into parallel straight lines – just as their situation was at the beginning of the scene. It shows them parallelism and intersection with their bodies, and begs them to remain as they are, in order to ensure safety.

The traffic light returns to its fixed position on the side of the road. Cars begin to pass and then stop for pedestrians. Thus, life returns to normal as the scene began.

Picture 5: A dramatisation lesson on parallel and perpendicular lines at the Andalusian Private School in Tunisia

4.   Conclusion

I noticed through my fieldwork in training child educators at the High Institute for Childhood and during my visits to my students' training field in primary schools, kindergartens and care homes that the children become more passionate with theatrical activities. I noticed their motivation and desire to participate, as well as the speed of their assessment of what is attributed to them, the development of their expressive abilities, their confidence in themselves and their cooperation with their peers.

I also followed the echo and aftermath in the private education institutions that trains educators and noticed their happiness in developing their skills that facilitated many pedagogical and communicative challenges for them. The social media sites of these schools were filled with dramatised lessons which were well received by parents and officials, and I understand their gratitude for the contribution to the development of their children's education and their desire to learn. Dramatising curricula has become an urgent need in the modern teaching institution. With simple training, every educator can become familiar with dramatisation as an interesting and easy-to-use pedagogical medium in the classroom, like any other pedagogical medium mentioned in the research.

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5.   Concluding remarks

The experiment linking different subject didactics across national borders proved to be a creative opportunity. The different approaches of the mathematics didacticians and the theatre pedagogue provided insights into the other discipline. The former started from the mathematical problem and prepared it dramaturgically, the latter brought mathematics onto the stage and thus created occasions for argumentation. The mathematicians' cultural-historical approach via the art of teaching opened up the possibility of exchanging culturally and historically important moments of mathematics interculturally, taking into account the principles of good mathematics teaching. In particular, the stories of the Chinese remainder theorem and that of Hissat Berma (telling the same mathematical problem wrapped in stories of the two cultural areas) was surprising and new to all participants. Three of the stories are included in the appendix. As an outlook, it can be envisaged that both sides – mathematics and theatre – will continue to profit from the wealth of intercultural moments. The glory of mathematics is put in stories that can be exchanged, as well as enriched with theatre.

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Appendix: Instructional plays

1. The three faces of probability theory

The overture to the teaching play begins with a short introduction and the playing of a baroque music piece.

The names of Gerolamo Cardano, Blaise Pascal and Christiaan Huygens are written on the blackboard, as well as the dates of their discoveries, and their national flags are displayed.

The first to appear is Pascal. He is recognisable as French by his beret and Parisian bread. He reads out a letter from Monsieur Fermat. The letter contains a mathematical question about probability in dice throwing experiments. He takes dice and begins to explore the problem.

Huygens appears in a velvet jacket and creeps around Pascal, spying. Suddenly, Pascal jumps up joyfully and exclaims: "Now I've finally found the solution to the riddle!" He begins to write back to Monsieur Fermat, talking loudly to himself. Huygens listens attentively and wonders half aloud, "… can this perhaps be extended to other problems?"

Then Cardano comes rushing in in a black cape and claims that he had already tackled the problem a hundred years earlier and solved it. Since he can't find his work despite searching, the scene ends with a cocky grin from the other two and a gloating remark.

Following the theatre scene, the three protagonists briefly introduce themselves with their mathematical achievements. The subsequent lesson planning calls for the pupils to be divided into three groups.
As country teams Italy, France and the Netherlands, they compete in solving the historical problems.

Picture 6: From the production on probability theory with Blaise Pascal and Christiaan Huygens

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2. The Chinese remainder theorem

A projected image shows the street of a Chinese village with red lanterns. Chinese music plays in the background. A narrator greets the audience with: "Nihao". The narrator presents the story of an old Chinese woman who collects an equal number of eggs in the henhouse every day, puts them in groups in a basket and goes to the local market. One day she has a collision with an official and all the eggs are broken. The official wants to refund her for the broken eggs so asks how many eggs there had been. The woman does not remember. She does, however, remember how many were left each time she divided the eggs into groups of different numbers. While the narrator presents the story, two students in the roles of the official and the old lady act out the events.

Following the presentation of the story, students briefly review the history of the Chinese remainder theorem, which is well-known in China and became known in Europe via Leonardo of Pisa. All learners start exploring the problem and will find solutions by representation (see left) or trial. Additionally, good students might be introduced to calculating with residue systems. In that case, they are first instructed to create Cayley tables for addition and multiplication, before being introduced to the calculation method using a simplified problem that features only two moduli and their remainders. Finally, the students compile and present areas of application of the Chinese remainder theorem in computer science and cryptology.

Picture 7: From the staging of the Chinese remainder theorem
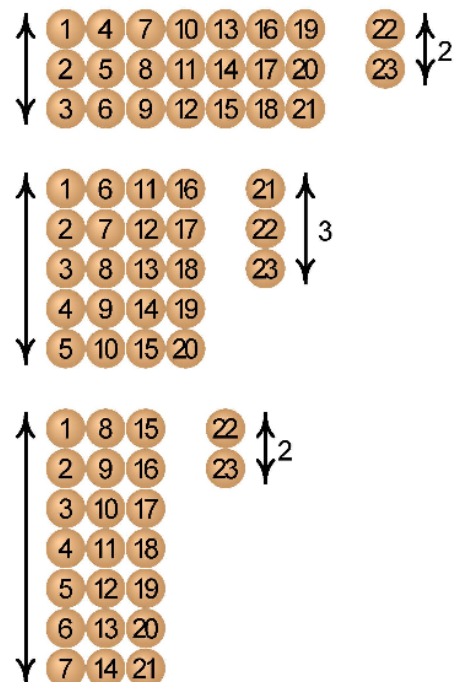
Picture 8: Mathematical exercise:
$x \equiv 2 \pmod 3 \equiv 3 \pmod 5 \equiv 2 \pmod 7$
with the solution $x = 23 + 105k$, where $k \in \mathbb{Z}$

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3. The three faces of probability theory

There was a humble Egyptian peasant whose work was selling eggs. Every day, she used to buy the eggs from the hen farm owners, holding them in huge basket on her head to carry them to the market and selling them there in order to earn her living and support her children.

One day, while the peasant is carrying the eggs on her way to the market, she is hit by a bicycle ridden by a man; she is unable to maintain her balance and the basket falls off her head and all the eggs break. The man keeps apologising as the lady cries over the loss of her money.

The woman keeps crying over the loss of her capital money that she used to invest for earning her living. The passers-by gather around her and comfort her, lessening the seriousness of the ordeal, promising to find a solution and asking her not to panic. When she collects herself and feels better and calmer, the people promised her to compensate for the loss, but she has to tell them the exact number of eggs she had in the basket in order to calculate the loss. She tells them: if you divide the number by three, one would be left; if by four, one would be left; by five, one would be left; by six, one would be left and if the number of eggs was divided by seven, none would be left.

The people keep looking at each other wondering how they would be able to calculate that strange maths, until one person reaches the solution telling them that the number of eggs was 301: none would be left if divided by 7, however, one would be left if divided by 3. 4, 5, or 6. When they try to find the solution by themselves, they became pretty sure that the number of eggs was really 301 because when they divide the number by 7 none was left but when it was divided by 3, 4, 5, or 6, each time one was left.

So, the people right away gathered the sum of money and gave it to the woman who was extremely happy that her problem was solved, and all her eggs were thus sold out. She went back to her children feeling contented and enjoying peace of mind.

Since then, "Berma maths" became a saying that is always mentioned in any situation when someone finds it difficult to find a solution for a mathematical problem. The village of Berma became one of the Egyptian villages whose name was connected with this old popular proverb.

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Teaching philosophies:

▶ Many people's relationship to mathematics is one of ambivalence – while they recognise its fundamental importance as a tool for understanding and accessing the modern world, at the same time they consider it difficult, abstract and rather boring. Prospective teachers should improve this relationship and help reduce the dichotomy by representing the subject appropriately both internally (to students) and externally (to parents and colleagues). By engaging with mathematics and acquiring and using mathematical knowledge, they themselves – and subsequently their learners – should be able to establish and develop a personal and positive relationship with the subject.

Selina Pfenniger

▶ The role of the university professor is to spread the spirit of enthusiasm and proximity and to show kindness, affection and optimism. Teachers urge students to adhere to the behaviours of high taste with each other in the classroom, leading to impressive and advanced results in the student's acceptance of the details in technical materials and the speed at which they are understood. This awareness and interaction are what is asked of the students later in the implementation of the workshop and techniques of puppet-making or other applied exercises related to the development of their expressive abilities (body / voice / features). It also stimulates a spirit of creativity, high aesthetic taste and sparking of imagination.

Andira Radhi

12 Diversité et éducation interculturelle en Tunisie et en Suisse : une étude comparative

Kawthar Ayed
ENSIT, Université de Tunis, Laboratoire Intersignes, Tunisie
kawthar.ayed@ensit.u-tunis.tn

Olivia Franz-Klauser
Formatrice d'enseignants autonome, Zurich, Suisse
o.franz-klauser@bluewin.ch

Résumé :

Dans cette étude, nous comparerons deux pays différents à la fois en termes de leur histoire et de leur diversité culturelle. Nous examinerons l'émergence de la diversité culturelle et retracerons son influence sur le milieu scolaire. Les bases juridiques, les programmes et les contenus pédagogiques seront présentés. Plusieurs exemples concrets viendront illustrer le fait que dans ces deux pays, la mise en œuvre des objectifs généralement acceptés n'est pas toujours facile, malgré la présence de cadres juridiques et de programmes d'apprentissage homogènes.

Mots clés :

- éducation interculturelle

- diversité culturelle

- compétences

- stratégies pour la diversité

1.   Introduction

Ce projet d'écriture est le fruit des discussions engagées dans le cadre du projet SINAN autour des environnements culturels dans le cycle primaire. Nous nous sommes intéressées dans cet article à la question de l'éducation interculturelle en Tunisie et en Suisse, comment et jusqu'à quel point elle permet une meilleure prise en compte de la diversité.

Parler d'interculturalité ne signifie pas parler de multiculturalisme, étant donné que multi- ou pluri- renvoie à une mosaïque de cultures dans une société donnée, alors qu'inter- implique une dynamique, une connexion entre différentes cultures, comme le précise si bien Martine Abdallah-Pretceille (1999) :

> « l'interculturel est au contraire une notion dynamique, dont le préfixe '-inter' souligne une mise en relation des différents groupes, un dialogue, [...] une prise en considération des interactions entre des groupes, des individus, des identités [...] ». Si le multiculturel se focalise sur « ce qui est », l'interculturel est axé sur «ce qui devrait être» ou «ce qu'on veut qu'il soit » (50).

Le préfixe « -inter » dresse un pont symbolique entre deux cultures différentes, la culture étant définie par l'UNESCO comme *« l'ensemble des traits distinctifs, spirituels et matériels, intellectuels et affectifs, qui caractérisent une société ou un groupe social. Elle englobe, outre les arts et les lettres, les modes de vie, les droits fondamentaux de l'être humain, les systèmes de valeurs, les traditions et les croyances »* (UNESCO, 2001). L'emploi du mot interculturel tire donc sa pleine signification du préfixe *« -inter »* renvoyant dès lors à un champ sémantique de l'interaction intégrant la diversité culturelle des uns et des autres. C'est le fait de reconnaitre à l'Autre sa singularité et son altérité.

Dans le domaine de l'éducation, on parle d'«*éducation interculturelle »* visant ainsi

> « une société d'intégration qui offre à tous ses habitants, quelles que soient leurs différences, la possibilité de jouer un rôle dans la société et de construire leur vie sur un pied d'égalité, en entretenant de bonnes relations entre les groupes et les communautés et en évitant des tensions sociales trop Vives » (Le Conseil de l'Europe, 2007, 24).

Eduquer à la diversité permettrait un apprentissage du vivre-ensemble qui est considéré par l'UNESCO comme l'objectif global de l'éducation interculturelle[21] cherchant optimalement à parvenir à des *« modalités progressives et durables de coexistence dans des sociétés multiculturelles grâce à l'instauration d'une compréhension, d'un respect et d'un dialogue entre les différents groupes culturels »* (UNESCO, 2007, 18). Des spécialistes de l'éducation comme Martine Abdallah-Pretceille et Louis Porcher ont œuvré pour montrer l'importance d'une approche interculturelle en didactique des langues, dans la mesure où il y a une interdépendance entre langue et culture et que l'apprentissage des langues étrangères vivifie l'envie de découvrir l'Autre et son environnement culturel. Ce qui nécessite de toute évidence l'acquisition de compétences interculturelles ainsi que la mise en place de pédagogies et de stratégies adoptées.

La problématique centrale de ce présent travail est de chercher comment cette question d'éducation interculturelle et les compétences qui lui sont inhérentes se manifestent dans deux pays différents dont l'histoire et les politiques éducatives sont foncièrement différentes. Afin d'analyser quelques aspects de ce vaste sujet, nous avons choisi d'interroger dans une première partie la diversité culturelle et l'éducation interculturelle dans le contexte éducatif tunisien avant et après l'indépendance, en mettant en avant les stratégies adoptées par les politiques éducatives et leur efficacité. Dans la seconde partie, nous mettons l'accent sur la diversité culturelle dans le contexte éducatif suisse avant d'offrir un bref aperçu historique et une étude effectuée sur terrain.

2.   Diversité culturelle et éducation interculturelle en Tunisie

2.1   Un bref aperçu historique

Riche d'une diversité culturelle peu commune, comme en témoignent les six alphabets qu'elle a connus (punique, tifinagh, hébreu, grec, arabe et latin), la Tunisie est enracinée dans une culture d'échange et d'ouverture sur le monde depuis toujours.

Dans le domaine de l'éducation, cette diversité s'articulera au fil des siècles et notamment avec les réformes du 19e siècle et la fondation de l'Ecole Polytechnique de Bardo (1840–1868) et du collège Sadiki en 1865, où l'on dispensait un enseignement multidisciplinaire, multilingue et séculaire afin de former des cadres de l'Etat.

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21   *Conférence internationale de l'éducation*, Organisation des nations unies pour l'éducation, la science et la culture, Quarante-sixième session. Centre international de conférences, Genève 5–8 septembre 2001.

Répartition du réseau scolaire de la Tunesie en 1906
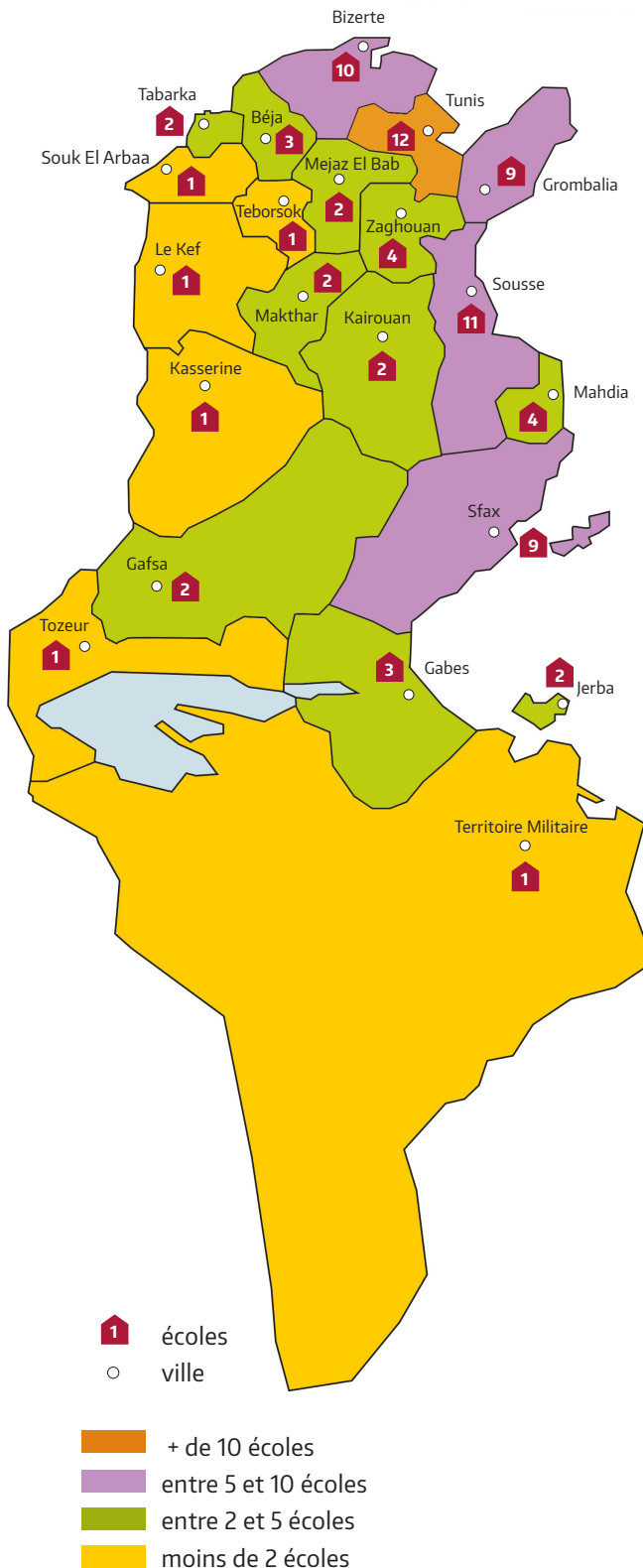(Révision et Exécution : Habib Saadi)

Figure 1 : Carte scolaire de la Tunisie dressée en 1906 par Louis Machuel.

Pendant la colonisation

Après l'instauration du protectorat en 1881, les français créent la DTP (Direction de l'Instruction Publique) qui aura pour mission d'implanter des écoles franco-arabes dans les régions où les colons se sont installés et y introduire des changements capitaux. Mais le nombre de tunisiens scolarisés ne dépassant alors pas les 13 % et étant fonction des places libres restantes dans les écoles après l'admission des fils des colons et des étrangers (Italiens notamment), un grand nombre de jeunes n'a pas la possibilité d'intégrer l'école pendant la colonisation. Ajoutons à cela l'aggravation de l'inégalité régionale dans le secteur de l'éducation, en raison de la concentration des écoles par le protectorat français dans les zones côtières à la défaveur des zones de l'intérieur pendant la colonisation, ainsi que la reconduction ultérieure de cette inégalité régionale (Ayachi, 2019). Jusqu'à nos jours, le contraste reste flagrant entre les régions côtières et intérieures, comme l'illustre la carte ci-dessous.

Par ailleurs, les enfants tunisiens scolarisés (même en nombre réduit) vont être acteurs de changement. Le phénomène d'acculturation (remplacement d'une culture par une autre) des jeunes tunisiens a nourri un esprit critique et un mouvement d'émancipation de leurs consciences. Habib Bourguiba, acteur principal du mouvement d'indépendance et premier président de la République Tunisienne, reprendra la célèbre phrase de Kateb Yacine : *« La langue française est notre butin de guerre »* (Le Monde, 2012). Un propos qui nous remet au cœur d'un débat interculturel toujours d'actualité.

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L'après-indépendance

Après l'indépendance, la généralisation et l'amélioration du système éducatif tunisien deviennent une priorité de l'état. Les élèves tunisiens ont droit à une éducation gratuite et obligatoire jusqu'à un certain âge. La réforme de Mahmoud Messadi en 1958, a insisté sur l'esprit d'ouverture sur l'Autre en adoptant les valeurs de la Renaissance européenne et des Lumières

« Etat souverain, la Tunisie a annoncé les grandes orientations de la réforme du système éducatif en 1958. Le référentiel retenu est en parfaite adéquation avec le référentiel culturel constitué depuis le XIXe siècle d'une Tunisie ouverte sur le patrimoine universel » (Ministère de l'éducation, 2016, 27).

L'école sera un véritable ascenseur social qui permet à la classe moyenne et pauvre de réaliser des changements de cap de leurs conditions sociales et économiques. Et comme le précise Mokhtar Ayachi, ce rôle joué par l'école s'oppose à la thèse de Bourdieu et de l'école sociologique française[22], puisqu'en Tunisie l'institution scolaire a été le principal facteur de transformation et promotion sociale et non un facteur de reproduction de la société elle-même. L'école tunisienne a largement contribué à transformer la société et à assurer une massification de l'enseignement.

Deux autres réformes ont suivi en 1991 et en 2002 (modifiée en 2008), ainsi qu' un projet de réforme en 2016. *« Les réformes de 1991 et 2002 stipulent la nécessité d'avancer vers une pédagogie de l'autonomie, de la communication et du respect mutuel des différences »* (Bahloul, 1997, 31). Beaucoup d'espoir a été placé dans ces réformes afin de renouer avec le principe de l'école comme lieu de formation du citoyen de demain éclairé et ouvert sur les valeurs universelles, qui garantit l'égalité des chances entre tunisiens. *« Il s'agit plus précisément de combattre, par le biais de l'école, toutes les formes d'intégrisme et de prémunir ainsi la société tunisienne contre les projets passéistes, le plus souvent générateurs de fanatisme et d'obscurantisme »* (Mahjoubi, 2010).

Mais ces grands espoirs ont échoué sur les récifs d'une réalité amère et de la désorientation stratégique du Ministère qui n'a pas réussi à les atteindre le but qu'il s'était fixé. Ainsi, *« malgré les ambitions déclarées de ces réformes, les résultats n'ont pas été à la hauteur des objectifs escomptés »* (Ministère de l'éducation 2016, 28).

Après la révolution de 2011, l'échec du système éducatif a été mis en avant dans la mesure où parmi les jeunes scolarisés, il y a eu un grand taux de décrochage scolaire et un penchant à l'intégrisme religieux, et des milliers de jeunes se sont vus expédiés en Iraq ou en Syrie. Il était donc urgent de mettre en place une nouvelle réforme.

Une réflexion collaborative entre le Ministère, le syndicat et l'Institut Arabe des droits de l'homme pour penser autrement l'école, lancée en 2015, s'appuie sur un ensemble de références juridiques que renferme la Constitution de l'après-révolution de 2014 (Lucenti, 2017, 224). Parmi ces références, nous pouvons citer les articles 42, 47 et 48 qui mettent l'accent sur les valeurs de la tolérance, de l'acceptation de la diversité et de l'inclusion.

Mais la réforme qui aurait été lancée en 2016 est restée en statu quo dans les tiroirs du ministère, et l'école tunisienne et la qualité de l'enseignement ont connu une détérioration accélérée. L'absence de réformes structurelles a élargi la parité entre les régions côtières et intérieures, entre genres (hommes et femmes), entre ethnies contribuant à une crise de la représentation de l'autre (de cultures différentes, de couleurs de peau différentes, et de religions différentes).

Selon le rapport d'OXFAM (2019), depuis la Révolution de 2011, *« les inégalités n'ont cessé d'augmenter, notamment aux dépens des plus vulnérables et des plus démunis »*.

Nous proposons de voir plus en détail cette crise de représentation et les timides tentatives pour y remédier dans la partie suivante.

2.2   L'interculturalité face aux diversités et le défi des inégalités

En Tunisie, à la fin du XXe siècle et au début du XXIe siècle, la diversité (entendue au sens socioculturel, régional et ethnique) se mue en divergences handicapantes imposant des défis importants. Selon le rapport d'OXFAM, la Tunisie *« reste aujourd'hui confrontée à des inégalités profondes qui traversent l'ensemble de la société et alimentent des clivages toujours plus importants entre les régions, les personnes selon leur richesse et revenu, et les genres »* (OXFAM, 2021).

Entre régions

Selon le rapport de l'UNICEF (2020), plus de 95 % des enfants des milieux les plus riches fréquentent le lycée, contre moins de deux tiers pour les enfants des milieux pauvres. Selon le rapport de la Friedrich Ebert Stiftung (2018), les inégalités des chances se sont accentuées avec le développement de l'enseignement privé et la détérioration de la qualité de l'enseignement public. Cette inégalité serait un lourd héritage de la période coloniale auquel les efforts de l'Etat n'ont pas pu remédier.

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22   Dans *Les Héritiers* de Pierre Bourdieu et Jean-Claude Passeron (1964), l'école est représentée comme instance de reproduction des inégalités sociales.

Les distances parcourues pour atteindre l'école varient nettement entre un élève au Nord ou près de la côte qu'un élève dans les régions du Nord-ouest ou du Centre-est où la proportion des élèves parcourant plus de 3 km peut atteindre jusqu'à 32 %, comme à Siliana, contre 1 km à Monastir. Ces distances parcourues se font dans la majorité des cas à pied, et l'élève est exposé à divers obstacles sur le chemin. Le taux de redoublement s'élève à 12,1 % à Kasserine contre 3,1 à Tunis. Par conséquent, le taux de décrochage scolaire dès le primaire est plus élevé dans les régions de l'intérieur. Le taux de réussite le plus élevé a été enregistré à Sfax (région côtière) avec 55 %, alors que celui de Kasserine, Gafsa et Kébili (régions de l'intérieur) n'excède pas les 25 %. Ainsi comme le signale pertinemment le rapport de la Friedrich Ebert Stiftung en Tunisie, l'égalité des chances en éducation est devenue un mythe.

Le racisme

En Tunisie, la discrimination raciale, après trois siècles d'abolition de l'esclavage [23], fait encore des victimes dans les milieux scolaire et universitaire [24]. Prenons l'exemple de l'école de Sidi Makhlouf à Médenine, qui inclut des groupes d'élèves au teint de peau foncé (du village de Gosba, de culture noire-africaine) [25] et des groupes d'élèves à la peau plus claire (du village de Drouj), sans aucune interaction entre eux, dans l'école ou ailleurs (un bus pour les « Noirs », un autre pour les « Blancs »).[26]

L'interculturalité est un concept qui n'a pas été développé pour autant pendant les dernières années dans les milieux éducatifs en Tunisie. Certains enseignants tunisiens commencent à dépasser la division usuelle entre « notre » culture [27] et les cultures « autres » en utilisant des pratiques scolaires diversifiées et en contestant le « monoculturalisme » dans le but de développer des compétences de communication plus efficaces. Cette approche de l'éducation interculturelle s'avère, en effet, un moyen pour combattre la discrimination raciale et promouvoir l'acceptation de la diversité (Sayad, 1994).

Minorityrights (2020) a publié un rapport qui dresse un bilan alarmant sur la situation des groupes sujets à des discriminations. En janvier 2019, l'affaire Ahmed Trabelsi, instituteur de couleur noire ayant été victime de propos racistes de la part d'une parente a secoué l'opinion publique en remettant la question du racisme au premier plan. Mais ce n'est qu'un exemple parmi tant d'autres.

Entre déni et banalisation, le racisme devient un fléau qui frappe de plein fouet les milieux scolaires.

Diversité religieuse

Le système éducatif tunisien a été pour plusieurs décennies la fierté de la Tunisie moderne qui tend vers la laïcité sans pour autant être laïque. Mais après la Révolution de 2011, le pullulement des écoles coraniques avec ou sans l'autorisation du ministère, menace la ligne stratégique des politiques éducatives. Ces écoles prônent la séparation entre filles et garçons, ne suivent pas les programmes nationaux et donnent des enseignements basés sur l'éducation islamique et incitent à l'extrémisme et au radicalisme. L'affaire de l'école coranique de Regueb [28] n'est qu'un exemple parmi d'autres.

C'est d'ailleurs pourquoi l'inauguration officielle d'une école juive pour filles [29] à Djerba (Kapitalis, 2019), a suscité beaucoup de débats dans un pays qui se vante de la laïcité et de l'égalité entre les sexes. Ces débats ne portaient pas sur la religion [30] mais sur la question de la séparation entre filles et garçons dans la mesure où cela

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23 Decret Becal promulgué le 23 janvier 1846.

24 Grâce à la pression de la société civile, une loi historique a été votée (à savoir la loi 50 de 2018), qui définit la discrimination raciale comme suit: « Toute distinction, exclusion, restriction ou préférence, fondée sur la race, la couleur, l'ascendance ou l'origine nationale ou ethnique ou toute autre forme de discrimination raciale au sens des conventions internationales ratifiées, qui a pour effet d'empêcher, d'entraver ou de priver la victime de la jouissance ou l'exercice de ses droits et libertés sur la base de l'égalité, ou qui lui impose des devoirs et des charges supplémentaires ». La loi interdit et sanctionne la discrimination raciale fondée sur la race, la couleur, l'ascendance ou l'origine nationale ou ethnique ou toute autre forme de discrimination raciale au sens des conventions internationales.

25 Le long-métrage Abid Ghbonten (2013) du jeune réalisateur tunisien Ramzi Béjaouiune est une mémoire pour l'oubli. Le réalisateur a orienté sa caméra sur Abid Ghbonten, une communauté opprimée et sans considération citoyenne, malgré sa contribution à l'indépendance de la Tunisie.

26 Consulté sur : https://www.senenews.com/actualites/lapartheid-a-gosba-une-honte-pour-la-tunisie-revolutionnaire-maha-abdelhamid_119372.html.

27 Le terme fait référence au concept de monoculture tel que défini par Marie-Dominique Venel Guignard : « Quand un individu particulier pense à lui et à sa relation aux autres, il n'est pas rare que prédominent la logique monoculturelle, l'ethnocentrisme et le sociocentrisme qui alimentent la xénophobie et le racisme » (2012, 73).

28 Une école inculquant des préceptes religieux à des garçons en bas âge dans un lieu confiné, sans se conformer aux programmes éducatifs officiels. Des abus sexuels ont été également découverts au sein de cette école.

29 S'étalant sur une superficie de 1300 m², cet établissement baptisé Kanfé Yona dispose d'une capacité d'accueil de 120 filles.

30 Le judaïsme est la 3e religion du pays avec 1500 fidèles. Un tiers de la population juive vit dans la capitale et aux alentours de celle-ci. Le reste vit sur l'île de Djerba où la communauté juive s'est installée il y a 2 500 ans.

légitimerait les appels des écoles coraniques à la séparation sur la base du genre. L'ouverture d'une école juive pour filles justifierait également selon certains l'ouverture d'écoles islamiques pour filles.

Par ailleurs, il est parfaitement intéressant de signaler que les communautés juives et chrétiennes ont toujours eu leurs écoles et leurs propres programmes, et cela a toujours été parfaitement accepté par la population et les autorités.[31] L'Ecole des sœurs (implantée dans plusieurs régions de la Tunisie) attirait et attire encore la communauté tunisienne musulmane, l'intérêt de cette intégration étant principalement l'apprentissage de la langue française, les élèves musulmans étant libres de ne pas suivre les cours de religion.

Néanmoins, la question de la diversité religieuse et du respect des différentes religions ne fait pas partie des politiques éducatives, et cette question n'apparait pas dans les manuels scolaires du primaire.

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31   Selon le rapport du gouvernement tunisien, le pays compte environ 20 000 catholiques, dont 2 500 pratiquants. L'église catholique gère 12 églises, neuf écoles, plusieurs bibliothèques et deux dispensaires. Le pays compte environ 2 000 protestants pratiquants, dont quelques centaines sont des convertis. *« Cadre juridique et politiques publiques »* ; Consulté sur https://2009-2017.state.gov/documents/organization/132783.pdf.

3. Stratégies éducatives en Tunisie pour une éducation interculturelle

3.1 La compétence n°8 : Gérer la diversité des élèves

Parmi les 12 compétences de base de l'enseignant du primaire, nous retrouvons dans le domaine 2 de l'activité professionnelle : Enseignement / apprentissage un ensemble de compétences dont la compétence n°8 (C8) : Gérer la diversité des élèves.

Il est primordial, dans une approche interculturelle, d'accorder une attention particulière aux compétences interculturelles que devrait acquérir un enseignant pour une meilleure prise en compte de l'expérience culturelle et sociale vécue par les élèves. De la sorte il serait capable d'identifier leurs besoins spécifiques en termes d'apprentissage. Ce que ce nouveau curriculum met en avant en espérant sa mise en pratique très prochaine par le Ministère de l'éducation. *En fine*,

> « la réussite de l'éducation interculturelle passe par un élargissement considérable du rôle et des missions des enseignants. Ils ne peuvent plus être de simples 'passeurs des connaissances dans une discipline', mais doivent remplir une fonction de guide pour favoriser le développement personnel et l'interaction positive. » (Conseil de L'Europe, 2007).

Domaine 2 : Domaine d'Enseignement/ apprentissage Compétence C8 –Gérer la diversité des élèves			
Situations professionnelles	**Composantes de compétence**	**Indicateurs**	**Critères**
Toutes les situations professionnelles en classe et hors classe dont : ▪ gestion de la classe ▪ travail de groupes ▪ gestion des conflits ▪ gestion des apprentissages ▪ projets collectifs ▪ conception et élaboration d'évaluations diagnostique et formative ▪ organisation des apprentissages diversifiés	Mettre en place une pédagogie différenciée en fonction de l'hétérogénéité du groupe classe à partir d'une évaluation diagnostique	▪ Il individualise les activités et les tâches ▪ Il tient compte des rythmes variés des apprentissages ▪ Il varie les formes de différenciation ▪ Il décèle les difficultés d'apprentissages et les signes de décrochage scolaire ▪ Repérer les intelligences multiples des élèves et les valoriser	▪ Aisance communicative ▪ Efficacité ▪ Efficience ▪ Cohérence ▪ Adéquation ▪ Flexibilité ▪ Il adapte contenus, rythmes et activités aux besoins des élèves

Tableau 1 : Référentiel des compétences, 2017/2018 (Ministère de l'éducation, 2016; UNICEF 2020)

3.2   Le référentiel des compétences

Le Ministère a opté pour l'intégration dans les manuels de modules qui ont pour thèmes le respect de la différence et de l'acceptation de l'autre. Communiquer dans une langue étrangère permet d'appréhender la culture que véhicule cette langue et c'est cette communication interculturelle qui permet in fine un meilleur apprentissage de cette langue étrangère. Prenons le cas de la langue française et des manuels de français au primaire.

En survolant les manuels (de la 3e année à la 6e année de base), on s'aperçoit que la dimension interculturelle est présente, comme le montre le tableau ci-dessous :

Niveau	Modules	Supports
3ème année de base	12 : Les cadeaux	1. Anniversaire d'Amadou le sénégalais
	13 : Veux-tu m'aider?	1. Les nouveaux voisins: texte qui attire l'attention sur l'intégration de Julien qui souffre d'un handicape physique. 2. De bons amis: texte qui met l'accent sur l'échange entre cinq amis dont Julien et Amadou
4ème année de base	3 : Sois mon ami	1. L'homme qui te ressemble : poème de René Philombe
5ème année de base	2 : Apprenons à vivre ensemble	1. Amitié: poème de Michelle Daufresne 2. La force de l'union: poème de E.C Moreau 3. Violetta: texte de Achmy Halley qui raconte l'intégration d'une fille cubaine dans une école en France 4. Déclaration des droits de l'enfant
	6 : Découvrons d'autres pays	1. Le tour du monde de Dagobert: texte d'après Zidrou qui raconte la rencontre de Dagobert avec Abdou au Sénégal 2. Lettres et cartes postales
6ème année de base	2 : communiquer avec les autres	Plusieurs supports se rapportant aux différents moyens de communication
	3 : accepter les autres	1. Tous différents et tous ensemble : des extraits portant sur le respect de la différence, des opinions et des enfants 2. L'homme et le chien (poème) et LE bon compagnon (texte) attire l'attention sur la handicape de la cécité
	8 : découvrir d'autres modes de vie	Plusieurs textes et extraits portant sur la découverte d'autres pays et d'autres cultures

Tableau 2 : Tableau récapitulatif des modules portant sur la diversité culturelle dans les manuels de français au primaire (Ministère de l'éducation, 2007).

Les supports textuels sont accompagnés d'illustrations en couleur pour mieux cibler cette question de diversité (voir les annexes). Mais somme toute, les manuels ne comprennent pas suffisamment de supports sur la question centrale de l'interculturalité. Ces modules permettent-ils une prise de conscience chez l'apprenant du concept de la différence, du respect de l'autre et de la tolérance ? Est-ce que les enseignants sont suffisamment alertés sur la question pour sensibiliser les apprenants ? C'est alors que nous rejoignons Mosbeh Said qui se demande si *« cela suffit […]pour garantir l'incarnation de ces contenus[.]Le dépouillement des manuels à la recherche des manières dont les contenus sont introduits va dans le sens d'une réponse négative tant que le profil de l'apprenant n'est pas pris en compte à plusieurs égards »* (Saïd, 2012, 479).

Il est clair que la question des manuels nécessite une profonde réflexion et des enquêtes approfondies pour évaluer la pertinence du contenu des modules dans une démarche qui favorise un apprentissage interculturel.

3.3   Le e-Twinning

Le programme *« eTwinning »* lancé en 2005 en tant qu'action principale du programme « Apprendre en ligne » de la Commission européenne remplace *Erasmus+*. Ce projet offre aux enseignants ainsi qu'aux élèves des 44 pays inscrits[32] une plateforme sécurisée qui leur donne la possibilité de travailler ensemble à distance de manière interdisciplinaire en utilisant les technologies de l'information et de la communication (TIC) et les outils de « web 2.0 » et en bénéficiant d'un haut niveau de soutien. En outre, cette action donne aux enseignants inscrits sur la plateforme des formations continues un e-training et des workshops, et améliore également la qualité de la communication ainsi que l'esprit collaboratif chez les élèves.

Quant à la Tunisie, on ne parle plus du *« eTwinning »* mais plutôt du *« eTwinning Plus »*[33]. Cette action a été adoptée par le Ministère de l'éducation, en 2013. Actuellement, le nombre d'établissements scolaires inscrits est de 250, sans compter environ 600 enseignants et divers projets menés à bien par des « e-twinneurs » tunisiens. Selon le CNTE, le but de l'adaptation de cette action en Tunisie est *« l'élaboration de projets collaboratifs et coopératifs entre nos établissements scolaires et les établissements de la communauté européenne ».* Il est évident qu'une telle action en Tunisie engage et

motive les élèves tunisiens et encourage les enseignants à effectuer des projets avec des enseignants de pays différents. Des interactions interculturelles seront produites lorsque des cultures différentes entrent en contact, donnant ainsi la chance à l'élève tunisien de découvrir autrui, ses traditions, sa culture et favorise le « vivre-ensemble ».

4.   Diversite culturelle et pedagogique en Suisse

4.1   L'émergence de la diversité culturelle dans les écoles suisses

Dans le discours actuel sur les questions liées à l'éducation en Suisse, la diversité occupe une place centrale, aux côtés de la numérisation et de l'approche par compétences. L'aperçu suivant vise à mettre en évidence certains aspects de la diversité culturelle dans le système éducatif suisse (d'autres aspects de la diversité, tels que les fonctions cognitives et l'inclusion des enfants ayant des difficultés d'apprentissage, ne sont pas abordés ici). Je citerai des sources publiées ainsi qu'une petite enquête qualitative qui accompagne cette recherche.[34]

Les quatre langues nationales de la Suisse sont soulignées à plusieurs reprises comme une particularité, mais elles sont moins problématiques en termes de diversité culturelle. Chaque région linguistique suit son propre programme, et en plus de l'anglais, tous les élèves apprennent au cours de leur éducation au moins une deuxième langue nationale. Pour parler de diversité culturelle dans le contexte du système éducatif suisse, nous avons pris l'exemple d'une école de la banlieue de Zurich en 2016.[35] L'une de ses classes se composait de 21 enfants parlant au total 12 langues : albanais, serbe, croate, tigrinya, somalien, turc, anglais, chinois, différentes langues du Nigeria et du Kenya, arabe et allemand. Aucun de ces élèves ne vivait dans une famille dont les deux parents parlaient un dialecte suisse. Les familles appartenaient à différentes religions : le christianisme (orthodoxe et protestant), l'islam, les Témoins de Jéhovah et le bouddhisme, qu'elles pratiquaient plus ou moins assidûment. Certaines familles n'avaient pas

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32   Les pays participants à l'eTwinning et à l'eTwinning Plus.

33   La même action mais pour les pays voisins, y compris La Tunisie.

34   Un document comprenant 12 questions concernant le multiculturalisme et la manière dont il est abordé à l'école et dans les classes a été envoyé en février 2021 à une cinquantaine d'enseignants du canton de Zurich. Fin mars 2021, treize personnes avaient renvoyé leurs réponses. Bien que ce nombre soit loin d'être représentatif, ces réponses nous donnent une idée des tendances.

35   J'ai enseigné en 2016 à cette classe le sujet Sciences, religions, cultures et éthique.

de religion particulière. Cinq enfants étaient issus de familles de réfugiés et quatorze de familles immigrées, mais tous étaient nés en Suisse, tandis que leurs parents étaient arrivés en Suisse à un moment ou à un autre de leur vie. Deux élèves avaient des parents expatriés, c'est-à-dire envoyés à l'étranger pour une durée limitée par leurs employeurs. Seul un seul enfant appartenait à une famille ayant vécu en Suisse depuis deux générations ou plus et parlait un dialecte suisse. Zurich étant la plus grande ville de Suisse, la situation n'est peut-être pas représentative de tout le pays. Ainsi, vous trouverez peut-être des classes plus homogènes dans les zones rurales du Canton de Zurich, mais aussi sur les rives des lacs, des quartiers généralement plus huppés. Mais dans les zones urbaines suisses comme celles de Bâle, Genève, Lausanne ou Berne, une classe comme celle-ci est un défi réel.

Une véritable diversité culturelle a commencé à naître au milieu du 20e siècle. Les travailleurs étrangers des pays du Sud de l'Europe, autorisés à s'installer dans les années 60 et 70, n'ont pas entraîné de profonds changements dans le système scolaire. Ils n'étaient pas autorisés à amener leur famille avec eux, et en outre, les autorités suisses et de nombreux migrants eux-mêmes pensaient qu'ils ne resteraient que temporairement. La situation n'a changé qu'avec les vagues de réfugiés arrivant en Suisse suite à la guerre des Balkans des années 90. Leur nombre a nécessité une réaction. À peu près au même moment, la crise en Somalie a amené des réfugiés de ce pays en Europe. À la fin des années 90 ont suivi les réfugiés de la guerre entre l'Érythrée et l'Éthiopie, et plus récemment, le conflit syrien ayant débuté en 2011 a entraîné un nouveau flux de réfugiés vers l'Europe, qui a atteint son apogée en 2015.

Ces développements internationaux survenus à compter des années 90 a entraîné l'arrivée d'un grand nombre d'enfants qui ne connaissaient pas suffisamment la langue parlée à l'école pour suivre les matières sans soutien supplémentaire.[36] La langue est donc l'aspect le plus frappant de la diversité culturelle dans le système scolaire suisse. Le premier classement PISA en l'an 2000 l'a montré très clairement, et a créé une onde de choc dans un pays qui pensait avoir un excellent système éducatif. Au total, 20 % des élèves sortant de l'école obligatoire montraient des compétences en lecture insuffisantes. En 2004, la Conférence suisse des directeurs de l'instruction a adopté une stratégie linguistique commune pour promouvoir l'apprentissage des langues et la sensibilisation aux langues basée sur le cadre de référence européen. Les années suivantes, une stratégie et un

plan d'action ont été lancés. Pour coordonner le travail des différentes autorités, la loi sur les langues est entrée en vigueur en 2007 (Grossenbacher & Vögeli-Mantovani, 2010). Pour développer des méthodes efficaces, le Programme national de recherche 56 « Sprachenvielfalt und Sprachkompetenz in der Schweiz » a mis sur pied le fondement scientifique de l'action politique concernant la diversité des langues. En dehors des quatre langues nationales et de leurs stratégies d'enseignement, l'accent a été mis sur la situation plurilinguistique des citoyens et des élèves, ainsi que sur la question de la langue et de l'identité. Bon nombre des rapports finaux portaient sur la situation concrète dans les écoles et ont servi de base à la mise en œuvre de nouvelles stratégies (SNF, 2010).

Certains chiffres peuvent nous aider à mieux saisir les enjeux : 90 % des élèves vont à l'école publique. Un tiers n'ont pas la nationalité suisse. Près de la moitié des enfants de moins de 15 ans entendent parler plus d'une langue à domicile, 10 % sont confrontés à l'apprentissage de trois langues différentes. Outre les quatre langues nationales, les langues les plus parlées par les élèves sont l'anglais (7,5 %) et l'albanais (6,7 %), suivis du portugais et de l'espagnol (4,9 % chacun) (BFS, 2020).

4.2   Stratégies de gestion de la diversité

La diversité occasionnée par les flux migratoires a eu des effets importants sur le système scolaire. Les trois sections suivantes montrent l'étendue de l'impact des mesures prises.

4.3   Soutien linguistique

L'égalité des chances est mentionnée tout au début de la Constitution fédérale suisse. De plus, l'objectif de la Constitution est de garantir un cadre juridique permettant de promouvoir l'égalité des chances pour tous les citoyens *(Schulnetz21, 2022)*.

L'administration du système éducatif durant la période d'enseignement obligatoire incombe aux cantons, et chaque canton a son propre système et sa propre stratégie pour faire face aux problèmes et mettre en œuvre les lois fédérales. Nous axons notre présente réflexion sur le canton de Zurich, qui fait face, comme nous l'avons vu plus haut, à une diversité très importante. En 1999, le projet QUIMS (Quality In Multicultural Schools) a été lancé. QUIMS prend diverses mesures pour aider les écoles à améliorer l'égalité des chances en matière

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36 Cet article concerne principalement la Suisse alémanique, mais la situation dans les régions francophones et italophones sont semblables.

d'éducation pour tous les élèves. Il est par la suite devenu un programme permanent pour les écoles de composition pluriethnique notable (40 % ou plus) (QUIMS, 2022). Les écoles reçoivent un budget supplémentaire pour implémenter des mesures dans trois domaines de soutien : compétences linguistiques, réussite scolaire et insertion. Chaque école décide de ce qui est le plus important dans son cas *(QUIMS, 2022)*.

En plus du programme QUIMS, le canton de Zurich soutient les élèves non germanophones d'origine par le biais du programme « Allemand seconde langue ». Ces cours commencent au jardin d'enfants. Chaque école doit collecter des données sur le niveau d'allemand standard de chaque élève. Selon cette enquête, des ressources supplémentaires pour le soutien linguistique sont fournies (Bildungsdirektion Kanton Zürich, 2022a). La plupart des interventions financées par QUIMS sont axées sur le langage (QUIMS, 2022), et impliquent presque toujours l'amélioration des capacités linguistiques insuffisantes. Quasiment aucun projet ne travaille sur la diversité (linguistique) comme source d'enrichissement.

En plus de ces programmes, la plupart des cantons proposent des « cours dans la langue du pays d'origine » pour ceux qui le souhaitent. Zurich propose 27 langues (Bildungsdirektion Kanton Zürich, 2022b). Ces cours partent du principe éprouvé qu'une personne apprend plus facilement une deuxième ou une troisième langue lorsque le vocabulaire et l'expression linguistique sont maîtrisés en toute confiance dans la première langue (idem). Ils sont axés sur l'interdépendance entre la langue et la culture (Abdallah-Preceille, 1999), visent à renforcer la formation identitaire et contribuent ainsi à une bonne intégration. Ceux qui ont une bonne confiance en eux sont plus à même d'accepter la diversité et de traiter avec respect les personnes d'autres origines que la leur.

Promouvoir l'égalité des chances

En Suisse, les parents ont l'habitude d'envoyer leurs enfants à l'école publique et de penser que l'école publique est le lieu où est façonnée la société de demain. De plus, les familles riches préfèrent souvent l'école publique (appelée *Volksschule*, l'école du peuple). Cette *Volksschule* est gratuite pendant les neuf années d'instruction obligatoire, et elle est ouverte à tous. Si le chemin de l'école est trop long pour que les enfants puissent s'y rendre à pied, des autobus scolaires ou taxis sont fournis. En surface, il ne semble donc pas y avoir de désavantages sociaux évidents dans le système scolaire suisse, et tout le monde semble bénéficier des mêmes chances. Mais un examen plus rapproché montre qu'il existe des

différences mineures. L'une d'elles concerne les écoles secondaires. Un problème soulevé depuis des années critiquées mais non résolu : le fait que la réussite au collège/lycée est toujours liée à l'éducation et à l'origine sociale des parents, pour les enfants issus de l'immigration comme pour les autres (Scherrer, 2018). Ainsi, malgré le soutien linguistique offert à partir de la maternelle, nous n'avons pas encore atteint l'égalité des chances. Ce désavantage n'est pas seulement lié à la langue mais à l'éducation générale des parents et à leur statut socio-économique (Truninger, 2018). Étant donné que de nombreux migrants ont tendance à avoir un statut socio-économique inférieur, il est deux fois plus difficile pour leurs enfants de réussir à l'école. Une tentative innovante pour résoudre ce problème a été lancée par une école privée sous le nom de ChagALL (ChagALL, s.d.) Les adolescents issus de l'immigration reçoivent de l'aide pour gagner en efficacité afin de terminer leur éducation secondaire et de faire des études supérieures. Les écoles secondaires publiques ont également reconnu la nécessité d'agir et tentent divers programmes promouvant l'égalité des chances *(Huber, 2021)*.

4.4 La question de la diversité religieuse et de son enseignement

Dans le contexte de la classe susmentionnée, la diversité culturelle renvoie également à la diversité des religions. La Constitution fédérale suisse établit également à cet égard le cadre juridique. La liberté de pratiquer sa religion doit être garantie, et (fait important dans le contexte scolaire) personne ne peut être contraint d'exercer des pratiques religieuses (Schweizerische Eidgenossenschaft, 2000). La diversité religieuse, comme nous le verrons par la suite, n'est pas toujours entendue de la même manière. Mais en général, l'appartenance religieuse n'entraîne pas de désavantages en matière d'éducation. L'école publique est fréquentée par des enfants de toutes religions. L'année scolaire suisse suit, tout comme le service public et la plus grande partie des entreprises, le calendrier chrétien et ses jours fériés. Chaque enfant peut manquer l'école pour ses fêtes religieuses, définies par le canton de Zurich pour les principales religions (Bildungsdirektion Kanton Zürich, 2020). Les questions soulevées autour des repas servis durant les sorties scolaires ou des tenues adaptées pour le cours de natation sont donc en grande partie facilement résolus. Les médias relatent parfois certaines histoires isolées, comme celle d'un élève qui avait refusé de serrer la main de son enseignante. Mais ces cas sont négligeables, comparés par exemple au nombre d'élèves qui ont besoin d'un soutien linguistique. Les médias ont tendance à exagérer ces cas. Plus problématique est le fait que les actes d'in-

tolérance et de violence qui se produisent dans les écoles sont souvent attribués à la religion au lieu de circonstances socio-économiques difficiles[37] *(Fontan, 2017).*

Une diversité religieuse croissante ainsi qu'une laïcité croissante ont eu un impact sur le programme d'études. Le sujet « Éthique, Religions, Communauté » a été introduit dans le programme Lehrplan 21 (Deutschschweizer Erziehungsdirektoren-Konferenz ou D-EDK, s.d.) introduit respectivement en 2017 dans le Plan d'études romand (2011–14) en Suisse romande (Conférence intercantonale de l'instruction publique de la Suisse romande et du Tessin ou CIIP, s.d.) et dans le *piano di studio* dans les régions italophones (Bildungsdirektion des Kantons Zürich, s.d.). Cette matière vise à renforcer les compétences interculturelles et est clairement définie comme l'apprentissage de différentes religions dans le sens d'études religieuses. Plus tôt, une matière appelée « Histoires bibliques », initialement basée sur les croyances chrétiennes, s'est lentement élargie pour inclure certains aspects d'autres religions. Les étudiants pouvaient être exemptés de cette matière. La nouvelle matière est obligatoire pour tout le monde. Le programme décrit dans cinq domaines les compétences nécessaires pour envisager d'autres religions et visions du monde avec respect. Elle étudie également les normes et valeurs liées à ces religions et la manière dont elles reflètent un certain vécu existentiel *(Bildungsdirektion des Kantons Zürich, s.d.).*

Plus précisément, les élèves examinent les phénomènes de leur monde quotidien : les drapeaux de prière sur un balcon, le son des cloches de l'église, les festivals comme Hanoukka ou le Vesak, les livres saints et les moments spéciaux comme le shabbat ou le Ramadan. Les élèves plus âgés approfondiront les concepts et les histoires des religions présentes dans la société suisse aujourd'hui. Des supports pédagogiques spéciaux ont été développés à Zurich pour cette nouvelle forme d'apprentissage de l'identité culturelle et religieuse. Ils sont aujourd'hui utilisés dans divers cantons. Il est difficile de savoir si les élèves développent les compétences interculturelles visées, car leur application concrète est difficile à mesurer. Mais une leçon peut parfois être une occasion pour un enfant de montrer ce qu'il a appris. Cela nous ramène à la classe mentionnée plus haut. L'enseignant avait raconté l'histoire de la Passion du Christ et demandé à des groupes d'élèves de mettre les illustrations de l'histoire dans l'ordre. Un garçon a ri de la représentation de Jésus sur la croix. L'un des garçons

musulmans lui a dit : « Tu sais, c'est une histoire très importante pour les chrétiens, il ne faut pas en rire. » Cet enfant de huit ans avait appris à recalibrer son propre point de vue et a trouvé les mots pour un exemple parfait de communication interculturelle réussie.

En plus du très concret « Éthique, Religions, Communauté », la diversité culturelle et les compétences interculturelles sont enseignées dans le cadre du principe directeur de « développement durable » du Lehrplan 21 (BNE, 2017). Les défis liés à la diversité font partie de la formation des enseignants, et de nombreuses informations utiles aux enseignants sont disponibles. Mais étonnamment, la formation à la diversité n'a pas encore eu l'impact que l'on espérait dans l'enseignement quotidien, en dépit de la diversité des élèves. Dans le cadre de l'enquête produite pour cette étude, on a demandé aux enseignants participant s'ils faisaient une part à la diversité dans leur enseignement. La plupart a répondu par la négative.

4.5 « Ce qu'on veut qu'il soit »[38] : le fossé entre le programme et la réalité

Durant les 30 dernières années, la migration croissante a transformé les classes scolaires suisses en un lieu de vécu interculturel. Cependant, les enseignants sont encore un groupe de personnes assez homogène au point de vue ethnique. Cela avait déjà été noté en 1999 (Stadler, 1999), mais 20 ans plus tard, la situation n'a pas tellement changé. D'après le sondage accompagnant notre étude, il semblerait que les enseignants perçoivent leurs groupes de collègues comme étant beaucoup moins diversifiés que leurs élèves. De nombreux membres du personnel scolaire en Suisse alémanique vivent encore dans un contexte où le dialecte suisse est parlé au quotidien, façonné par la tradition chrétienne. Le cas suivant montre qu'il reste encore du chemin à faire pour arriver à l'apprentissage du vivre-ensemble.

Les concerts de l'Avent et festivals traditionnels sont maintenus avec enthousiasme dans de nombreuses écoles suisses. Et chaque année, certains cas suscitent l'indignation et font les gros titres. Le principal sujet de réclamation des élèves, majoritairement musulmans, porte sur le fait de devoir chanter des chansons de Noël (Schneeberger, 2020). Dans un cas, le chef d'établissement a annulé certaines chansons prévues au programme d'un concert de l'Avent, pour que l'événement convienne à toutes les cultures. D'une manière ou d'une autre, un courriel interne a été communiqué aux médias.

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37 Il existe quelques écoles privées plus ou moins religieuses. Mais toutes doivent suivre le programme général. Jusqu'à présent, les écoles religieuses sont uniquement chrétiennes ou juives. La création d'un jardin d'enfants musulman il y a quelques années n'a pas abouti.

38 Abdallah-Preteceille, 1999, 50.

Quelques heures plus tard seulement, le gouvernement du canton de Saint-Gall s'est penché sur la question de savoir si « les valeurs chrétiennes de la Suisse » étaient en danger. Des cas similaires surviennent chaque année. Il semblerait que pour certains, chanter des chants de Noël soit la principale manière de pratiquer les valeurs chrétiennes, et que ces valeurs ne peuvent être cultivées que si chaque enfant d'une école même multiculturelle y participe.

Dans une autre école multiculturelle connue de l'auteur, quelques garçons ont refusé de chanter certaines chansons pendant les préparatifs du chant traditionnel de l'Avent de l'école. L'enseignant leur a dit de chanter toutes les chansons ou de rester dans la classe à faire des tâches d'écriture. Cette solution n'est pas animée par le désir de changer de perspective. Il convient de noter que des familles non religieuses ou athées, et non pas que des familles musulmanes, s'opposent parfois à ce que leurs enfants chantent des chansons de Noël à l'école.

Comment la diversité culturelle sera-t-elle racontée dans les écoles suisses, quand les enfants issus de l'immigration d'aujourd'hui se retrouveront à la tête du personnel scolaire ou travailleront au sein de l'administration scolaire ?

5.   Conclusion

Pour conclure, il est important de noter que cet article se veut un modeste jalon dans la réflexion engagée par les chercheurs sur la question de la diversité et de l'éducation interculturelle dans une époque marquée par une ouverture croissante sur l'Autre.

Résultant d'un échange interculturel aussi fructueux qu'intense, ce travail nous a mises face à plusieurs défis liés à la langue, la culture, la distance, etc. et mettant à l'épreuve nos compétences interculturelles qui se sont vues aiguisées au fil de nos échanges. Accomplir ce travail n'a pas été sans difficultés, mais l'échange et la découverte mutuelle de nos contextes éducatifs respectifs regorgent de richesse et est en soi une expérience interculturelle fort intéressante.

Notre étude a porté sur la question de l'interculturalité dans le contexte éducatif de deux pays différents, la Tunisie et la Suisse. Il nous a semblé intéressant d'adopter une approche historique et analytique des politiques éducatives relatives à l'éducation interculturelle, comment elles ont été mises en place et les défis rencontrés liés à chaque contexte socioculturel spécifique. L'arrivée des colons en Tunisie et leur départ ainsi que l'arrivée des migrants en Suisse et leur séjour et intégration n'ont pas été sans impact sur les politiques éducatives respectives qui (portés par la même préoccupation du vivre ensemble) ont adopté des stratégies différentes sans pour autant être efficaces. Ce qui nous ramène à confirmer que *« les systèmes éducatifs contemporains sont confrontés à la diversité culturelle croissante des élèves et à la nécessité de changer de perspective pour l'aborder »* (Bauer et Akkari, 2015, 150).

Il en résulte, au terme de cette recherche, un constat important, à savoir que l'éducation interculturelle n'est pas un moyen pour mettre fin aux inégalités, mais vise plutôt à cibler et à favoriser l'apprentissage de l'égalité dans la réciprocité, afin d'éviter les préjugés inhérents à la diversité culturelle. Il va sans dire qu' *« aucun changement sociétal durable n'est possible sans une action adaptée qui place la compétence interculturelle au cœur de toute démarche éducative »* (Le Conseil de l'Europe, 2007, 27). L'éducation interculturelle est plus que nécessaire, elle est primordiale pour le développement d'une société plus inclusive et moins inégalitaire.

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Annexe I

Lire   Se documenter   Lire   Se documenter   Lire   Se documenter

Je lis pour m'informer et me documenter

Quelques fêtes à travers le monde

La fête des enfants au Japon

Au Japon, chaque année, on organise une grande fête en l'honneur des enfants de trois, cinq et sept ans (le Shichi-Go-San). Les enfants mettent, ce jour-là, le kimono traditionnel et se munissent chacun d'un sac en papier. Les parents achètent des jouets et des bonbons pour garnir ces sacs.
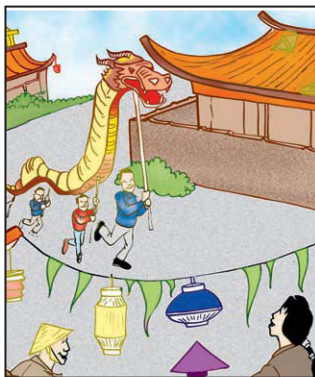
La fête du dragon en Chine

A l'occasion du nouvel an chinois, un dragon géant couvert de soie et de velours surgit en haut d'une rue, tourne et vire pour ouvrir un passage à travers la foule en délire. Ce dragon ouvre le défilé dans un bruit assourdissant de cymbales et de roulement de tambour. Après le passage du dragon, les vraies festivités commencent. En ce jour de nouvel an, les parents déposent au pied du lit des enfants, des petits dragons "porte-bonheur". Chaque nouvelle année porte le nom d'un animal : l'année du singe, l'année du coq...

Le carnaval de Rio au Brésil

Le carnaval le plus célèbre au monde est celui de Rio de Janeiro au Brésil. C'est une fête extraordinaire qui est très importante pour tous les Brésiliens qui passent des mois à mettre au point leurs danses et leurs costumes. A l'occasion du festival, les gens se déguisent et se couvrent le visage d'un masque. Dans les rues de la ville, défilent en cortège **les écoles de la Samba** dans des tenues plus belles les unes que les autres. Des mannequins géants sont promenés sur les chars fleuris. Tout le monde chante et danse la Samba jusqu'à l'aube.

* A ton tour, maintenant, de décrire une fête de chez nous

Module 8   **130**

Extrait 1 du manuel de lecture de la 6e année de l'enseignement de base (Source: Un pas de plus vers le collège (2020), Tunis, Centre national pédagogique, Ministère de l'éducation, p . 130)

Annexe II

Découvrir d'autres modes de vie

Module 8

Mon projet d'écriture

Je raconte un événement en rapport avec « d'autres modes de vie » et j'intègre un passage descriptif dans mon récit.

Mon contrat

Pour réaliser mon projet je vais

apprendre un poème
- Le vent a fait le tour du monde
  ou
- Une graine voyageait

lire les textes
- Le grand voyage
- Une sortie de classe au Canada
- L'île au trésor

me documenter sur les fêtes d'autres pays

confectionner une réplique miniature de la Tour Eiffel

utiliser un vocabulaire lié au thème "culture et découverte du monde"

apprendre à :

✦ utiliser le complément de manière
✦ conjuguer les verbes **pouvoir** et **vouloir** au présent
✦ accorder le participe passé.

Extrait 2 du manuel de lecture de la 6e année de l'enseignement de base Source: Un pas de plus vers le collège (2020), Tunis, Centre national pédagogique, Ministère de l'éducation, p. 170)

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Part III   The presence of life skills in pre-school education curriculum:
An analysis of academic training programmes in Egypt, Tunisia and Switzerland

13   The presence of life skills in pre-school education curriculum: An analysis of academic training programmes in Egypt, Tunisia and Switzerland

Rym Laribi
Higher Institute of Childhood Staff, University
of Carthage, Tunisia
laribi.rim@iscenf.u-carthage.tn

Adel Rasmy Hamad El-Nagdi
Faculty of education, Asyut University, Egypt
adel_alnagdy@yahoo.com

Judith Egloff
Zurich University of Teacher Education, Switzerland
judith.egloff@phzh.ch

Abstract:

Scientific research has shown that student teachers graduating with a preschool education (PE) degree need to acquire a set of life skills to provide educational opportunities. This skillset consists of problem-solving skills, reflection and critical thinking skills, innovation and creativity skills, self-management skills, communication skills and practical implementation of ideas and theories skills. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), the basic life skills curriculum offers young people the emotional, social and intellectual tools needed to achieve success in life. This paper presents a new approach that aims to identify the most important life skills (LF) for higher education students in early childhood education. More concretely, it tackles the presence of these life skills in the programme curricula of preschool educators in Egypt, Tunisia, and Switzerland, and determines the discrepancies in the inclusion of life skills within the relevant programmes.

Keywords:

- life skills

- preschool education

- preschool curriculum

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1.   Introduction

Life skills are considered one of the major factors enabling learners to adapt themselves to society, as well as to make them capable of assuming responsibilities and facing contemporary challenges. In fact, teaching students' life skills helps them face every recent change at a local and global level through mastering the basics of lifelong learning, effective communication and cooperation skills.

In addition, it helps them to acquire skills which will enable them to face everyday life situations and overcome their complications. In this sense, teaching life skills facilitates the practice, promotion and consolidation of psychological skills in an appropriate cultural and developmental way. At the same time, it contributes to the advancement of social and personal growth, precludes many health and social issues. (Khadija Bakhit, 2000, 127).

Taking into consideration the necessity and importance of the individual's knowledge of life skills in order to foster their role within the educational process, developing life skills has become an urgent necessity in training programmes for educators at the preschool stage.

The study is substantial, as it seeks to identify the skills which preschool educators need, as well as the role of the relevant skills within the educational curricula aimed at students in preschool education. As a result, the study contributes to carrying out the work of incorporating missing or lacking life skills within the educational curriculum.

2.   Research objectives

The importance of this study also lies in its response to UNESCO and UNICEF recommendations to include and teach life skills for learners at all levels of education: basic, secondary, and higher.

The main research questions for this study are:

- What are the main classifications for life skills?

- What are the major skills preschool educators are required to have?

- To what extent are these life skills present in higher education curricula for preschool educators in Tunisia, Egypt and Switzerland? And are there fundamental differences between the three curricula in terms of the life skills included?

- To what extent are these life skills present in professional competency references for preschool educators in Tunisia, Egypt and Switzerland? Are there crucial differences between the three curricula in terms of the life skills included?

In this regard, we propose the following as objectives for our study:

- Identify the most significant life skills which preschool educators need to have.

- Determine the role of the life skills needed for preschool educators in higher education curricula in Tunisia, Egypt and Switzerland.

- Identify the differences between the three curricula in terms of the life skills which are included.

3.   Theoretical framework

Various studies underline the importance of acquiring life skills for students at all levels of education. In "Improving Student Life Sockets Through Classroom Intervention and Integrated Learning" (1996), Orkin aims to develop a vision for the development of the necessary life skills for primary school pupils. These life skills shall enable them to perform their role in society as cooperative workers and effective communicators. In addition, Orkin's approach offers a programme to enhance the necessary skills for education and for living, including cooperation and perseverance, problem solving and friendship. Orkin has recommended three fundamental programmes to promote life skills:

1. introducing a comprehensive unit to teach pupils the key words for necessary life skills,

2. developing a programme which triggers the employment of life skills in the classroom and

3. establishing a plan to link life skills to the whole school.

Coffey (1988) presented a study which suggests methods of teaching some life skills to basic school pupils in order to help students live in such a way as to carry out their various roles as members of the family and society. The study also highlighted the need to provide the necessary financial and human capacity to implement the life skills programme, and training educators according to these programmes.

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Bakhit's study (2000) aims to determine the effectiveness of university-level courses in developing some life skills among university students from various disciplines and faculties. The results show the shortcomings of the examined courses in fostering the necessary life skills in students.

In his study, Mik (2001) examines the development of life skills in students in secondary schools. The study emphasizes the importance of acquiring life skills as a stepping-stone in consolidating knowledge in pupils through a specific programme. The results of the study have found significant progress in pupil performance in learning and knowledge acquisition through employing the life skills approach to develop these relevant skills.

Hamed (2003) examines the effectiveness of language activities (role-play activity, debate activity, journalism activity) in developing some skills (such as summarising, drafting reports, discussion and negotiation) in secondary school students in agricultural studies class. He deduced that the relevant activities are effective in developing some life skills for the students.

Abdel Razek Omar's study (2004) deals with measuring the effectiveness of a programme related to home economics in order to develop consumer awareness and a few life skills in a group of students at South Valley University in Qena, Egypt. The study under scrutiny confirms the effectiveness of the proposed programme in developing some life skills in the case group. It also underlines the importance of raising consumer awareness as well as the necessity of training students on a few consumer life skills, through family-oriented programmes.

Al-Hudaybi's study (2008) aims to establish a programme based on teaching standard Arabic as a foreign language and combine it with life skills development. The result shows the effectiveness of the programme in developing Arabic language communication and higher order thinking skills such as perception, reflection, insight and comparison and cultural awareness in the students under study.

Overall, the importance of life skills for students studying at different academic levels is clear, as they enable them to develop many other skills which help them adapt to the various challenges of life and interact with their community.

Life skills-oriented education can be provided at different levels of education, including preschool education. The purpose of early childhood education is to develop life skills that include attitudes, knowledge and creativity. The Report for the OECD (2015) argues that there is a correlation between early 'life skills' acquisition (focusing on measures before the age of six) and the level of educational attainment, employment, health and well-being. We believe that educators could aim their awareness toward this aspect of education and, as a result, we believe that educator training should concentrate on increasing their awareness of this aspect of education.

3.1   Identifying life skills

A very large number of organisations have sought to define and enrich the concept of life skills in order to determine a core set of life skills:

In fact, Abdel Muti and Doaa Mustafa (2008) have defined life skills as "a set of skills related to the environment in which the learner lives as well as the associated knowledge, attitudes and values that the learner acquire intentionally and systematically or unintentionally through practical activities and applications in order to build an integrated personality in a way that enables him to assume responsibility and interact with the everyday life demands" (18).

Al-Laqani and Ali Al-Jamal (1995) advocate that life skills are on the one hand the skills that help pupils adapt to their social environment, and focus on language development, food, dressing, ability to take responsibility, self-direction, domestic skills, economic activities and social interaction. On the other hand, life skills are "the set of personal abilities that give the learner self-confidence which enables him to assume responsibility, understand himself and others, deal with them wisely, accomplish the tasks assigned to him efficiently, and make the right decisions with a common-sense methodology" (230).

Another view is that of Sobhi (2006), who provides a similar perspective on life skills defining them as "a set of performances that help pupils interact adequately with everyday situations, provide them the necessary knowledge of life skills-oriented fields, and control the problems they face in their lives, society and environment. These skills include scientific and technological skills, environmental skills and survival skills" (3).

Masoud (2002) assumes that life skills are "[t]]he skills which help the individual to manage his life, coexist with its requirements, deal positively with its problems, face the contemporary challenges, and communicate effectively with others" (50). He defines the importance of acquiring life skills as follows:

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- Life skills motivate children by helping them to understand their own potential in their lives so that they will be able to conduct problem-solving processes when faced with life problems.

- Opportunity to live one's life better, especially in this era characterised by increasing knowledge, information and technological overflow. Therefore, it is necessary to prepare individuals capable of adapting effectively to modern challenges and opportunities.

- Giving the learner direct experience through direct interaction with people and events and attributing meaning to learning and providing excitement and suspense as life skills are related to the individual's reality.

- Contribute to raising the individual's awareness of issues in society in young people and generating a desire to fix them.

3.2   Life skills classification

The WHO classifies life skills into three major categories representing ten skills (WHO, 1997) as shown in Table 1:

Communication and interpersonal skills	▪ Communication ▪ Negotiation/conflict management skills ▪ Empathy ▪ Cooperation and teamwork ▪ Advocacy
Decision making and critical thinking skills	▪ Decision-making/problem-solving skills ▪ Critical thinking: the ability to think intensively and in various forms (WHO, 1993).
Coping and self-management skills	▪ Increasing internal self-control ▪ Managing feelings ▪ Managing stress

Table 1. The WHO classification of life skills (WHO, 1997)

A study carried out by Abdel Mawjoud and others (2005) in the context of research series of the National Centre for Educational Research and Development indicated

that the necessary life skills for secondary education students within the framework of future curriculum are: consumer awareness, health awareness, social awareness, citizenship awareness and environmental awareness, the awareness of creative thinking methods and the awareness of reproductive health.

According to Al-Fahda (2006, 86), life skills are classified into: decision-making, responsibility, negotiation and dialogue, sound planning, effective communication and tolerance.

The Centre for Curriculum and Educational Materials Development in Egypt (2000, 65) also presents a classification of life skills, which are as follows:

- Emotional skills

- Social skills

- Mental skills

The Delaware Department of Education has introduced the Standards for Functional Life Skills Curriculum. This is a set of standards designed to reflect the expected performance of students in five important areas of life skills: communication, personal management, social skills, functional professional skills and applied academic skills as follows:

- Communication: Includes the individual's acquisition, use and handling of verbal and non-verbal symbols, for different purposes and in different situations.

- Personal management: Includes the ability of an individual to convey and address personal needs, manage his or her own behaviour, and carry out personal choices as independently as possible.

- Social skills: Includes the acquisition and application of social skills and habits in relation to other people in a variety of situations.

- Professional skills: Includes the acquisition and practice of knowledge and skills in order to become a productive worker in his field.

- Academic applied skills: Includes acquiring academic skills in reading, writing, mathematics, and science within recurring daily events, and applying these skills in different life situations and experiences.

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As a conclusion, life skills can be classified into three domains: skills related to thinking processes are housed within the "cognitive" domain, those related to interpersonal processes can be found under the "social" domain and skills related to affective development are located in the "emotional" domain.

3.3   Life skills development methods

Given the growth of life skills programmes, mainly at the turn of the twenty-first century, many countries have adopted this trend and provided independent courses aimed at different life skills within different educational stages. There are many ways of integrating life skills into the curriculum: in some countries as separate courses, in others as part of the curriculum at different educational stages.

Life skills are learned while employing participatory learning methods. Indeed, this learning is established on the social learning process which incorporates hearing an explanation or a demonstration of the relevant skill, perceiving the skill, then modelling or practising the skill in selected situations in a supportive learning environment and providing feedback on the individual's performance of the skills. Furthermore, the practice of skills is facilitated by role playing in specific scenarios through focusing on the implementation of skills and their impact on the actors in the hypothetical situation. Skills can be learned by using skills learning tools, i.e. by working according to milestones within the decision-making process. Life skills instruction should be designed so that students can practice the skills in an advanced way and in more demanding situations. (Hagerty & Smith, 2005).

Other approaches to learning life skills consist of teamwork, discussion, scheduling, storytelling, team-supported learning and practical community development projects.

Life skills cannot be learned on the basis of information or discussion alone, as this does not generate an active learning process. It must include learning from one's own experiences and supporting the skills of each individual in a supportive learning environment.

Moreover, UNICEF supported the introduction of understanding life skills by pursuing the following (Abdel Muti and Mustafa, 2008, 116):

- Defining life skills: includes a set of psychological, social and interpersonal skills in a way that makes them interrelated, for example, it may include decision-making as a component of discretionary and creative thinking and value analysis.

- Identifying the knowledge content of life skills: by selecting content related to the relevant skill by taking into account the balance of three elements (knowledge, attitudes, and skills).

- Selecting the teaching methods in which skills-based learning takes place through the interaction between learning actors.

Life skills acquisition methods involve cooperative learning, peer support and skill modelling by peers and adults. Further possible methods for acquiring life skills include role playing, life situation analysis, activities in small groups, debate and playing games.

It is also possible to develop learners' life skills through employing teaching strategies that act on the effectiveness of the learner's role in the educational process, as well as by observing the behaviour of others, and the many experiences that educational institutions must provide.

We can deduce from educational literature that there are methods through which active learning can be promoted in order to develop children's life skills, and these methods include: cooperative learning, role playing, problem solving, dialogue and discussion, asking and answering questions, brainstorming, collective thinking, and task-based learning that render the education process effective and interactive with life situations.

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4. Methodological framework of the research

Research methodology:

In order to reach the goals and answer the questions posed by the research, we followed a descriptive and documentation approach to identify the necessary life skills for the preschool educator. Moreover, we relied on analysing the content of academic training programmes for preschool educators as well as the references for the professional competencies of preschool educators.

This analysis is based on objective and quantitative descriptions to determine to what extent life skills are included in the content of academic training programmes and professional competency references of preschool educators in Egypt, Tunisia, and Switzerland.

Research sample

In Egypt and Tunisia, the content of the academic training programmes designed for preschool educators as well as the references of the professional competencies of preschool educators were selected. However, in Switzerland, the analysis was limited to the content of professional competency references designed for preschool educators because the training programmes are not fixed, and they change according to the university.

Tool of content analysis

In light of the theoretical framework and previous studies, and with the aim of formulating the study tool, the classification of life skills was adopted according to the following axes. These are: cognitive skills, social skills and emotional skills.

Subsequently, subskills have been identified for each axis. The list of life skills includes:

- Cognitive skills: comprises 5 subskills.

- Social skills: comprises 5 subskills.

- Emotional skills: comprises 5 subskills

	Emotional	Social	Cognitive
skill area	Self-esteem	Fulfilling the principles of communication with others	Problem solving
Subskills	Accepting other people's points of view and opinions	Citizenship values	Research and exploration
	Expressing feelings and opinions	Cooperation / sharing and teamwork.	Critical thinking
	Emotional regulation	Dealing with moral values of other people (ethics / social norms)	Decision-making
	Motivation and interest	Adapting to social situations / negotiation	Specialised knowledge and skills

Table 2: List of the spheres of life skills and subskills

Identifying the purpose of the analysis

The process of analysing the content aims to expose the following:

- The presence of life skills within the content of academic training programmes designed for preschool educators in Egypt and Tunisia. Moreover, the process aims to monitor the frequency of Life skills within the relevant programmes.

- The presence of life skills within the content of professional competency references of preschool educators in Egypt, Tunisia and Switzerland.

Analysis measures

In Tunisia, the Higher Institute of Childhood Staff takes exclusive responsibility for instructing preschool educators (early childhood education) as well as granting the National Diplomat of the License of Education Sciences, Preschool Education Specialisation. The Higher Institute of Childhood Staff obtained its most recent academic training in 2019 by the Ministry of Higher Education and

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Scientific Research. In addition, the Institute acquired the professional competency references designed for preschool educators issued by the Ministry of Education in 2019, which consists of 11 competencies.

With regard to Egypt, the educator is trained for preschool education in the early childhood education colleges that appertain to the Egyptian universities. In fact, there are 7 colleges in the universities (Cairo – Ain Shams – Minya – Asyut – Menoufia – Alexandria – Sadat). These programmes at the relevant colleges are all accredited by the Ministry of Higher Education. The study programme in these colleges consists of 4 academic years. In the third and fourth years, female students are trained in specialised schools for preschool education. The programmes at these colleges are based on the standards accredited by the National Authority of Quality Assurance and Accreditation of Education. Moreover, the descriptions of the curriculum of these colleges' programmes for the four different levels were obtained for analysis, along with the standards accredited by the National Authority of Quality Assurance and Accreditation of Education regarding the competencies of kindergarten teachers issued in 2009.

As for Switzerland, teachers are trained in 14 Faculties of Education. All of them grant a Bachelor's degree in education sciences that entitles the holder to teach children from kindergarten age. Training programmes vary from one college to another as each college determines the knowledge and competencies that teachers are required to acquire. Since one of the authors works at the Zurich University of Teacher Education (PH Zurich), the references of this university are those which will be used as a basis for study. Due to the lack of descriptive reports related to the subjects making up the academic training programmes at the Zurich University of Teacher Education, the analysis process was limited to the reference framework for the Zurich University of Teacher Education. This reference framework comprises 12 areas of competencies that students must acquire by the end of their academic training. These competences can be exemplary for the training at other institutions of teacher education in Switzerland. Basically, the requirements at the different institutions are very similar.

As mentioned above, each unit included in the academic training programmes designed for preschool educators in Tunisia and in Egypt have been analysed separately in order to determine the frequency of skills in the form of a quantitative descriptive analysis. The analysis process includes the content of the descriptive reports for all subjects in the units of the academic training programmes.

Each competency included in the professional competencies' references designed for preschool educators has been analysed separately in order to determine the frequency of skills in the form of a qualitative descriptive analysis. The analysis process consists of a definition of the competency as well as the text of the competency included within the reference framework designed for the professional competencies of preschool educators for the three countries (Tunisia – Egypt – Switzerland).

Table 3 shows the competencies that preschool teachers are expected to acquire in order to carry out their duties skilfully in the three countries (Tunisia – Egypt – Switzerland).

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Reference framework for competencies designed for preschool teachers (Egypt)		Reference framework for competencies designed for preschool teachers (Switzerland, PH Zurich)		Reference framework for competencies designed for preschool teachers (Tunisia)	
Skill number in reference framework for competencies	Skill definition	Skill number in reference framework for competencies	Skill definition	Skill number in reference framework for competencies	Skill definition
Skill 1	Practising various strategies in kindergarten	Skill 11	The teacher understands the school as an organisation and takes responsibility in shaping it	Skill 1	The teacher respects the ethics of the profession and acts responsibly
Skill 2	Developing plans for safe and innovative education activities	Skill 1	The teacher has specialised knowledge and skills and can draw conclusions for their own teaching	Skill 2	The teacher masters the subject fields and their instructions
Skill 3	Practising professional ethics	Skill 7	The teacher plans class activities on the basis of subject-specific and didactic knowledge	Skill 3	The teacher plans the course of class activities
Skill 4	Employing scientific research skills to solve childhood problems	Skill 2	The teacher understands how pupils learn, think and develop	Skill 4	The teacher completes the activities that they have prepared and planned
Skill 5 Skill 6	Equipping the educational environment and learning centres with materials and devices suitable for children	Skill 6	The teacher uses their own knowledge of language and communication to promote learning and mutual exchange	Skill 5 Skill 6	The teacher controls IT and communication The teacher is fluent in the appropriate Arabic language for the preschool grade.
Skill 7	Using endorsement and encouragement methods as well as employing appropriate evaluation methods	Skill 8	The teacher uses appropriate procedures to observe and diagnose learning outcomes	Skill 7	The teacher evaluates the performance of the children in various activities
Skill 8	Using technological concepts, knowledge and theories in training children and developing their skills	Skill 5	The teacher cooperates with all those involved in the school field and participates in the processing of school-related tasks	Skill 8	The teacher works in a team and is open to different types of cooperation and exchange with the institution's partners
Skill 9	Develop leadership skills and make appropriate decisions	Skill 3 Skill 10	The teacher has knowledge about motivation and uses it to promote pupils' learning The teacher acts in a considered and role-conscious way, taking into account ethical and legal norms as well as democratic principles	Skill 9	The teacher ensures a comfortable welcome for the children
Skill 10	Effective communication of all kinds	Skill 4	The teacher recognises the diversity of their pupils in terms of social background, culture, language, gender, age and learning requirements	Skill 10	The teacher embodies life skills through their educational actions
Skill 11	Continuous professional development based on self-education skills	Skill 9	The teacher evaluates the impact of their own professional actions on pupils and others involved in the school environment	Skill 11	The teacher is self-developed, and regenerates themselves

Table 3: Professional competencies for preschool teachers

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5.   Analysis of results

Results related to research questions:

To answer the question *To what extent are these life skills present in higher education curricula for preschool educators in Tunisia, Egypt, and Switzerland?*, the academic training curricula of preschool educators in Tunisia and Egypt were analysed by using the content analysis tool. In addition, the frequencies and percentages of the included skills within the curricula accredited by the Ministry of Higher Education in both Tunisia and Egypt were calculated.

The results of the analysis and those percentages are shown in Tables 4 and 5.

Skills	Cognitive		Social		Emotional		Total	
Academic courses	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
First semester	40	9.2 %	30	6.89 %	20	4.6 %	90	20.69 %
Second semester	40	9.2 %	20	4.6 %	30	6.89 %	90	20.69 %
Third semester	34	7.82 %	20	4.6 %	14	3.22 %	68	15.63 %
Fourth semester	41	9.43 %	28	6.44 %	14	3.22 %	83	19.08 %
Fifth semester	37	8.51 %	15	3.45 %	7	1.61 %	59	13.56 %
Sixth semester	23	5.29 %	15	3.45 %	7	1.61 %	45	10.34 %
Total	**215**	**49.4 %**	**128**	**29.5 %**	**92**	**21.1 %**	**435**	**100 %**

Table 4: The frequency of life skills included in the accredited academic programmes in Tunisia and their percentages

| Skills	Cognitive		Social		Emotional		Total	
Academic courses	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1st Grade	65	13.4 %	43	8.9 %	17	3.4 %	125	25.7 %
2nd Grade	57	11.8 %	33	6.8 %	22	4.6 %	112	24.2 %
3rd Grade	44	9.1 %	42	8.7 %	29	6 %	105	23.8 %
4th grade	51	10.5 %	54	11.1 %	23	4.7 %	128	26.3 %
Total	**217**	**45.8 %**	**172**	**35.5 %**	**91**	**18.7 %**	**480**	**100 %**

Table 5: The frequency of life skills included in the accredited academic programmes in Egypt and their percentages

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The previous tables show that the cognitive skills (critical thinking, problem solving, decision-making and acquiring specialised knowledge) are the most frequent among the life skills, cf. their totals reached (215 for Tunisia and 217 for Egypt). However, the skills of the emotional field were the least frequent, and their scores counted just 92 for Tunisia and 91 for Egypt.

Country	Skills domains	Percentage	Extent of inclusion
Tunisia	Cognitive	49.4 %	Medium presence
	Social	29.5 %	Low presence
	Emotional	21.1 %	Low presence
Egypt	Cognitive	45.8 %	Medium presence
	Social	35.5 %	Medium presence
	Emotional	18.7 %	Low presence

Table 6: Percentages of the included life skills spheres in the academic curricular content for Tunisia and Egypt.
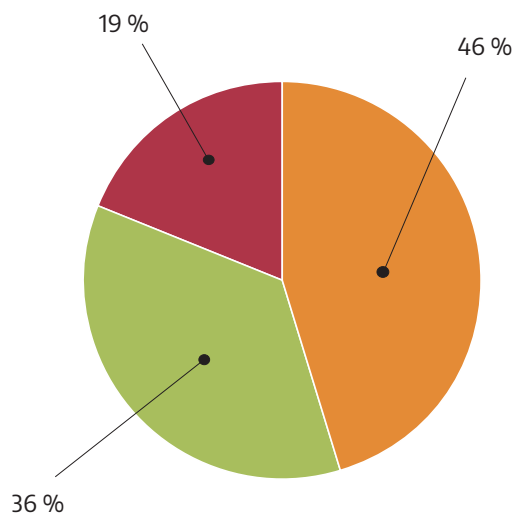
Graph 1: Percentages of the included life skills spheres in the academic curricular content for Egypt
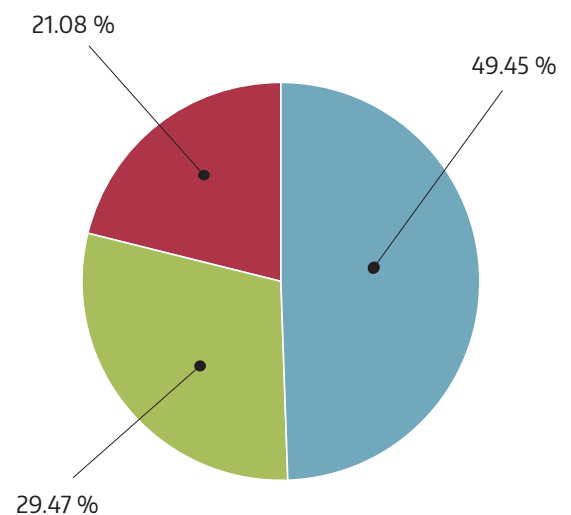
Graph 2: Percentages of the included life skills spheres in the academic curricular content for Tunisia

Graphs 1 and 2 show clearly that the percentage of cognitive skills within the academic curriculum is 45.8% in Egypt, whereas in Tunisia the figure is 49.5%. In the case of the other skills, the percentage of the inclusion of social skills domain ranges between 29.5% and 35.5%. As for the emotional skills domain, their inclusion percentage within the accredited curricula in Tunisia and Egypt ranges between 21.1% and 18.7%.

One-way ANOVA has been used to identify the significant differences in terms of the presence of life skills within the curricular content in Egypt and Tunisia through country-specific variables.

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Source of variance	Squares Total	Degrees of freedom	Mean deviation	F-distribution	Significance level
Inter groups	15519	2	7759.5	23.98609	0.01428
Within groups	970.5	3	323.5		
Total	16489.5	5			
Statistically significant difference of α = 0.05.					

Table 7: The results of the one-way ANOVA of differences between the presence of life skills within the curricular content by country-specific variables

Table 7 shows clearly that the value of the calculated significance level reached 0.01428, and that this value is lower than the significance level specified for the study (α = 0.05). In other words, the null hypothesis can be rejected as it says there is no statistically significant difference at the significance level α = 0.05 in the presence of life skills within the curricular content according to the country variables.

The results of the analysis for both Egypt and Tunisia illustrate that cognitive skills are the most frequent skills within the accredited academic programmes, as they are present to a high degree in Tunisia and to a medium degree in Egypt. This is due to the fact that the academic programmes focus on the students' cognitive skills: a feature that distinguishes Arab academic programmes with their interest in knowledge and reason.

The social domain of the Egyptian academic programmes is included to a medium degree. This feature can be explained mainly by the academic programmes' interest in integrating kindergarten teachers into specialised schools during the third and fourth grades. In addition, Egyptian academic programmes focus on the interaction between students and teachers with children. But in Tunisia, the social domain is promoted poorly, and this may be due to a lack of in-field training for female students.

As far as the emotional sphere is concerned, it has been poorly supported in both Egypt and Tunisia, which indicates that these programmes must be developed in both countries in order to address the students' psychological and social spheres during the training stage. This may contribute to the development of a distinguished and psychologically healthy teacher, which will positively influence children.

To answer the question *To what extent are these life skills present in professional competency references for preschool educators in Tunisia, Egypt and Switzerland?*, the reference frameworks of the professional competencies of preschool educators in Tunisia and Egypt was analysed using the content analysis tool. In addition, the study calculated the frequencies and percentages of the included skills within the reference frameworks of competencies accredited by the Ministry of Higher Education in Tunisia, Egypt and Switzerland (PH Zurich).

The results and the percentages of the analysis are displayed in Table 8:

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Country		Egypt		Tunisia		Switzerland PHZH	
Sphere	**Skills**	**Frequency**	**Total %**	**Frequency**	**Total %**	**Frequency**	**Total %**
Emotional	Emotional regulation	8	45 19 %	4	43 22.51 %	3	16 23.54 %
	Self-esteem	6		7		2	
	Accepting difference	12		8		6	
	Expressing feelings	17		21		3	
	Motivation/ interest	2		3		3	
Social	Communication	27	83 35 %	24	61 31.94 %	3	20 29.41 %
	Citizenship	13		4		4	
	Cooperation	15		15		2	
	Ethics/social norms	25		15		6	
	Resistance / negotiation	3		5		6	
Cognitive	Problem-solving	7	109 46 %	4	87 45.55 %	1	32 47.05 %
	Research and exploration	5		7		1	
	Critical thinking	4		4		2	
	Decision-making	21		13		6	
	Appropriate knowledge	72		57		19	

Table 8: Frequencies and percentages of the included life skills within the content of reference frameworks of professional competencies designed for preschool educators in Tunisia, Egypt and Switzerland (Zurich)

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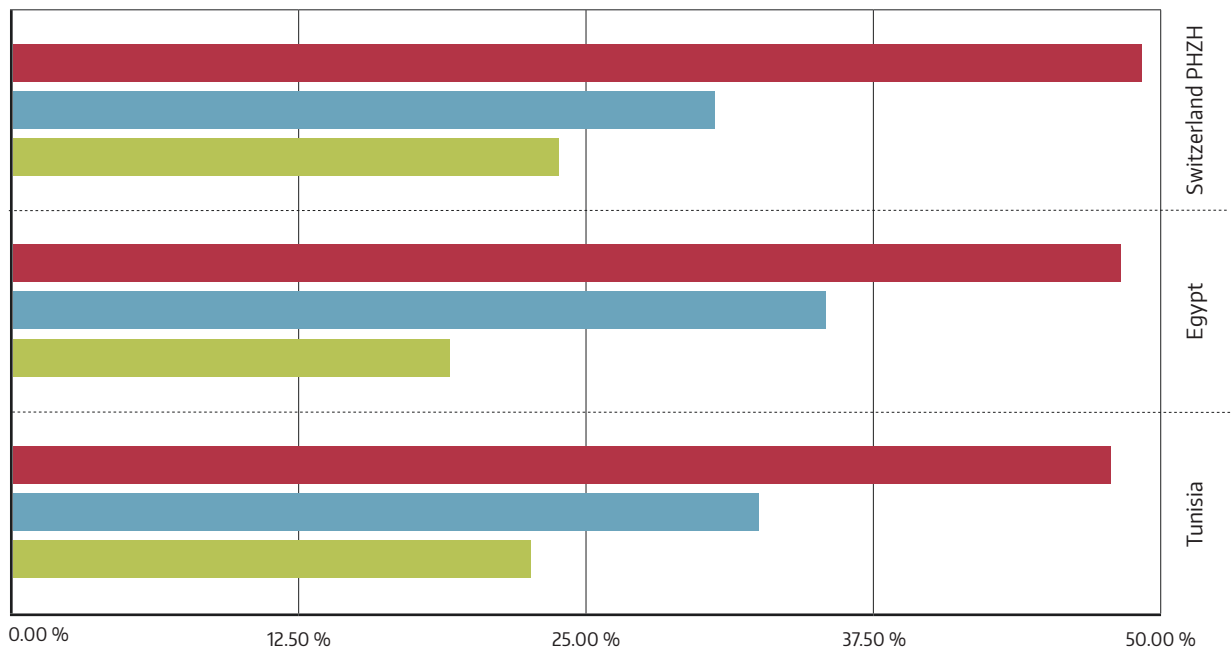
Graph 3: Percentages of the included life skills spheres in the content professional competencies references of preschool teachers in Tunisia, Egypt and Switzerland (Zurich)

Graph 3 illustrates how the percentages for references in professional competencies designed for preschool teachers in Tunisia, Egypt and Switzerland are similar in all spheres of life skills under study, despite the gap in percentages.

One-way ANOVA has been used to identify the significant differences in terms of the presence of life skills within the content of reference frameworks for professional competencies designed for preschool educators in Egypt and Tunisia through country-specific variables. The results can be seen in Table 9.

Source of variance	Squares Total	Degrees of freedom	Mean deviation	F-distribution	Significance level
Inter groups	2563.556	2	1281.778	1.3456	0.32901
Within groups	5715.333	6	952.555		
Total	8278.889	8			
Statistically significant difference of α = 0.05.					

Table 9: The results of the one-way ANOVA test for the significant differences in terms of the presence of life skills within the content of the references of professional competencies according to country variables.

Table 9 shows clearly that the value of the calculated significance level is 0.32901, and this value is higher than the significance level specified for the study (α = 0.05). In other words, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected as it says there is no statistically significant difference at the significance level α = 0.05 in the presence of life skills within the content of references of professional competencies according to the country variables.

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6.   Discussion

With regard to the presence of life skills in the reference framework for the professional competencies of pre-school educators, the tables show that the results obtained as part of the study are very much in line with the results that guarantee the presence of those skills within the content of the accredited academic programmes. Obviously, we can deduce from the results that cognitive skills have the highest priority in Egypt, Tunisia and Switzerland. In addition, we can also see that social skills came in second place in Egypt and Tunisia.

In all three countries, the percentages for the emotional are very low, indicating that there is some convergence between the three countries in the presence of life skills within the reference framework for the professional competencies for the preschool teachers.

This may be due to the curriculum makers' focus on the scientific content of the subject rather than the inclusion of social and emotional skills. The reason for the lack of these skills within the reference framework for the professional competencies of preschool educators as well as in school curricula may be due to the fact that the assessment and evaluation of social and emotional skills is a challenge, as to a certain extent they overlap. It is particularly difficult to evaluate this type of skill and accredit having obtained it, which may also be a reason why the figures are so low.

The professional references designed for preschool teachers in theory, but differ according to country variables when applied in practice. There is homogeneity and similarity in the cognitive spheres between Egypt and Tunisia, but when dealing with the social and emotional spheres, we have noticed some differences according to country variables. This difference is considered natural or inevitable because of the necessity of adapting the content to the social environment.

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Teaching philosophy:

▶   I try to help students develop their personality. This includes using and enhancing their specific talents as well as acquiring new skills and knowledge. An important point in this context is that I would like to foster their interest, their curiosity and their desire to discover the world, its wonders and secrets and to understand some of it. I would also like my students to like or even love learning and to develop their abilities to think for themselves (critical thinking), to analyse problems and to find solutions.

Judith Egloff

Part IV:
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Samir Boulos
Department of International Projects in Education (IPE),
Zurich University of Teacher Education, Switzerland
samir.boulos@phzh.ch

Barbara Class
TECFA, Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences,
University of Geneva, Switzerland
barbara.class@unige.ch

Mònica Feixas
Centre for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education,
Zurich University of Teacher Education, Switzerland
monica.feixas@phzh.ch

Sandra Lang
Institute of Education, University of Zurich, Switzerland
sandra.lang@uzh.ch

Abstract:

Interest in and projects for the professional development of teacher educators in International Academic Networks (IANs) is increasing, but research in joint global initiatives is still very much in its infancy. In this article, we present the outcomes of a study whose aim is to examine the values created during the exchange processes taking place between academics in teacher education. The relevant data to address this question was gathered over the course of the two five-year Swiss-funded network projects "Learning Cultures in Universities – LECU" and "Swiss-North African Academic Network – SINAN". This study contributes to a more elaborate understanding of the creation of shared values in communities of practice (Wenger-Trainer & Wenger-Trainer, 2020).

We use methods of qualitative social research to gain a rich and deep insight into the value created from the perspectives of the participants: a group of almost 50 university teacher educators originating from five different countries and with an average of 10 years of teaching experience. The data gathered consisted of an analysis of

a. empirical fieldnotes about the debriefing discussions after the university classroom visits and school visits and

b. online focus group interviews with academics from both networks.

The networks' outcomes provided different types of immediate, potential, applied and realised values at an individual and collective level. Visits to schools and university classrooms, network meetings around competency-based education and the projects of the duos and trios count as the most relevant activities. Encounters beyond the meetings supported the work in groups and the formation of communities of practice. The exchanges through LECU and SINAN showed that academics benefit from plurilingual and intercultural interactions, overcome institutional restraints to focus on the essence of teacher training and discuss topics qualitatively to advance the profession's challenges and deliver high quality results.

Keywords:

- value creation

- international academic networks

- teacher education

- transcultural exchanges

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1.   Introduction

In the 21st century, academic knowledge exchange has taken many forms which have been studied extensively by social and educational researchers (Morley, 2018). International Academic Networks (IANs), however, have been given less attention (Boring *et al.*, 2015). An IAN is a venue for knowledge exchange with opportunities to present and learn from research findings in the field, as well as to exchange experiences, concepts and visions. IANs represent social spaces formed by encounters, discussions and the establishment of personal relationships and by endeavours in explaining and understanding. One of the main characteristics of IANs is their diversity: different nationalities of participants, institutional traditions, disciplinary and pedagogical cultures and educational philosophies. The interactions and communications within these networks produce a social space which at times dissolves cultural boundaries and evolves into a collective identity, and at other times is accompanied by reverse processes of reaffirmation and the assertion of differences (Flüchter & Schöttli, 2015). Due to the internationality of these academic meetings, the participants discover different academic traditions, institutional arrangements and various patterns of reasoning and expression of ideas. International academic meetings hence represent social spaces with transcultural qualities.

Two IANs on teacher education have been commissioned by the State Secretariat of Education, Research and Innovation (SERI) of Switzerland and coordinated by the Zurich University of Teacher Education. Each network brings together around 24 academics from the world of teacher education from different countries working mainly in faculties of pedagogy or in Universities of Teacher Education (UTEs): in "Learning Cultures in Universities" (LECU), participants come from Albania, Kosovo and Switzerland, and in "Swiss-North African Academic Network" (SINAN) from Tunisia, Egypt and Switzerland. Participants are a selected group of teacher trainers and educational experts working for the educational administrations. The aim of these networks is to reflect on theories around competency-based education and exchange innovative teaching and learning practices in teacher education.

Activities performed and networks products include:

1.	On-site meetings (5 meetings in LECU and 3 in SINAN) for 3 to 4 days, each time in a different country, with schools and university classroom visits, workshops and social as well as cultural gatherings;
2.	Performing a trio work with network participants from three different countries;
3.	A duo work, an optional project between two participants of the same country;
4.	Writing their teaching philosophy (TP);
5.	Webinars and online meetings during Covid-19 pandemic;
6.	Online focus groups with members of both networks;
7.	One book about competency-based education (Bachmann, 2018) which has been written in English and translated into Albanian and Arabic;
8.	Two edited books with the contributions from trios and some duos to LECU and SINAN, respectively and
9.	A final joint symposium in Zurich in November 2021.

Throughout the five years of the project, it is also expected that the network's meetings and products will contribute toward the gaining of new insights into international teacher education contexts, identifying transferable designs and ideas valuable for participating institutions, and further developing the members' transcultural, pedagogical and enquiry skills necessary to advance professionally in higher education institutions [39].

LECU and SINAN have been accompanied by the unfunded, self-initiated research study Sharing Competences in transcultural Spaces (SCOPE). The purpose of this research is to examine transcultural and educational exchanges taking place among experts and academics of universities of teacher education within the context of LECU and SINAN. SCOPE studies the dynamics and potential impact of these exchanges on three levels: at an individual level, at group level and at the level of the organisations the participants are part of. It aims to con-

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39 For more information, please refer to the introductory chapter.

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tribute towards the development of a theory of trans-cultural exchange processes and how they take place in the globalised academic community.

This chapter aims to present precisely the results of one part of the SCOPE research which examined the different types of value created within the context of LECU and SINAN. The concept of value creation in communities of practice by Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner (2020) and its artefacts (Daele, 2017) guide our reflections in this paper. According to Wenger, Trayner & de Laat (2011) value is created through learning enabled by community involvement and networking. Social learning activities, information sharing, learning from the experience of others and creating knowledge together are different forms of how a community can create value. Questions such as 'which types of values have been developed?' and 'through which activities, interactions and artefacts have the values been created?' are answered.

2.   Theoretical framework

Although we refer to LECU and SINAN as IANs, it is our understanding that they can also be considered communities. Communities and networks are often thought of as two different types of social structure, but based on Wenger, Trayner and Laat (2011), we prefer to think of them as two complementary aspects of social structures in which learning takes place: "The network aspect refers to the set of relationships, personal interactions, and connections among participants who have personal reasons to connect. And the community aspect refers to the development of a shared identity around a topic or set of challenges. It represents a collective intention – however tacit and distributed– to steward a domain of knowledge and to sustain learning about it" (11). In both cases, their goals are sharing best practices and creating new knowledge to advance a domain of professional practice. Connections, interactions, relationships and the development of a shared identity to further develop learning are indeed both objectives of LECU and SINAN.

In addition, when a group of people who share an interest in a topic come together to fulfil both individual and group goals, they are in a Community of Practice (CoP). A CoP is a concept stemming from the social theory of learning to attempt to develop accounts of the social nature of human learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991). It is constructed according to the concepts of meaning, practice, community, and identity. Its analytical framework allows us to analyse the process of learning occurring through one's participation in a given body of knowledge/practice. Artefacts and boundary objects are among the most talked about mediating processes. Furthermore, three

variables are fundamental for the success of a CoP: a nurturing environment, a relevant topic and appropriate support. The rhythm of the CoP, the quality of its animation and participants' active involvement are additional key parameters. In terms of participant profile, a voluntary participant is more motivated than one who has been forced to take part, and the ideal participant is someone who is open to change, intrinsically interested by the domain and curious (Langelier *et al.*, 2005).

Academics' conceptions of social professional learning in the form of CoP vary according to four dimensions:

- Firstly, a CoP is a means and place to share knowledge and seek help;

- Secondly, it supports problem-solving and the development of skills and knowledge;

- Thirdly, it is a way to engage in mentoring, modelling, and disseminating good principles and practices and

- Fourthly, (related to change at a broader level), CoP is a means to embark on an ongoing journey that transforms learning and teaching (Zou, 2018).

In CoP, scholars start by making reflections or observations on their own experiences and share them with community members which might be conducive to exchanges about respective practices. A deeper analysis of practices might provoke more debate and potentially bring about renewed practices. These steps are supported by six types of 'artefacts' exchanged by participants: communicating personal experiences, methodological contributions, theoretical references, rules and norms shared within the profession, logical proofs and practical recommendations (Daele, 2017, 70).

As a form of social learning space, participants engage their uncertainty and look for answers, with the aim of making a difference. As such, the object of study shifts from examining the 'inert' aspects of social learning (e.g. knowledge, skills, curriculum) to the 'living' ones (e.g. experiences of participants). The focus is on agency and on how the community enables learning and hence value creation.

According to (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner (2020), value is created through a cycle of framing, generating, translating and evaluating value. It unfolds in several types of values as represented in Figure 1. In this article, findings focus especially on those in the inner circle.
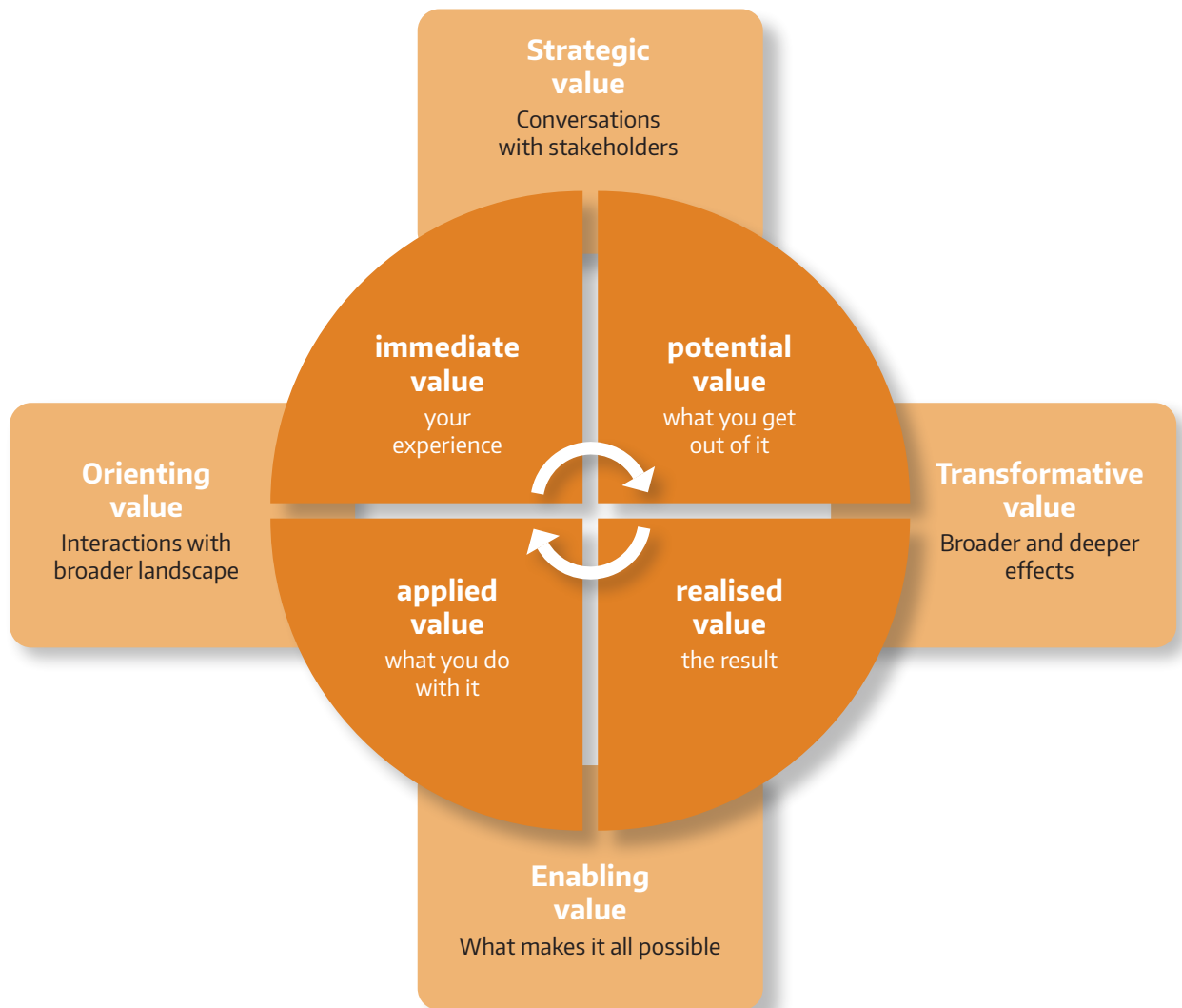
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Figure 1: Value creation, inspired by Wenger & Wenger (2020, 75).

The **immediate value** is the most basic cycle of value and is produced through the activities and interactions themselves. Immediate value can be generated, amongst other things, via a well-tuned agenda with engaging activities, providing insights into each other's experiences and having an enjoyable time as a group. Dimensions are related to identification (e.g. connecting with others on the object of care), a sense of inclusion (e.g. mutual commitment and expectations of reciprocity), mutual recognition as learning partners (e.g. trust to share your challenges and engage others in your struggles), conviviality and enjoyment (e.g. having fun), productive discomfort (e.g. being pushed out of your comfort zone), engaging with other perspectives (e.g. expanding one's horizons) and exciting company (e.g. access to experts) (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2020, 80–82). In LECU and SINAN, this value can be created, among others, through the organisation of in-person and online meetings whose

content focused on getting to know each other personally and professionally, exchanging knowledge and practice in each specific field of expertise and addressing challenging topics of discussion from an open and constructive mindset.

Potential value is a form of knowledge capital, whose value lies in the possibility of being realised at a later stage. This knowledge capital can take different forms such as personal assets, relationships and connection or reputational capital (Wenger, Trayner & de Laat, 2011, 19–20). Potential value in IANs can be reached through working on participants' challenges, brainstorming ideas and providing time in the agenda to produce, review, discuss documents, tools and methods. It comprises concrete help with specific challenges (e.g. advice and solutions that apply to your challenge), stories of others experiences (e.g. showing what is possible), insight (e.g.

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new perspective and understanding), skills (e.g. new skills gained), resources (e.g. jointly produced or shared resources), social capital (e.g. personal connections) and potential collaborations (e.g. synergies leading to collaboration opportunities) (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2020, 85–87).

Applied value means that the knowledge capital has affected changes in practice (Wenger, Trayner & Laat, 2011, 21). Applied value is achieved through the setting of joint resolutions, coaching participants in their endeavour to try out new things or proposing new collaborations outside the space. It comprises adoption/adaptation (e.g. trying out a suggestion), reuse (e.g. using a procedure), being more assertive (e.g. speaking more confidently about what needs to be done), resisting more effectively (e.g. gaining in confidence to resist) and leveraging connections (e.g. developing collaboration opportunities) (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2020, 91–93). For example, in the IANs there has been peer expert support for the development of participants' individual, group or institutional teaching innovative ideas.

Finally, **value is realised** when not only new ideas and practices are applied, but when they contribute to improving the results (Wenger, Trayner & Laat, 2011, 22). Realised value can be accomplished through seeking direct feedback and reflection, collecting data and documenting effects. It comprises personal value (e.g. individual successes and achievements, personal satisfaction, empowerment and an ability to influence the environment, reputation and recognition from stakeholders, professional advancement), collective value (e.g. collective reputation as a source of valuable solutions), stakeholder value (e.g. satisfaction with the contribution, solution to a critical problem, seeing progress), organisational value (e.g. achieve a target, increased efficiencies) and societal value (e.g. contribution to practice or science, contribution to public civic engagement). (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2020, 94–96). In this area, it seems that the duo and trio projects should count as network assets bringing personal, collective, institutional and scientific value.

The next four values transcend the previous values considered as phases or levels of network performance and achievement. **Enabling value** is concerned with the commitment of participants, their agency and their consideration of the space as creating enough value to support it and make it self-sustainable.

Strategic value refers to on-going discussions and decisions that the social learning space should aim at for it to meet the expectations of its participants. In the context of LECU and SINAN, it can be exemplified with the organisational discussions between project and local coordinators to facilitate their taking responsibility for the programmes' content, or in the several encounters when coordinators asked whether the content suited participants' needs. The role of the project coordinator, the internal leadership, transparency and efficiency in the process, the language used, the documentation of activities, social learning support provided, the bringing of new learning approaches, logistics and technology, strategic facilitation, resources, and organisational initiatives would be included as strategic value (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2020, 100–110).

Orienting and transformative values have both internal and external dimensions. In the case of the orienting value, the:

- Internal dimensions consist in considering participants' contexts (e.g. contexts and implications for learning as a group), their biographies and identities (e.g. leveraging identities to see things in new ways), inherited boundaries (e.g. recognising and addressing boundaries and limits of the landscape to produce fruitful interactions) and personal networks (e.g. exploring and leveraging personal connections to enrich the social learning space).

- External dimensions comprise awareness of other spaces and boundaries, reflection on historical and cultural factors that shape the space, coordination with other spaces, savvy to navigate through different interests and structural constraints and opportunities with reference to power structures and awareness of external audiences.

In LECU and SINAN, not only recognising the participants' contexts, but visiting these contexts, reflecting on their professional biographies, discussing them with the involved actors and reflecting on their socio-cultural, political and historical particularities was part of the foundations of the networks' approach as a way to promote awareness of each individual's spaces and boundaries and to enrich our academic knowledge of international teachers' training and educational systems.

Last but not least, **transformative value** deals with the broader effects of making a difference, in reference for example to Mezirow's (1991) transformative learning and is addressed in terms of where the transformation manifests in social space:

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- Internal dimensions consider external transformation that impact the difference participants care to make to reposition the social learning space (e.g. designing training activities from a competence-based perspective), personal transformation (e.g. life-changing experience) and power shifts (e.g. radical changes in power relations among participants and/or stakeholders).

- External dimensions comprise new identities, institutional changes, empowerment and affecting broader norms, mindsets or historical narratives (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2020, 113–121).

In LECU and SINAN, these transformations have particularly taken place during school and university visits. Two outstanding specific examples may be mentioned here. The first relates to teacher trainers changing their notion of those students originating from countries participating in the networks. And the second refers to changing their notion of the development of creative competences through handicraft. Both of these examples will be mentioned in the article to show that the value creation framework is a continuum. The examples capture the entire cycle from immediate value – when seeing it – to transformative value – role modelling and making it available for others.

3.   Methodological design

Qualitative social research methods are used to gain insight into the phenomena from the participants' perspectives and generate knowledge on how IANs function and add value to individual teachers and their professional communities. Empirical research data was gathered by the project researchers between 2017 and 2021 following a strict code of conduct and research ethics, paying constant attention to privacy and consent of the participants. The corpus of gathered data consists of

a. empirical fieldnotes about the debriefing discussions after the university classroom visits and school visits and

b. records of online focus group discussions.

Focus group and observation grids are found in Appendix 1 and 2.

We held five debriefing discussions in LECU after the university classroom and school visits in Zurich, Elbasan, Pristina and Shkodra. The home-school visit in Pristina was considered a cultural visit of a historic site. As part of the SINAN project, we conducted four debriefing discussions after we visited university classrooms and schools in Zurich and in Zaghouen. In Egypt, a visit was made to classes at the American University in Cairo (but without the Swiss participants who were unable to travel due to the Covid situation). All these visits and all formal planned activities have been documented with observation notes.

With regard to focus groups, we conducted three online discussions with members of both networks on their experiences and insights gained through their participation in the projects and network. The interview questions for the focus groups were developed in a participatory approach together with the participants of the networks (Nind, 2020). The transcriptions from the focus group followed Maulini's (2008) recommendations.

Data was collected ethically: LECU participants were given a code (ranging from 1 to 23) as were SINAN participants (ranging from 1 to 25). The process of value creation was reconstructed empirically following Krippendorf's (2018) methodological framework of thematic content analysis. As a result, the entire data corpus was gathered as text and a thorough closed reading was conducted. The close-reading has been complemented with ongoing topic-centred categorisation and coding of the empirical sources. The coding and categorisation processes were following deductively the aforementioned types of value creation mentioned (Wenger-Trainer & Wenger-Trainer, 2020) and the types of artefacts exchanged by participants (Daele, 2017). Applying the various aspects of each type of value creation and the typology of artefacts as a pattern of data analysis to the given texts helped the authors achieve a meaningful reconstruction of sense-making within the given social context. Additionally, also inductive categories were formed based on the specific topics mentioned in the empirical accounts.

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4.   Findings: Value creation along the network activities

Findings are presented grouped according to the value created by the main activities performed in the network: schools and university visits, duo and trio work, workshops and informal gatherings.

4.1   Experiencing other teachers at work: Creation of immediate value through school and university classroom visits

As a reminder, immediate value is created through meaningful activities. During the focus groups discussion, participants were asked about the most remarkable moments in the project. This question was designed to implicitly address those experiences which were most engaging, creating a sense of inclusion, and generally exposing participants to different social environments, perspectives and ideas. Immediate value is often created by arousing emotions, interpersonal bonding, and is often narrated in single, short-term events, that are very persistent in one's perception of an experience.

When listing the most memorable moments, participants rated the school visits as the most meaningful activities among the ones designed to steer interaction within the academic exchange programme.

Visits to university classrooms benefited at an individual level: the participants were more aware of other country's teaching experiences in the sense that all in all, as one member of SINAN put it, the problems are the same, only the resources are different:

> "Et on relève essentiellement les mêmes problèmes pour les enseignants malgré la différence au niveau de l'infrastructure. C'est vrai, on-peut avoir certaines classes qui sont très bien équipées, qui sont dotées de nouvelles technologies, mais les problèmes des enseignants sont les mêmes et les questions à poser sont en rapport avec le futur de ce métier". (SINAN_Participant_18)

On the pedagogical side, the participating teacher trainers were very eager to learn from each other's experiences to improve their teaching. Their everyday work does usually not provide many situations where they can experience other teachers live in action, especially not in international settings. The exchange of pedagogical concepts and methods throughout the network was very promising to them:

> "I would agree, I was in a different group of the school visits but that was definitely a memorable moment, because this woman... – it – was a big bulk, very little and a lot of children – and this woman was so in her role and she knew how to manage all the kids. They were kind of free but yet it was a very interesting experience to see them also on the playground afterwards." (SINAN_Participant_20).

Another remarkable situation occurred when a group of educational scholars from Egypt and Tunisia visited the woodwork and textile craft workshops at the Zurich University of Teacher Education. They were first puzzled that woodwork and textile craft play such an important role in the Swiss school curriculum and that they are very well equipped to practice diverse handcrafting skills. Discussing with the lecturers teaching handcrafts skills to teacher training students and later on with the schoolteachers seeing it being practised in the school, the Egyptian and Tunisian colleagues reflected on the objective of promoting competences such as creative thinking and problem solving.

> "L'art et la technique sont enseignés séparément et il n'y a pas d'atelier. Ce qu'on a vu, comment permettre à l'étudiant de manipuler des matériaux pour faire des maquettes, tout en travaillant un concept (e.g. le mouvement, la symétrie) vu dans d'autres cours. Il est intéressant de voir que ce genre d'atelier permet à l'étudiant de valoriser ses acquis scientifiques tout en le rendant capable de manipuler des machines et matériaux de manière autonome. En plus, les étudiants utilisaient beaucoup de matériel recyclable dans leur projet. Trois impressions que j'aimerais partager. L'atelier permet de développer: i) des compétences manuelles et de communication entre disciplines, ii) l'autonomie et la créativité de l'étudiant, iii) le rapport avec l'enseignant qui est très fluide". (SINAN_Participant_11)

Nevertheless, after seeing it in the school, safety concerns were made as for example, how kindergarten pupils used small saws autonomously. These experiences confronted them with their own self-evident truth which is somewhat questioned:

> "I have asked the teacher what the aim is within the handcraft workshop. The teacher answered it is about boosting problem-based learning and critical thinking. This is fine but I think there is something cultural, for instance, I would not allow or like to see my child doing this. Maybe we are overprotective". (SINAN_Participant_10).

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In the schools and university visits, a common theoretical understanding on teacher training across the Mediterranean was evidenced. Some differences were found in the practical application, but active engagement of students and pupils was visible in all cases. When being live in class, scholars get crucial insights into pedagogical aspects such as teacher-learner and learner-learner interaction, teaching methods, materials and concepts. School visits are particularly interesting for the participating teacher trainers, as they aim to enable their students to teach competently in class. Furthermore, the classroom visits also gave an impression into the structures of the host country's educational systems and the economic and pedagogical conditions mirrored in the available tools in class. As one participant in one of the first debriefing sessions said:

> "Visiting the schools [in Switzerland], especially for the visitors from Kosovo, we could see a lot of interesting aids and materials and also how the class looks like. How it differs from most of the schools in our country. The children don't have those kind of materials or that kind of board or aids in our schools. I said to myself: 'Wow, this is great, you know, for the children to be able to be taught in this way with different aids'". (LECU_participant_22).

The narrated personal experiences of the school visits follow a common pattern that can be observed between the lines: implicitly, participants used the school visits to make their opinion on the economic and educational situation of the guest country and this helped them to make comparisons. By gaining some insights into the different contexts, the participants became also aware of the historical background of each country and how a troubled past contributed to the current structures and conditions of the present educational system:

> "There are two situations which come spontaneously to my mind. One was in Pristina when our colleagues from Kosovo showed us this home school[40], this former home school during the war time and this was quite an emotional moment. I mean we had a very emotional insight to what it meant for them during that time". (LECU_Participant_17).

Besides immediate impressions and outcomes caused by emotionally intense encounters and astonishment, the participants also made experiences that improved their individual skills and transformed their mind sets (ibid., 85). In this regard, a Swiss participant mentioned in one debriefing session that seeing how teaching was being conducted in the Balkans changed her relationship towards her own students with roots in the region. Learning from her Albanian and Kosovar colleagues and experiencing the reality in these countries led her to change her attitude and impacted her conceptions of teacher training (LECU_Participant_6).

Apart from the school visits, a collective identity is shaped especially in informal encounters and situations. *"I also remember very well an afternoon [LECU_Participant_21] and I were taken around by Kozeta, an outstanding woman giving us so many insights about what it meant to grow up in Albania and the incredible history they have"* (LECU_Participant_3). Participants were bonding emotionally and personally by joining sightseeing excursions and taking meals together.

> "What I remember is laughter. We laughed a lot. I mean, yes, it is a project, very serious, we are supposed to do a lot of research and to learn from each other, but I do remember that from time to time to cheer u I remember laughter and the fact that this experience also strengthened my relationships I have with my colleagues in Tunisia. The way I look at [SINAN_Participant_25], I mean, he is a colleague, but the way I look at him and the way I share things with him has definitely changed by the fact that we share the experience of SINAN. So, yes laughter and the human level is extremely important." (SINAN_Participant_10).

In sum, immediate values were created through the different activities and interactions among participants, in moments where they were providing insights into each other's experiences, including other teachers' teaching practice. In visiting colleagues at work, our teachers identified with their tasks and challenges and felt empathic with their experiences, but at the same time recognised them as learning partners. Analysing each other's experiences also provided positive discomfort, in which one's own values and beliefs were questioned.

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40 In the 1990s, when Serbian authorities prohibited any form of teaching in the Albanian language, the Albanian population of Kosovo managed to set up an undercover, parallel education system ranging from elementary schools through university classes. (Hetemi, 2020, 216).

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4.2 Developing pedagogical competences: Creation of potential and applied value through workshops on competency-based concepts and the exchange of teaching practices

To remind us, potential value mainly refers to the knowledge capital that can be realised at a later stage and applied value involves its application (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2020, 79). During the focus group discussions, participants were asked about the content of the three-day meetings and the different workshops on competence-oriented education and on the exchange of teaching practices.

The overarching notion of competence-based education as the core topic of our IANs allowed the participants to touch upon many aspects of teacher education. Along with the schools and university visits, workshops and activities to exchange personal teaching practices were taking place. The main objects of discussion were not only the historical, economical or sociocultural perspective of education, but mainly the pedagogical and didactical approaches to teaching and learning. Pedagogy was discussed through its various visible forms and artefacts: design of lessons, methodologies, classroom management, teachers' leadership, inclusive education, the class atmosphere, pupils or students' autonomous learning, reflections on multiculturalism, laptops and other classroom resources, students' grouping, including reflecting on the 'pedagogical biplane' (teaching concept understood as modelling and reflecting about a certain teaching or learning method or situation with your students that they will subsequently apply in their teaching setting).

Many participants not only reflected on teaching concepts, learning methodologies or group dynamics, but in some cases also went on to adopt them in their own university. Generally the topics were not new, but discussing different ways of implementing them from an international perspective and providing further theoretical context brought new ideas and developments. For example, a workshop dedicated to the formulation of learning outcomes was mentioned several times, as the participating teacher trainers made use of this knowledge for improving the design of their courses:

"I would like to share my experience related to learning outcomes. Learning outcomes is one of the hot issues of the 21st century and we are trying at the university to use learning outcomes as part of the curriculum as part of each lesson and through this project I think that I gained knowledge and I proved my skills to write the best learning outcomes for my subjects. My field is educational and psychological assessment and learning outcomes are topics of theory and topics of practice, so from the personal level I can say that this project helped me to learn a lot in terms of theory and to improve real things related to writing and to using and to sharing experience in the terms of learning outcomes." (LECU_Participant_18).

The participant hence gained knowledge capital through the theoretical inputs and discussion in the workshops. This knowledge could in this case be translated into a change of practice in teaching and therefore also produced applied value (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner 2020, 89). Other participants revealed being inspired by the assessment workshop in LECU or the teaching philosophies dynamic in SINAN. With regard to assessment, it was mentioned: *"This is a thing that we are going through and a certain way also institutional. From my point of view, in my teaching what I'm more concerned is about competences in examinations"* (LECU_Participant_19).

Worth mentioning is the perspective of a participant whose experience in LECU meetings and the working of competency-oriented education topics and insights pushed the development of a pedagogical training programme for university teachers at her university. Since she is in charge of training university teachers of various disciplines at her home institution in Albania, potential value has been created from her participation:

"As for the institutional level, I can mention that the department of education and psychology where [LECU_Participant_10] and I are part are preparing a training programme for the university of [an Albanian university] and especially for teachers that are working in the faculties of economy, law and natural sciences because they lack pedagogical knowledge and skills. We prepared a training programme and have included topics that are related to learning cultures, learning outcomes, all types of student assessment and course evaluation. We hope that this training course will start in April or May, or in September maybe. So, we are using the experience that we get through LECU to transfer this knowledge and experience to other colleagues of the [Albanian] university. We prepared a policy document for professional development and presented it to the university. Now we are waiting for the feedback from the faculties that are interested to train their academic staff." (LECU_Participant_18).

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Among the collective achievements within the extending international network of SINAN and LECU, the book "Competence Oriented Teaching and Learning in Higher Education – Essentials" needs to be mentioned, because it contributed to the creation of potential value (ibid.). The book was edited by the project team member Heinz Bachmann and has been translated into Arabic and Albanian[41] (both versions have been made available as an open book for future improvements). Several participants considered it very helpful and sent it to their colleagues to support them develop their teaching skills.

"My university actually benefited what I shared with my colleagues: it was the book from Heinz. Actually, there are some professors in the Faculty of Education that teach specifically the language courses, this is very useful for them. As you know I teach English language, so this is also very beneficial for me. I read some parts of it, the ones I may need for some specific courses. And it was translated into Albanian [LECU_Participant_22]".

The meetings with their workshops, activities and resources, provided knowledge capital to the participants in that the new learnings developed had the potential to be transferred into their practice. The discussions and reflection around the meaning and implementation of various concepts of competence-oriented education were valuable for the further development of pedagogical competences.

4.3 Promoting research and innovation studies in higher education: Creation of realised, enabling and strategic value in duo and trio teamwork projects.

Other values transcended the previous phases of network performance and achievement. Realised value refers to materialisation in concrete actions. Enabling value is concerned with commitment of participants, their agency and their consideration of the space as creating enough value to support it and make it self-sustainable. In this area, duos and trio projects should count as network assets bringing personal, collective, institutional and scientific advancement, thus facilitating realised, enabling and strategic value, as explained in the following section.

The duos and trios projects – and their underlying concept of SoTL (Scholarship of Teaching and Learning) described in the introductory chapter of the book – had as its main objective to develop small-scope research and innovation studies in the field of teaching and learning in higher education. Participants were encouraged to build a trio or a duo and find a topic stemming from their own experiences, backgrounds and contexts that they wished to examine in a greater detail and analyse from a comparative perspective. The trio and duo work – as published in this volume – shows a wide representation of relevant topics around actual teaching innovations and scientific discussions, such as flipped classroom, coaching and group dynamics, mentoring, creative writing or interculturality, among others.

Addressing this work from a systematic and rigorous scientific approach was not free from difficulties. According to comments from the participants, working on a common paper in an international academic duo or trio was an enriching challenge. Facing language problems, physical distance, and having to complete the assignment while working full-time in an entirely different context was a demanding task. The opportunity to work on the project during the meetings was very well regarded. However, the full task could not be completed during the meeting days, and thus work had to be done back at home. Two trios did not make it to the end and the groups, for several reasons, were disbanded.

In the duo and trio projects, the participants could apply their intercultural competencies especially related to leadership, presentation, and teamwork in international and multicultural teams, but the different levels of language proficiency in English made it difficult for some participants to be fully engaged in conversations, even more in writing an academic paper. The strong personal connection helped them, however, overcome situations caused, for example, by very different disciplinary contexts:

"I have been suffering together with [LECU_Participant_4] in putting together this article. She is a maths professor and I'm really from a totally different angle. It took us a long time to find a common ground. And I was following her story working on her PhD in [neighbouring country], how difficult it was to go there, to travel there, how to find a place in the system. And it has been an enormous friendship that evolved over time." (LECU_Participant_3).

When working on their joint SoTL projects, duo and trio participants also described scheduling and establishing a reliable level of team compromise and task engagement

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as the most challenging. As a Swiss participant verbalised, the members of each duo and trio team had to commit to a common goal and stick to agreements. Through specific seeking of joint resolutions and supporting the trio members in their endeavour, one achieved a much more effective style of work within heterogeneous teams:

> "More on an organisational level, I think one possibility or opportunity could be to assign roles in the trios. That would help to clarify what is expected from whom, and as soon as people know what they have to do, they can do it. So maybe one is the head of the group, one is the timekeeper, one writes the minutes or does different tasks. And then we, in the group, could decide who is playing which role. We can set the cast." (SINAN_Participant_20).

Nonetheless, facing the challenges of academic writing, organisation, and negotiating roles within heterogeneous teams enabled the participants to develop their personal and professional skills. One of the fundamental changes in personal practice was reflected in becoming more assertive and adaptable when demanding circumstances within collaboration arose. The development and training of leadership and monitoring skills, including defining roles and tasks, also accounts as one of the main benefits the participants could further develop when engaging in duo and trio work. Participating in duos and trios was an opportunity for changes in personal practice and consequently an opportunity for realised value creation (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner 2020, 98).

Most projects targeted schoolteachers or students as providers of feedback about their experience on the implementation of their teaching innovations; only a few placed students at the centre of the experience and analysed this together with the teachers. The "maths and theatre project" and the "creative writing project" – both in this book – are good examples. In the project involving students in a creative writing project and a competition taking place in the two involved countries, participants reflected on the challenges encountered when encouraging students to take part:

> "I was working with [SINAN_Participant_10] – who is not today here – and I remember how surprised she was when we were doing a creative writing project and also a competition together. And I remember how surprised she was when I told her how difficult it is to convince or to encourage or to entice students to do work that might also be fun at our institution, work that doesn't give them any credits in terms of ECTS points." (SINAN_Participant_6)

credits in terms of ECTS points." (SINAN_Participant_6) Searching for student engagement in projects and gathering the students' opinions offered new understandings on the diversity of student interests and expectations across university cultures and countries.

The work in duos and trios produced an encouraging result: almost all teams managed to complete their complex studies and innovative projects and handed in the manuscripts published in this volume. This work on the publication of the papers has no less merit that the project itself. Realising each one of these projects in the different institutional settings and writing their comparative reflections is a clear example of realised value. That was possible because most participants took agency of their own project and managed to find time and space to support it and make it possible (enabling value). Some of the studies here published are already having an impact on the quality strategies of the corresponding universities (strategic value): some suggested a change in the processes of university candidate selection, in assessment policies, others curricular improvements at the level of course development, study programmes or at a faculty level. Many had a larger impact on the individual development of teaching competences. And least, but not last, trio and duo projects created value also because they contributed to the improvement of teaching and the development of SoTL studies.

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In sum, thanks to the duos and trios, new ideas and practices were applied, but also to a lesser or greater extent they can also influence the advancement of the disciplines, further develop the environment, improve the institutional reputation and receive the attention and recognition from stakeholders.

5.   Discussion and conclusions

In the conclusions, we would like to come back to the aim of the SCOPE project discussed in the introduction. Through both IANs and concepts of value creation in social forms of learning, the following discussion aims to contribute to better understand transcultural exchange processes in a globalised academic community. Particularly, we address the questions of the types of values that have been built in the LECU and SINAN networks, as well as the activities, interactions and artefacts through which the values have been generated. By looking at the values created, we indirectly review the pedagogical model underlying the networks. These conclusions also take the form of light recommendations for stakeholders who would like to implement sustainable CoP with academics of teacher education within IANs.

With regard to the types of values, LECU and SINAN have facilitated the creation of immediate, potential and applied values, but also realised and strategic values (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2020, 43). Participants were able to share knowledge and experiences, be supported in problem-solving and the development of pedagogical competences, were engaged in modelling teaching and have disseminated good principles and practices. The co-created scenario of IANs together with each individual partner engagement and the institutions' support contributed to the development of our academic mindset, offered reflection and awareness of new realities and to some extent transformed our approaches to learning and teaching.

Experiential learning, reflective practice, collaborative learning and learning through enquiry have been pedagogical approaches at the heart of the networks' activities. The activities that proved especially successful were the 3-day network meetings in each country with the visits to primary and secondary schools and to university classrooms. The informal social encounters during breaks and after meetings enriched us all personally and professionally, as we could better understand the particularities of each social and educational context. During meetings, addressing the overarching topic of competence-based teaching gave room for the country-project coordinators to decide the specific topic to focus on during meetings. A book supporting the read-

ings and discussions, as well as the different workshops organised, facilitated discussions and reflections around our role as teacher trainers at universities of teacher education, to question our teaching and assessment practices, and to look for improvement in order to enhance the engagement of students for a more successful learning experience at the university. Such deep analysis of teaching practices has had the potential to renew pedagogical habits.

In reference to Daele's (2017) list of artefacts that are commonly shared in a teacher trainer CoP, LECU and SINAN tasks facilitated the communication of and reflection on personal experiences (e.g. teaching philosophies), methodological contributions (e.g. workshops), evidences and theoretical references (e.g. handbook and the SoTL contribution of the duo and trio work), debate around norms and rules (e.g. to organise the work in the trios and duos), experiences (e.g. visits) and practical recommendations (e.g. organisation of meetings), which were successfully complemented with rich formal and informal gatherings (such as socio-cultural visits and expert talks).

One of the elements that proved the most challenging was bringing the trios together and completing the writing of an academic study using the SoTL approach. Alternatives to that had been the oral presentation of those projects in the final symposium. The success in completing the projects and their subsequent publication came after the perseverance of at least two group members to keep the work alive. The satisfaction of having a joint publication and the self-responsibility as academics made participants strive till the end.

We also acknowledge the following indicators of success, as they helped the organisational team achieve the networks aims: exchanging between local cultures in teaching and teacher education was extremely fruitful; the engagement and commitment of country organisers was key; an effective and constant project monitoring and supervision with transparent and fluid communication was fundamental; there were only a few dropouts, most participants showed high levels of commitment and were output-oriented; the relevance of promoting cooperation and expertise exchange among academics at the same 'eye-level', and having joint contributions for goal-oriented outputs.

All in all, there is a complex flux of opportunities and constraints in IANs. While challenges to networking such as language barriers, fear of non-visualisation or lack of engagement have to be addressed, gains and values including ample opportunities for transcultural learning, advancing intercultural competencies and enhancing professionalisation have been created. There-

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fore, we conclude that international collaborations are a reliable booster to meet manifold challenges in teacher training. As participants mentioned, engaging in SINAN and LECU helped them and their home institution with carving out a more international research profile. It also helped them to look at their home teacher training programme with new lenses. Publishing articles within the duo and trio teamwork added to this benefit. Also, some participants found individual partners for further cooperation projects and potential cooperation agreements with universities from the networks. And finally, the benefit can be felt beyond the network: the implementation of pedagogical concepts and principles that are internationally accepted can better nurture pedagogical decisions and models at local and national debates, while eventually contributing to the quality of local education at a national level.

Acknowledgements

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Appendix

Focus group questions:

1. **Special moments:**
   - During the network, we lived and experienced memorable moments. What were the most important experiences you made?

2. **Learnings gained, professionally:**
   - How can I transform my pedagogical practices and draw inspiration from practices observed in other national contexts, knowing that their frameworks are very different?
   - What have you learned professionally from your participation in the LECU/SINAN project and visits to institutions abroad? What new learnings have you put into practice at your institutions or at the teaching level (can you give one or two examples)?

3. **Personally:**
   - On a personal level, what have you learned in this project?

4. **Institutionally:**
   - Did SINAN or LECU have an impact on your institutions? If yes, how did your institution benefit from your participation in this project?

5. **Sustainable collaborations in networks:**
   - How can an international academic network support the participants to develop a mutual understanding?
   - How can we build sustainable professional collaborations in international groups (e.g. trios)? What benefits and risks do you see in international comparisons?
   - Beyond the network projects, how can we sustain the cooperation across institutions & boarders?

Observation grid:

Template for reporting the different moments of the workshop inspired by Le Compte & Preissle (1993, 199-200) and Spradley (1980, 78):

1. **Space**
   - How does the physical space look like?
   - How are participants behaving in this room?
   - 'Routines', do participants seem to be comfortable with this kind of room, room setting? Are there shared implicit rules?

2. **Actors**
   - Who is in the group/scene/activity and who is taking part?
   - How many people are there, their identities and their characteristics?
   - How do participants come to be members of the group/event/activity?
   - What are the statuses and roles of the participants?

3. **Goals**
   - What are actors trying to achieve?

4. **Event and activities**
   - What do actors do to try achieving this goal?
   - What is taking place? What activities do actors perform?
   - What kind of attitude do actors show (e.g. interest, boredom)?
   - Where does the event take place?
   - What rules govern the social organisation of, and behaviour in, the event?
   - Why is this event occurring, and occurring in the way it is?
   - How are activities being described, justified, explained, organised, labelled?

5. **Time**
   - When does the event take place?
   - How long does the event take place?
   - How is time used in the event?
   - To achieve a certain level of networking in a limited amount of time
   - What is the sequence of activities and events at the macro and microlevel?
   - At the micro level: describe for each activity.

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6. **Objects**

    – Which objects are available in the room for use within activities?
    – What objects and resources are being used in the scene and for which use?

7. **Topics discussed**

    – What appears to be the significant issues that are being discussed?
    – Which topics are discussed and what kind of attitude do they provoke?
    – Which languages are used and for what?

8. **Feelings**

    – What do people feel and how do they express this (e.g. enthusiasm, interest)?

9. **Rules**

    – What rules govern the social organisation of, and behaviour in, the event?
    – Who makes decisions and for whom?

SINAN Network: Participant Biographies

Erik Altorfer is a lecturer at Zurich University of Teacher Education and Zurich University of the Arts. He studied German and English literature and linguistics at the University of Zurich. Besides his work as a lecturer, he is a director and playwright both for theatre and radio. He has held writing workshops in Bahrain, Belarus, Bolivia and Egypt. Together with the Syrian playwright Mudar Alhaggi, he led writing/theatre workshops with refugees in Beirut, Graz (Austria) and Zurich (Switzerland). Since 2012, he has been the theatre expert for the Swiss Arts Council Pro Helvetia Cairo.

Francesco Arcidiacono holds a PhD in Psychology specialises in interaction, socialisation and communication and is Professor in the fields of development and social interactions. He is the director of the research department and, since August 2019, head of the new centre for sustaining and promoting research. His current fields of research are the analysis of social interactions and socio-cultural approaches, the professional development of teachers, qualitative methods in education and discursive practices, language and argumentation in educational contexts.

Kawthar Ayed holds a PhD in comparative literature and science fiction from the university of Aix-en-Provence, France. She is Assistant Professor at the University of Tunis. In 2014 she was elected Head of the ISEAHZ and re-elected in 2017. She actively contributes to the development of training programmes for school teachers. She organised seminars and study days on education and in-service training.

Farouk Bahri is director of studies and university researcher in education sciences. Committed to the reform and modernisation of the Tunisian education system, Farouk Bahri leads national and international projects on education and innovative pedagogy. As an academic, he facilitates courses and workshops on issues of non-formal education, gamification in education and intercultural approaches. He also specialises in the development of collaborative pedagogical approaches. A cultural activist eager to promote the historical heritage of his country, Farouk Bahri is the author of the epic saga Althiburos.

Sara Benini holds a degree in social work, social policies and the science of education from the University of Fribourg, Switzerland. She gained her research experience in intervention research projects (quasi-experimental), which she conducted in schools. Since 2016, she has worked in the Department of Teaching and Learning at the University of Applied Sciences and Arts of Southern Switzerland (DFA SUPSI). There she teaches educational theories and research methodology to students on all degree courses. She is involved with the competence centre for educational needs, school and society, working mainly on topics related to 'equity' and 'inclusive education'. She is also the departmental coordinator for internationalisation, which includes all the activities related to Swiss and international mobility.

Samir Boulos studied History, Philosophy and Arabic and acquired his teaching diploma for secondary level II at the University of Zurich. After his graduation as well as after his postgraduate studies he taught at various grammar schools. He conducted doctoral research on cultural entanglements, which took place in the sphere of influence of European-protestant missionary institutions in Egypt. During his studies he conducted several research and language stays in Egypt. In 2011/12 he was visiting fellow at Free University of Berlin. From 2013 to 2016 he worked as analyst for North Africa at the State Secretariat for Migration SEM. Starting in 2017 he is involved as lecturer at the Zurich University of Teacher Education. Working for the Department International Projects in Education (IPE), he focuses on the topics transculturality, migration and academic exchange and manged the projects "Swiss-North African Academic Network" (SINAN) as well as "Learning Cultures in Universities" (LECU).

Barbara Class teaches qualitative research methodology in the Master of Science in Learning and Teaching Technologies; research approaches in the the pre-doctoral training for research in digital education, DU REN; and offers a course on the distance learning coordinator in the e-learning continuing education programme. Her research interests include teaching and learning research methodology; designing and implementing online or blended learning programmes, mainly with a design based research approach; open education; active learning and teaching strategies. She also works as instructional designer and distance learning coordinator at the Faculty of Translation and Interpreting since 2004.

Judith Egloff studied biology at the University of Zurich and has been teaching students from different levels, from Year 1 up to Year 12. She is a lecturer in the didactics of sciences and social studies and is also a mentor for students during their practical work. In addition, she developed and co-authored teaching materials for kindergarten education. Currently, her main focus is on teacher training for pre-primary and lower primary education.

Adel Rasmy Hamad El-Nagdy is Dean of the Faculty of Education at Assuit University and Professor of Curricula and Methods of Teaching Social Studies. He founded and established the faculty of of Education at Assuit University. He also founded two centres: the Centre for Adult Education and the Centre of Evaluation and Measurement. He also initiated two new undergraduate programmes: the programme for teachers of maths, science and English for international schools, and the programme for teachers of computer science.

Dagmar Engfer is a coach and lecturer at the Centre for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education and Vice-Head of the Centre for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, as well as coach, team developer and trainer in her own company Engfer Coaching. Her coaching topics include leadership coaching, career coaching, burnout prevention, re-integration, conflict management, collaboration within teams and strategy development. She has broad experience as a coach and lecturer in different working areas, both in the public and private sectors and in an academic context.

Mònica Feixas is Associate Professor in the Department of Applied Pedagogy at the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (UAB), at this moment on a special leave. She holds a Licenciature in Pedagogy, a Master's degree (M.Ed) in Educational Administration (Teachers College, Columbia University), and a Doctorate (PhD) in Education (UAB). She has taught graduate and postgraduate courses in educational management and didactics in higher education for more than 20 years as part of teachers' initial and continuous training. She has been involved in research in the area of organisational development and higher education didactics. In 2014 she moved to Switzerland and was Research Fellow at the Institut für Wirtschaftspädagogik, Universität St. Gallen. At present, she works at the Zurich University of Teacher Education where, among other, she organises and teaches courses and conducts research on students' assessment. She collaborates regularly with academic development units of universities in Spain, Latin-America as well as Switzerland in research projects and pedagogical consultancy.

Olivia Franz-Klauser: After training as a primary school teacher, she studied Jewish Studies and earned her Doctorate. Demarcation and interdependence between Judaism and Christianity was one of her main areas of work. After various scientific projects and work in archives and libraries, she returned to school, taught subject didactics in the area of religions-cultures-ethics at the Zurich University of Teacher Education and accompanied students as a mentor. Today she offers further education and coaching in the field of religions-cultures-ethics via the platform hinundmehr.ch. besides her teaching as a primary school teacher.

Zakaria Gaber Henawy brings over 23 years of experience in mathematics and numeracy curriculum development in Egypt. He currently serves as Professor and Coordinator of the Mathematics and Science Programme within the Curriculum and Instruction Department of Asyut University. He works as a mathematics expert sharing in creating and reviewing the Global Proficiency Framework (GPF) aligned with Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 4.1.1. funded by UNESCO. He works as consultant for the STESSA Project funded by USAID preparing STEM teachers in the Faculty of Education and was engaged by Save the Children International as a consultant to design an educational manual for mathematics teachers for low achieving students in primary schools. He also worked as an expert for RTI International as Numeracy and Curriculum Expert to support PLP's early grade mathematics efforts in grades 1–3 by providing support to the Ministry of Education through curriculum review, revision and materials development process and contributing to teacher professional development and training accreditation.

Marie Jacobs holds a PhD in sciences of education from the University of Geneva and in political and social sciences from the University of Louvain. She conducts research and teaches, as associate professor at HEP Vaud, in the field of inclusive classroom management and educational relationship in heterogenous school contexts. Her doctoral thesis concerns the identity construction of students and ethnic dimension of youthful sociability in multicultural schools from Brussels and Johannesburg.

Nadia Lahiani is a Doctor in general linguistics. Her field of research concerns conflict in social interactions and, in particular, in debates. She is a teacher at the Higher Institute of Applied Studies in Humanities of Zaghouan in the Department of Teacher Education. She also directs a career and skills certification centre which aims to improve the professional integration of young graduates.

Sandra Lang is conducting empirical research on sustainability in science teaching at University of Zurich. She studied sociology and Jewish Studies and obtained her PhD in the field of Science and Technology Studies, with a particular focus on Chemistry. Her research interests include Qualitative social research methods, Gender Studies, History and Philosophy of Science, and Environmental Humanities.

Rym Laribi is Assistant Professor and Head of Studies and Internships at ISCE. She holds a PhD in educational sciences and didactics of natural sciences. At ISCE, she is also responsible for the curriculum reform project and, in cooperation with Unicef, for setting up a BA degree in early childhood education.

Amel Meziane-Fourati holds a PhD in Applied Linguistics from Essex University, United Kingdom. She has been working as a teaching assistant for the past eight years at the Higher Institute of Applied Studies in Humanities, Zaghouan (ISEAHZ), University of Tunis. She is also one of the Tunisian coordinators of SINAN, a project which aims to foster academic exchange between Swiss, Egyptian and Tunisian academics. Her research interests include second and third language acquisition, vocabulary in use, and innovative teaching approaches.

Clemens W. Pachlatko is currently working as the Head of Pedagogy and Counselling Department for the city of Winterthur. He used to work as principal and teacher at secondary school level in the city of Zurich. He holds an MAS in Educational Management. He has work experience in different countries. His areas of special interest are global education trends, studies on equality and reducing inequalities and how to enable students for a self-organised life (vocational preparation).

Selina Pfenniger obtained diplomas for Primary and Secondary Education for mathematics and social sciences. Later she studied Educational Sciences at the University of Basel. She worked on the project 'Visual Technology for the Autonomous Learning of Mathematics 2 - Learning in Context' (VITALmathsLIC), a Swiss-South African Joint Research Programme (SSA-JRP). In this context, she wrote her Master's thesis concerning the promotion of the discursive and linguistic dimensions in mathematics. She is course leader for teacher development in mathematics. She teaches Bachelor students in teaching mathematics. She has a mostly educational theoretical approach to mathematics teaching.

Andira Radhi holds a PhD in Theatrical Studies from Alexandria University (Egypt) and is Assistant Professor at the Higher Institute of Childhood Staff (ISCE) at the University of Carthage. She is the head of the Animation Techniques Department, a Member of the Scientific Council of the Institute and a Member of the National Committee of the Ministry of Higher Education in the Republic of Tunisia (which is in charge of monitoring, reviewing and rationalising technical programmes taught at Tunisian universities). She is an expert in educational curricula for pre-school children and a mentor and trainer for childhood educators (in public and private schools) in dramatising the educational programme and dramatic expression and moving puppets of all kinds. In the research area, she is an academic researcher in the field of didactic dramatic education. She has many research studies and articles published in specialised scientific journals on the importance of drama and its role within educational institutions and care spaces. She is also a writer of short stories and novels for children and teenagers.

Paola Ricciardi Joos holds a PhD in social psychology from the University of Lausanne and the University of Paris-Nanterre. In parallel to her studies and then work as a researcher, she has taught at universities of applied sciences. She joined HEP Vaud in 2009 as a pedagogical advisor. For three years, she has been in charge of the Teaching Support Center. Since 2020, she is in charge of continuing education at the Haute école de Santé Vaud.

Mohammed W. Rizkallah holds a PhD in STEM Education from the University of Minnesota. He has worked in the education sector in different capacities, starting from a teacher and progressing to school principal, as well as an educational consultant. He currently works as a consultant to several schools in Cairo, Egypt, as well as the Arabic Programme Director at the University of the People. In addition, he is an instructor at the School of Continuing Education and the Graduate School of Education at the American University in Cairo.

Katrin Tovote is a developmental psychologist and works as a lecturer at the University of Applied Sciences and Arts Northwestern Switzerland. Her interests of research are child development, culture, migration, poverty, learning in formal and non-formal educational settings and teacher training.

Josianne Veillette holds a Master's degree in history (Laval University, Québec, Canada). For her PhD (Plurilingualism and Foreign Language Teaching, University of Fribourg, Switzerland), she analysed the effects of representations of self, others and languages on the dynamics of cohabitation in plurilingual and pluricultural Swiss communities. In addition to her research and teaching, she has participated in national and international networks concerned with language learning and immigration, particularly in rural settings and in French-speaking areas, where immigration is less widespread. She is Professor of Languages and Interculturality at HEP-BEJUNE since August 2019. She supervises research projects and contributes to a range of pedagogical activities. Her scientific interests include linguistic, migration and educational policies that can lead to social practices of languages.