

7. DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS' LEADERSHIP COMPETENCE

Chairs:

**Dr. Ivars Muzis (Latvia),
Dr. Maja Ljubetić (Croatia)**

SATURA RĀDĪTĀJS / CONTENTS

ACTION RESEARCH IN LITHUANIAN SCHOOLS AS A PRECONDITION FOR LIFE-LONG LEARNING	577
DARBĪBAS IZPĒTE LIETUVAS SKOLĀS KĀ MŪŽIZGLĪTĪBAS NOSACĪJUMS <i>Reda Baranauskienė, Ingrida Baranauskienė</i>	
SCHOOL AS A MULTILEVEL LEARNING ORGANIZATION	588
SKOLA KĀ DAUDZLĪMEŅU MĀCĪŠANĀS ORGANIZĀCIJA <i>Maija Kokare</i>	
TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: QUALIFYING FOR QUALITY SELF-EVALUATION AND REFLECTION ON EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE	597
SKOLOTĀJU PROFESIONĀLĀ ATTĪSTĪBA – KVALIFICĒŠANA PAŠNOVĒRTĒŠANAI UN REFLEKSIJAI UZ MĀCĪBU PRAKSI <i>Maja Ljubetić</i>	
LEARNING-CENTERED LEADERSHIP	605
MĀCĪŠANĀS VADĪBA <i>Ivars Muzis</i>	
A PROJECT OF LATVIAN VOLLEYBALL FEDERATION “VOLLEYBALL ABC” – HOW TO DEVELOP VOLLEYBALL IN LATVIAN SCHOOLS?	611
LATVIJAS VOLEJBOLA FEDERĀCIJAS PROJEKTS “VOLEJBOLA ABC” – KĀ ATTĪSTĪT VOLEJBOLU LATVIJAS SKOLĀS? <i>Tamara Shkolnikova, Herbert Zoglowek</i>	
LĪDERĪBAS UN AUTORITĀTES JĒDZIENI SKOLOTĀJA PROFESIONĀLAJĀ DARBĪBĀ	624
CONCEPTION OF LEADERSHIP AND AUTHORITY AS A COMPONENT OF TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITY <i>Sandra Smilga</i>	
CRITERIA OF LEADERSHIP AND AUTHORITY AS A COMPONENT OF TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITY	635
LĪDERĪBAS UN AUTORITĀTES KRITĒRIJI SKOLOTĀJA PROFESIONĀLAJĀ DARBĪBĀ <i>Sandra Smilga, Irēna Žogla</i>	

ACTION RESEARCH IN LITHUANIAN SCHOOLS AS A PRECONDITION FOR LIFE-LONG LEARNING

DARBĪBAS IZPĒTE LIETUVAS SKOLĀS KĀ MŪŽIZGLĪTĪBAS NOSACĪJUMS

Reda Baranauskienė, Ingrida Baranauskienė

Šiauliai University, Lithuania

Abstract

The article deals with the possibilities of the incorporation of action research into teachers' education as well as into their life-long career. Action research serves as a precondition for the development of critical thinking of teachers who seek to improve both educational context and process. It provides opportunities for the teamwork of different professionals working in educational institutions and encourages them to bridge the gap between theory gained at universities and real world practice at schools. Involvement of students, parents, school managers and education policy makers in the action research guarantees the validity and relevance of the research carried out at schools.

Keywords: action research; participatory paradigm; reflection; bridging the gap between theory and practice; EFL teaching problems; involvement of social pedagogues in the action research; life-long learning.

Introduction

Lithuania is changing its attitude towards teaching – learning processes and towards the conception of education in general. Such educational context leaves less space for indoctrination, traditions, authorities, although it becomes one of the greatest challenges to our comparatively traditional teachers and students. Formerly, a lot of Lithuanian teachers and pupils had no possibilities to think and to work independently. Thus, it would be unnatural to expect rapid changes in the constructs of their minds. Liberalization of mind is a long process (Baranauskienė, 2001). Learning a foreign language is a personal investment of a learner into the further development in his career. Each student has a right to choose a more individualized, differentiated, modified or adapted learning programme. That is why action research done by the teachers should be based on the analysis of students learning styles, preferences of learning methods and techniques.

Action research represents a growing field of educational research whose chief identifying characteristic is the recognition of the pragmatic requirements of educational practitioners for organized reflective inquiry into classroom instruction. Action research is a process designed to empower all participants in the educational process (students, teachers and other parties) with the means to improve the practices conducted within the educational experience (Hopkins, 1993). Therefore, action research in Lithuanian schools gains its importance. “Traditional” or conservative approach shifts to liberal education and reflective model of teaching and learning. Teachers and learners can take the opportunity to improve their teaching and learning processes. But scientific research as regards realization of action research in Lithuanian educational institutions is not abundant and requires a more precise investigation. Our experience, as English teachers as well as special educators, has proved that action research not only helps to analyse the problems occurring in the classroom, but also provides guidance how to cope with them. Therefore, action research in educational institutions serves as a precondition for teachers' and students' life-long learning in Lithuanian schools and needs to be explained in a more precise detail.

The issue of action research has been discussed by both foreign (Becher, 1980; Broudy, 1978; Drucker, 1993; Zuber – Skerritt, 1991; Bell, 1993; Carr, Kemmis, 1986; Corey, 1953; Elliot, 1978; Hopkins, 1993; Rouf, 1989; Sparrow, Robinson, 1994; Bryman, 1984; Lewin, 1948; Meyer, 1993; Wallace, 1991; Lippitt, 1986; Hodkinson, 1957; Whyte, 1991; Baskerville, 1997; Susman, 1983; Bryman, 1984; etc.) and by Lithuanian authors in various aspects and in various contexts (Baranauskienė, 2001; Jucevičienė, 1999; Kraujutaitytė, 1997; Lipinskienė, 1999; Šveikauskas, Jucevičienė, 1999; etc.).

Consequently, the **aim** of this article is to reveal the most important aspects of action research in Lithuanian schools as a precondition for life-long learning.

It also includes some further **objectives**:

- To specify the changes in higher education in the aspect of preparing teachers of English and social pedagogues in Lithuania;
- To define the action research in context, process and practice.
- To provide for peculiarities of realising action research in Lithuanian schools.

Hypothesis is that inclusion of action research elements into teacher education programs can serve as a precondition for life – long learning.

Methods applied in the article: 1) scientific literature analysis; 2) the method of structured interview; the method of statistical analysis which helped to systematize and generalise the results.

As regards the structure of the work, it consists of an *Introduction, Three parts, Conclusions, References*. In the *first part* of paper we will specify the changes in the higher education in the aspect of preparing teachers of English and social pedagogues. In the *second part* we will define the action research in context, process and practice. In the *third part* we will provide certain peculiarities of action research in Lithuanian schools.

I. Changes in Higher Education in the Aspect of Preparing Teachers of English and Social Pedagogues

Different models of higher education

The educational system in Lithuania is undergoing radical changes and reforms. As Lithuania has quite a negative experience of being a member of the former Soviet Union for fifty years the ideas of liberalism and democracy are penetrating into teaching process quite painfully. Higher education in Lithuania also could not escape from reforms and changes specific to the higher education in Western Europe. Drucker (1993) and Jucevičienė (1997) claim that it is necessary to modify higher education enriching it with reflective didactics which serves as the main precondition for teachers' and students' self – expression and self – development.

Although, the gradual changes in the models of higher education have been investigated in Western countries and in the world, the development of higher education models in the context ***of the shift in the paradigm of higher education and educational research methodology***, however, has not been investigated as a separate research problem. Besides, it is not clear which higher education model students and practice teachers give preference to; what difficulties they encounter while realizing action research as a part of study curriculum (Baranauskienė, 2002).

As a response to behaviourism, cognitive theories have evolved. More attention has been paid to the human mind. The combination of those two theories brought '**Applied Science Model**' into being. This model derives its authority from the achievements of empirical science that is why, practical knowledge of anything is simply a matter of relating the best means to objectives, which have been set (Wallace, 1992). The practice is separated from theoretical findings and

becomes instrumental in its nature. Only the experts in the knowledge can establish some changes in education. Students remain passive consumers of *status quo* knowledge once again. “It was the business of the university based scientists and scholars to create the fundamental theory which professionals and technicians would apply in practice...” (Schon, 1983)

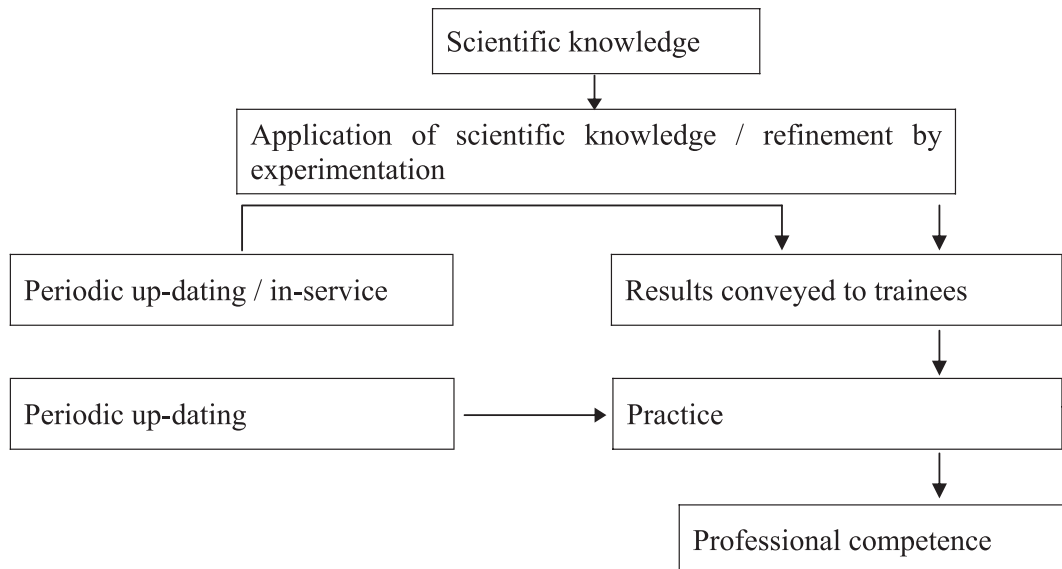


Figure 2. Applied Science model (Wallace, 1992)

The applied science model considers the academic researcher to be the primary source of professional knowledge. In the **reflective model** academicians are also acknowledged, but on equal terms with students and practice teachers – the subjects of the studying process. The reflective model lays stress on the fact that students do not come to universities with blank minds or neutral assumptions about education. “*Theory transforms practice by transforming the ways in which practice is experienced and understood. The transition is not, therefore, from theory to practice as such, but rather from irrationality, from ignorance and habit to knowledge and reflection*” (Carr 1980:66).

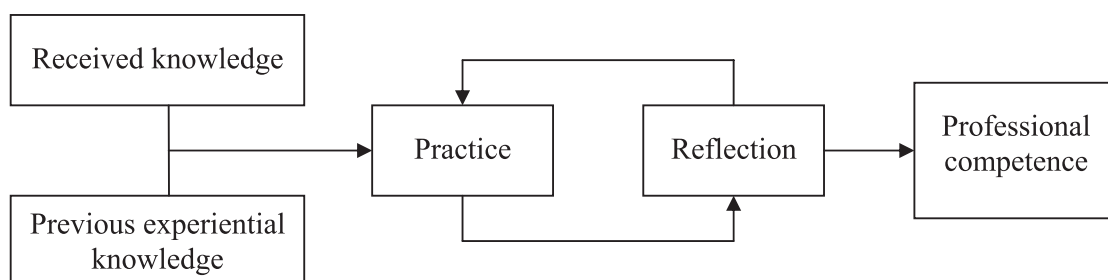


Figure 3. The Reflective model (Wallace, 1991)

The goal of higher education is to change students in two desirable directions, i.e. external perspective (accredited by certificates, grades, diplomas, etc.) and internal perspective (certified by the shift in thinking about personal learning process, self-concept and professional development) (Baranauskienė, 2002).

Universities, seeking to transform the indoctrinated and rote learning into the meaningful one should encourage the development of the reflective study model, which not only enables active participation in emancipatory action research, but also serves as the most influential factor for the shift in the paradigm of higher education in general (Baranauskienė, 2002).

Integration of theory and practice through action research

There are no certain prescriptions for good teaching. There are no well-proved techniques for guaranteeing quality. There are only teachers, and educational effectiveness depends on their professionalism, their experience, and their commitment. Research on teachers' beliefs suggests that they are derived from a number of different sources: their own experience as language learners or receivers of social provision, experience that works best, established practice, personality factors, research based principles, principles derived from an approach (Kindsvatter, Willen, and Ishler, 1988).

These beliefs correspond to the liberal principles of education. "*The central values of liberal education include freedom, autonomy, individualism, equality, a suspicion of authority and tradition, toleration critical rationality, science, and a belief in progress*" (Kimbal 1986: 256; Bowers 1987: 17, 19–31).

Furthermore, language teaching as well as social pedagogy has achieved a sense of autonomy with its own knowledge base, paradigms and research agenda. Applied science research in this sphere is not substantial. We lack evidence in teaching practice of the prospective teachers of English and social pedagogues. Teaching practice is mainly based on teachers' intuition, but not on scientific research initiated by practitioners. Universities should encourage students to be active investigators during their teaching practice, i.e. to participate in action research: to investigate the content, methods and principles of EFL and SEN teaching, linking their personal experience, observations and theoretical material (Baranauskienė, 2001).

Action research might be used to improve the quality of teaching and learning processes. The subject of action research is to analyse particularities and possibilities of reflective study practice realization while preparing prospective teachers of English and social pedagogues. Qualitatively new studying process based on critical and reflective thinking, action learning, and action research becomes increasingly recognized as a useful mode of human inquiry for managing and empowering the shift of traditional teaching paradigm into alternative life long learning paradigm (Baranauskienė, 2001). Reflective studying model is a part of action research in higher education which leads to the improvement of learning and teaching, encourages critical thinking, accountability, self evaluation and higher professionalism in future career (Zuber – Skerritt, 1992).

Hence, teaching in a fast moving society must change so as to keep educational innovations such as critical thinking, liberal education, student and teacher partnership, academic freedom, transmission of democratic culture, openness to society (Šveikaukas, Jucevičienė, 1999) beneficial for the process of modernization of higher education.

Teaching staff can be active researchers and evaluators of their own work through analyzing students' feedback on their teaching styles, methods and quality of work. It would be ideal, if there could be a dialectical relationship between intentions, strategic actions, personal responsibility, self-evaluation, self-directedness, and some restrictions of the institution (Baranauskienė, 2001). Learning, teaching and staff development in higher education are both theoretical and practical, so the purpose of research is *to close or bridge the gap between theory and practice*. Research into higher education is valuable if it helps teachers and their students to improve their practice. Consequently, we can claim that there is a dialectical relationship between theory arising from practice and practice being improved by theory (Baranauskienė, 2002). In critical theory this dialectic between theory and practice is called *praxis* (Habermas,

1974). *Knowledge is derived from practice, and practice informed by knowledge, in an ongoing process, is a cornerstone of action research* (O'Brien, 2001).

Kolb (1984) claims that action research helps to cover the gap between theory and practice, the gap between abstract conceptualization and concrete experience, the gap between affective and cognitive domains. Lewin (1948) describes the nature of action research, which later on Kolb (1984) develops into four-stage cycle of experiential learning. The cycle of learning process consists of active experimentation, concrete experience, reflective observation and abstract conceptualization.

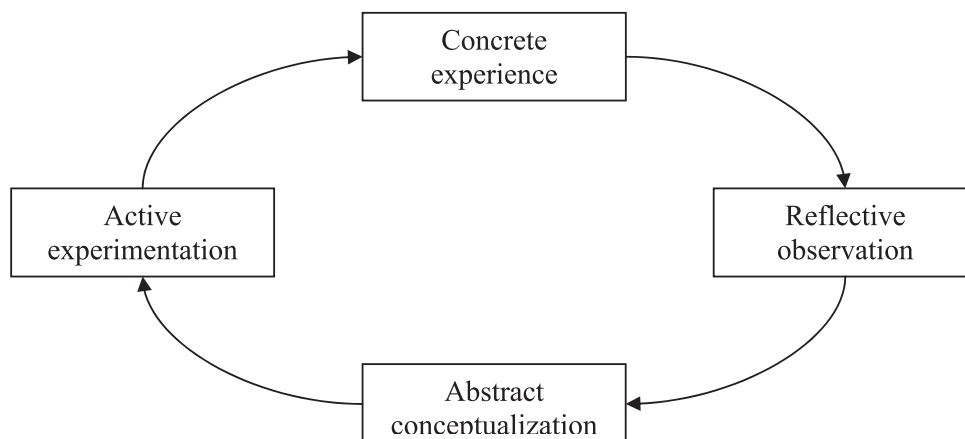


Figure 4. Kolb's model of experiential learning (Kolb, 1984, p. 42)

In our conservative and traditional society a big number of teachers may occur in a rather controversial situation. The shift from traditional teaching paradigm towards alternative learning paradigm is the consequence of dialectic transition from behaviourist and cognitive theories of education to holistic, reflective theories based on action research and synthesis of theory and practice (Baranauskienė, 2001). To sum it up, the new paradigm of research (*action research*) suggests that learning is a process whereby knowledge is created through transformation of personal experience and rational critique of theory. Reflective studying model is a novelty to Lithuanian teaching staff, administration, students and teachers. It enables students to get involved into their own learning process, expands the possibilities for perception how interactions between lecturers, students and activities can influence the quality of learning process.

II. Action Research in Context, Process and Practice

Action research in context

A lot of problems and questions emerge in different spheres where people interact among themselves. Action research helps practitioners, managers and researchers to make sense of the problems in service delivery and in promoting initiatives for change and improvement. Very often theory is separate from practice. Tierney and Taylor have pointed out: "*there is no one "best" way of bringing research and practice into closer alliance*" (1991, p. 506); action research was "*designed specifically for bridging the gap between theory, research and practice*" (Holter and Schwartz – Barcott 1993, p. 299).

Several attributes separate action research from other types of action research. Primary is its focus on turning the *people involved into researchers*, too – people learn best, and more willingly apply what they have learned, when they do it themselves. It also has a social dimension – *the research takes place in real-world situations*, and aims to solve real problems.

Finally, the initiating *researcher, unlike in other disciplines, makes no attempt to remain objective*, but openly acknowledges their bias to the other participants (O'Brien, 2001).

Many scientists worked in the sphere of action research. We are going to define some important facets in the history of action research, focusing in particular on the pioneering work of Kurt Lewin (1890–1947), and moving on to the outline related developments in organizational research, community development and education.

Action research began as a unified approach to social enquiry and fragmented through its history. In its origins, the essence of action research is a simple two-stage process.

First, the *diagnostic stage* involves a collaborative analysis of the social situation by the researcher and the subjects of the research. Theories are formulated concerning the nature of the research domain.

Second, the *therapeutic stage* involves collaborative change experiments. In this stage changes are introduced and the effects are studied (Blum, 1955).

For Lewin (1946) “*Rational social management, therefore, proceeds in a spiral of steps each of which is composed of a circle of planning, action, and fact-finding about the result of the action*” (Lewin, 1946, p. 206).

A more radical form of organizational research which draws on later work at the Tavistock is what Whyte (1991) has termed ‘participatory action research’ (PAR). According to Whyte (1991) PAR is applied research. **In Whyte’s view the strength of the approach is that it contributes both to problem-solving and to theory building.**

Now we are going to define action research in education. According to Kemmis (1982) action research was absorbed into education from the earliest beginnings of the development of Lewin’s ideas, with the latter working alongside teachers in action research programs.

Carr (1989) controverts that Elliot’s article “What is action research in schools?” marked the arrival of a British research paradigm which had been developed in the USA as a radical alternative to orthodox approaches to social and educational research. *Dissatisfaction on the part of teachers with the ‘expert’ role of outside academic researchers has prompted the development of educational action research in which the teacher and researcher become one and the same, and where action research becomes vehicle for professionalism* (Winter, 1989; Elliot, 1999; Mc Kernan, 1991).

Action research in education is seen as a means of closing the so-called “theory-practice gap”. Power for change lies in the use of action research to develop a critically reflexive practice in which theory and practice are integrated and theory emerges from practice. Elliot (1991) views action research as a form of reflexive practice and argues that it can become a “cultural innovation”.

To sum it up, we have traced some important trends in the development of action research. Lewin’s ideas of action research as a form of collaboration between social scientists and practitioners are relevant in our days too, because action research is *an expression of an essentially democratic spirit in social research*.

Action research in process

We have outlined some important facts in the history of action research, consequently, it is important to clarify the concept “action research” itself. Susman and Evered presented the most prevalent definition of action research in 1978. It consists of five phases – cyclical processes. The approach first requires the establishment of a client-system infrastructure or research environment. Then, five identifiable phases are iterated:

- diagnosing;
- action planning;

- action taking;
- evaluating;
- specifying learning.

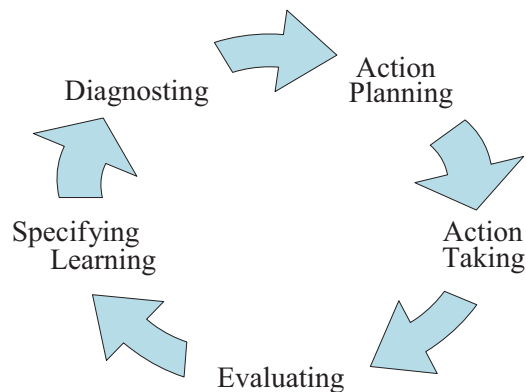


Figure 5. The Action Research Cycle (Baskerville, 1997)

Robottom and Colquhoun (1993) represent research in this way:

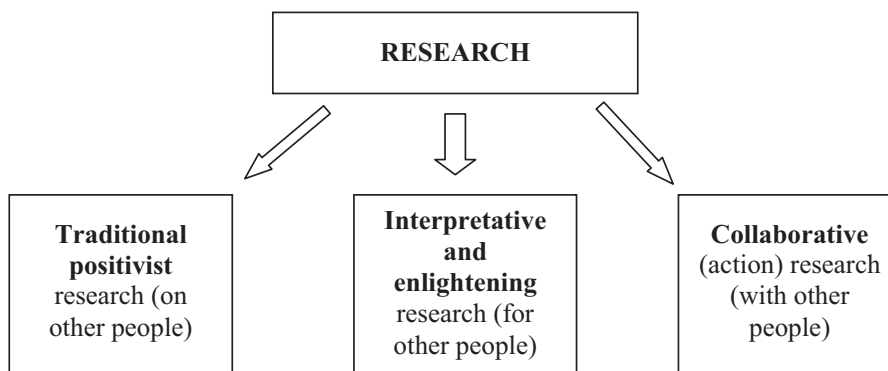


Figure 6. Characterization of Action Research (Robottom and Colquhoun, 1993)

One of the distinguishing features of action research is that “*it is concerned to solve problems in an immediate situation and within a particular setting*” (Bell, 1984: 43–6; Robson 1993: 60). Action research offers the possibility of a range of strategies and methods. The way in which problems are formulated and solutions are sought will depend upon the particular configurations of power and vested interests within a particular policy context.

Action research in practice

It is often the case that those who apply this approach are practitioners who wish to improve understanding of their practice. Everitt (1992) says that the *first question* in undertaking participatory or indeed any research should always be “What is the purpose of the research?” in practice as in research. The question “why?” must assume equal importance with the questions “what?” and “how?” Research of any kind about aspects of social life raises issues about the nature of the relationships between the person doing the research and those whose who are being researched. Action research can be as simple as raising a question about some educational practice and collecting information to answer the question, or can be as complicated

as applying a t-Test to determine whether or not post-test results from an experimental group are statistically significant.

Anyone in a school district could do action research – teachers, principals, special educators, social pedagogues, and etc.

On the whole, all given definitions of action research, are basically similar though they are based on the different types of cultural implications. They cover such essential things as the history of the action research, the typology of action research and main issues and dilemmas of an action research in a particular country and its educational settings.

III. Action Research in Lithuanian schools as a precondition for life-long learning

Practitioners in order to renew their schools and classrooms and promote instructional improvement in Lithuanian schools can use action research, among other methods.

We carried out the research last year in Pandėlys secondary school in Rokiškis (Lithuania). A prospective teacher of English Laima Adamoniene was the initiator of the action research. Reda Baranauskiene and Ingrida Baranauskiene were her tutors. The issue of our research was foreign language teaching and special learning problems. 97 students, 66 their parents and 10 foreign language teachers and 2 social pedagogues participated in the research. English and German teachers were questioned because English is a new subject in this school and only three teachers of English teach here. But teaching of German has deep and old traditions and experienced German teachers work here.

They had to answer questions presented in the questionnaires for students, their parents and teachers. The purpose of the survey was to get more information about foreign language learning and teaching problems in a particular school. The 6th–12th form students participated in the survey. The 9th form students participated mostly.

Children have special problems with foreign language learning and lack communication with the teaching staff in order to seek for additional or individual support for their children.

In both diagrams (see diagrams 1, 2) dominating description of teachers is well versed (27% and 28%). It shows that a lot parents and students trust and confide in teachers and social pedagogues. 54 (24%) students think that their teachers are fair, although the description “fair” takes only 11% (13 parents) in parents’ diagram. According to both diagrams (see diagrams 1, 2) students and their parents described teachers in a positive way and a few respondents’ opinion was negative. It shows positive attitude towards teachers and it means that interaction among teachers and students is based on confidence.

Some teachers 3 (20%) have difficulties with discipline in the classroom, 2 (13%) marked Formulating aims for a lesson and 1 (7%) pointed out working with children having different learning abilities. It should be emphasized that teachers bristle with difficulties in a lesson.

It was important to get know what factors inconvenience teaching. The results of the survey show (diagram 1) that different factors were pointed out: all respondents (10 (25%)) marked different students’ abilities, 8 (20%) – students’ absences from school, 7 (18%) – students’ reluctance to learn, 5 (13%) – undisciplined students and too many students in class, 3 (8%) – shortage of educational aids, 1 (3%) – student’s family background and parents’ disinterest in their children’s learning and progress.

Teachers may often be teaching a class which has students who are clearly of different levels. They may have different starting levels of foreign language or they may learn at very different speed – for a number of reasons. There are several strategies that a teacher can use to deal with this situation: discussion and needs analysis, student self-awareness, work groupings.

Overall, variety in the types of working groups, and an open discussion of the class situation will help to deal with some of the difficulties that are present in mixed ability classes. The aim of these strategies is to create a positive working environment, which is eventually may ensure better learning.

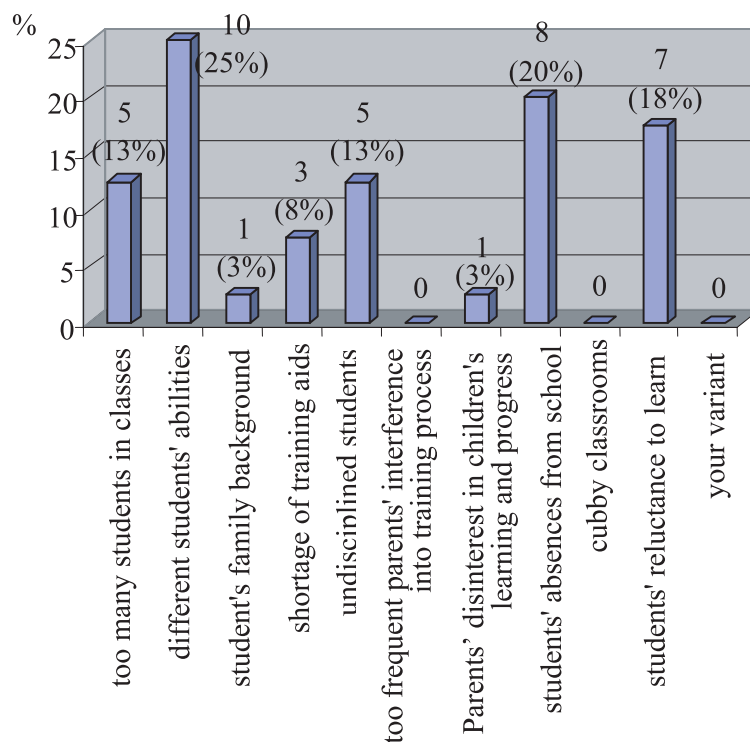


Diagram 1: Factors inconveniencing teaching

Teachers who are confronted with such difficulties as students' reluctance to learn or students' absences from school have problems with students' motivation. Teachers can aim to improve the motivation levels of teenage students. Psychologist Rogers (1957) outlined 3 attitudinal qualities that a teacher, or in his words, a facilitator, should have to assist the learning process. They are empathetic (seeing things from the students' view point), authentic (being themselves) and accepting students' ideas and opinions (through constant feedback getting).

Sometimes teachers have problems with undisciplined students. Students come to our classroom from their good or dysfunctional families. Also they come to classroom in a certain state of mind, in a good or bad mood, and we become the unwilling recipients of the aftermath, or the pre-shock, as the case may be. One of the most widespread reasons for bad discipline, however, is usually a student's inability to cope with the tasks. The noisiest students will demonstrate their frustration by loud outbursts, disruptive behaviour, while the rest of the class may remain passive.

On the grounds of these results we may draw some conclusions. The purpose of this empirical investigation was to identify factors influencing equality of teaching and learning. It should be emphasized that factors influencing equality of teaching and learning are external or internal such as social factors (family background, material conditions for learning at home), students' emotional background, their motivation, parents' educational level, teachers' professional competence, different students' abilities, shortage of educational aids, parents' disinterest in their children's learning and progress, and others.

Conclusions

1. Traditional teachers cannot avoid the confrontation with liberal education and communicative approach towards language teaching, which inevitably changes their assumptions about teaching and learning processes. A completely new paradigm of research is presented, and it suggests that learning and teaching is a process, whereby knowledge is created through transformation of personal experience and rational critique of theory.
2. Analysis of theoretical literature helps to understand the importance of action research in EFL classrooms. Action research in the classroom helps to analyse students' learning styles, preference of learning techniques, consequently learning of a foreign language becomes more successful and meaningful.
3. Action research and self – analysis enables teachers to liquidate the gap between theory and practice, between academic truths and personal experience and to work more efficiently.
4. Action research has the potential to generate genuine and sustained improvements in schools. It gives teachers new opportunities to reflect on and assess their teaching; to explore and test new ideas, methods, and materials; to assess how effective the new approaches were; to share feedback with fellow team members; and to make decisions about working in a team with other professionals (social pedagogues) in order to amend the curriculum, instruction, and assessment plans.
5. The empirical investigation showed that action research is the most appropriate for teachers who recognize the existence of shortcomings in their educational activities and who would like to adopt some initial stance in regard to the problem, formulate a plan, carry out an intervention, evaluate the outcomes and develop further strategies for successful teaching and learning.

References

1. Baranauskienė, R. (2001) *Some Insights from Liberal and Reflective Models of Education for Preparation of ESL teachers in Lithuania*. ATEE Spring University 2001. Realising Educational Problems. Klaipėda, 2001.
2. Baranauskienė, R. (2002) *The Model of Reflective Practice as an Empowering Factor for the Shift in the Paradigm of Higher Education (in the Context of ESL Teacher Training)*. Kauno technologijos universitetas. Socialiniai mokslai. Nr. 4 (36). Kaunas. Technologija. 2002.
3. Baskerville, R. (1997) "Distinguishing Action Research From Participative Case Studies," *Journal of Systems and Information Technology*, (1) 1, pp. 25–45. (04/12/2005). Available:
4. Carr, W. and Kemmis, S. (1986) *Becoming Critical: Education, Knowledge and Action Research*. London, Falmer Press.
5. Cohen, L. and Manion, L. (1984) 'Action research' in J. Bell *et al.* (eds) *Conducting Small – scale Investigations in Educational Management*. London, Paul Chapman in association with the Open University, pp. 41–57.
6. Eden, C. and Huxham, C. (1993) *Distinguishing action research*, Working Paper 93 / 18. Paper presented to the British Academy of Management Conference, Milton Keynes, September.
7. Gill, J. and Johnson, P. (1991) *Research Methods for Managers*. London, Paul Chapman.
8. Hodgkinson, H. L. (1957) 'Action research: a critique', in S. Kemmis, *et al.* (eds) *The Action Research Reader*, 2nd edn (1982). Australia, Deakin University Press.
9. Holter, I. M. and Schwartz-Barcott, D. (1993) 'Action research: what is it? How has it been used and how can it be used in nursing?', *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 19, 298–304.
10. Kemmis, S. *et al.* (1982) *The Action Research Reader*, 2nd edn. Australia, Deakin University Press.

11. Lathlean, J. (1994). 'Choosing an appropriate methodology', in J. Buckeldee and R. McMahon (eds) *The Research Experience in Nursing*. London, Chapman and Hall, pp. 31–46.
12. Lewin, K. (1946) 'Action research and minority problems', in G. W. Lewin (ed.) *Resolving Social Conflicts: Selected Papers on Group Dynamics by Kurt Lewin* (1948). New York, Harper and Brothers.
13. Morgan, G. (1986) *Images of Organization*. London, Sage.
14. Rapoport, R. N. (1970) 'Three dilemmas in action research', *Human Relations*, 23 (6), 499–513.
15. Schon, D. A. (1983) *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. New York: Basic Books. (16/12/2005) Available: <http://physicsed.buffalostate.edu/danowner/actionrsch.html>
16. Whyte, W. F. (ed.) (1991) *Participatory Action Research*. New York, Sage.

About the authors

Reda Baranauskienė – Šiauliai University, Faculty of Humanities, Associate professor in the Department of English Philology, PhD in Social Sciences.

The areas of scientific interests: the synthesis of theory and practice in the process of university studies. Reflexive study practice in training of future teachers of English, translation strategies in the process of translation

E-mail afk@hu.su.lt

Ingrida Baranauskienė – Dean of the Faculty of Social Welfare and Disability Studies. Associate professor in the Department of Social Education and Psychology. Actively participates in the preparation and implementation of international projects on the issues of vocational rehabilitation of the disabled. Has published her works in Lithuania and abroad. Co-author of a scientific monograph, 7 textbooks and methodical aids for the development of the contents of vocational education of persons with mild mental disorders.

The area of scientific interests – vocational rehabilitation of the disabled.

E-mail i.baranauskiene@cr.su.lt

SCHOOL AS A MULTILEVEL LEARNING ORGANIZATION

SKOLA KĀ DAUDZLĪMEŅU MĀCĪŠANĀS ORGANIZĀCIJA

Maija Kokare

University of Latvia

Abstract

The purpose of the paper is to describe a school as a learning organization and to advance theses for further qualitative research, aiming at a complete understanding of the processes of forming a school as an educational institution into a multilevel learning organization.

Firstly, there is a survey of literature that deals with the development of the concepts of a learning organization and an organizational learning in this paper.

Secondly, in focus of the paper from the theoretical point of view is the application of two types of perspectives: the management position, using the structural approach, and the social position, using the activity theory. These two types of perspectives are completely different; however, they are not independent: the development of a school from the view of management is a prerequisite to the development of the social aspect and vice versa.

Thirdly, the concepts of a learning organization and an organizational learning are interpreted in pedagogy. Four aspects of field studies in Latvia and case studies in one particular school are nominated: the formal aspect, the structural aspect, the cognitive aspect, and the social aspect. In the paper the term “multilevel” is used referring to the type of perception and reflection, as well as the system of values and the cognitive experience of particular groups of individuals – the pupils, teachers, and the management.

Finally, as a result of the field and case studies, a series of issues, problems and contradictions are raised and theses for further research are developed.

Keywords: learning organization, organizational learning, teachers' workplace learning.

Introduction

At present, there are wide discussions about the crisis in the educational system, and we are all taking part in the educational reforms. In each country this process is different as the historical background varies; however, the essence is the same: currently the main task of a school is no longer to prepare pupils only for the labour market, and no longer is stress laid upon pupils' competitiveness in any aspect of their studies and everyday activities. The task lies, as far as it is possible, in the development of a pupil's personality: thinking, self-confidence, creativity, learning potential, interpersonal and social competencies; and not separate learning theories, but the whole school's learning culture is the key factor in that process. If we need to promote the growth of pupils' potential for a meaningful life, it is not enough to work only at instructional methodology. It is essential to develop the culture of a school so that it becomes a learning organization not only at pupils' level, but at all possible levels, as actually it should be, if both individual and institutional factors of success are expressed as an ability to learn, collaborate and change.

In a situation when the avalanche-type development of information environment makes it impossible for a teacher to play the role of the holder of the absolute truth, teachers need to acquire a new stand, change themselves and modify the forms of dominance, which would also help to maintain and develop their self-assessment and the desire to work at school.

An understanding of the workings of a school as a learning organization is an instrument of changing the teacher's competences when dealing with problems, routine and the necessity to comply with the institutional requirements and the order established by earlier perceptions.

Learning organization. The development of the concept

The development of the concept “a learning organization” dates back to 1938 when John Dewey used the term ‘experiential learning’. Dewey defined education (and in today’s understanding it could be called by learning) as “a continuous reorganisation and reconstruction of experience.” (Dewey, 1938 (1974), p. 47) According to Dewey, learning involves both action and cognition.

The formation of the concept has been influenced by several noteworthy ideas and conceptions related to these ideas, however, the issue about the definition is still disputable. Two distinctive, but related concepts are used: a learning organization and organizational learning. Mostly a learning organization is defined as an ideal, an organization in which both individual and collective learning are the key factors: “A learning organization is an organization skilled at creating, acquiring and transferring knowledge and at modifying its behaviour to reflect news knowledge and insights.” (Garvin, 1993, p. 80) Organizational learning is the activity and the process by which organizations eventually reach this ideal of a learning organization.

The different approaches are built on various assumptions about an individual and an organization, their relations and interaction, cognition, learning, purposes and values. However, two major points of the view can be highlighted: a learning organization as a managerial tool and a learning organization as a social phenomenon.

Management science considers knowledge and ability to create and utilize knowledge to be the most important source of competitive advantage. It could be illustrated with a simple and convincing principle: if the speed of organization’s learning exceeds the speed of external changes, the organization is viable. (Tappat, 2000)

The literature on a learning organization, assuming it as a managerial tool have various starting points and perceptions which can be broadly classified into two different streams: 1) systems perspective – how learning is influenced by the structure of organizations, within a global context of increasingly rapid competitiveness, how to regulate and control organizational processes developing ‘learning culture’ (Schein) and ‘shared visions’ (Senge); 2) theories of organizational cognition and learning, tended to focus on the micro-level process of how organizations develop new ideas for problem solving, viewing organizational learning from the cognitive perspective; authors shift analysis from organizational systems to the processes in organization by searching the capacity of organizations to create and exploit new knowledge (Agyris and Schön, Nonaka); According to Peter Senge learning organizations are: “... rganizations where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning to see the whole together. ... a group of people who functioned together in an extraordinary way – who trusted one another, who complemented each others’ strengths and compensated for each others limitations, who had common goals that were larger than individual goals.” (Senge, 1990, p. 3–4)

Peter Senge identifies five basic disciplines for organizational development to be converging to learning organization: systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models, building shared vision and team learning (Senge, 1990) and particularly emphasizes the dialogue as a way of organizational learning: “During the dialogue process, people learn how to think together – not just in the sense of analyzing a shared problem or creating new pieces of shared knowledge but in the sense of occupying a collective sensibility, in which the thoughts, emotions and resulting actions belong not to one individual, but to all of them together.” (Senge, 2003, p. 75)

The research of Peter Senge in the area of organizational learning is a major contribution to the development of theories, especially the theories relating to schools; however, regardless the focus on the future of a new type of organizations that are decentralized, non-hierarchic and oriented towards the advancement and welfare of employees, they mark a strict, even

determined role of the leader in the process of the establishment and development of a learning organization. In this model, the leader needs to be an example, the driving force and the developer of the organization's vision.

From strategy perspective organizational learning also could be perceived as a mutual interaction of resources, intellectual capital and external environment where organizational knowledge is a strategic resource and the main criterion is a competitiveness. (Ondonez de Pablos, 2000)

Argyris and Schön have developed their approach in this field, based in theory of action, distinguished between two types: "One is theory that we espouse, which is composed of values, beliefs, and action strategies. The other is the theory-in-use, which is stored in our heads in the form of designs that are composed of action strategies." (Argyris, 2004, p. 8) Therefore Argyris and Schön defined learning as a process of detection and correction of error, and distinguished between "single-loop learning" – detecting an error without questioning an underlying situation, and "double-loop learning" – involving questioning and changing conditions in order to achieve desired results, and used the term "organization learning" as a metaphor describing processes in which "members of the organization act as learning agents for the organization by detecting and correcting errors in organizational theory-in-use and embedding the results of their inquiry in private images and shared maps of the organization." (Argyris and Schön, 1978, p. 29)

The main controversial aspects of this theory are the focusing on a problem as a reason of learning and the individual's position in the process of learning.

Nonaka has expanded the concept of organizational learning by placing emphasis on the role of knowledge management in the process of organizational learning by separating knowledge from information as such and by introducing concepts of 'explicit knowledge' and 'tacit knowledge': the organizations create knowledge by means of interaction between explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge. The interaction between the two types of knowledge is called 'knowledge conversion'. According to the theory there are four modes of knowledge conversion: socialization (from tacit to tacit); externalization (from tacit to explicit); combination (from explicit to explicit); internalization (from explicit to tacit). (Nonaka, Toyama, Konno, p. 16)

The literature on learning organization, assuming it as a social notion, have two mostly used approaches that differ in theory backgrounds:

- 1) systems-theory approach (Luhmann);
- 2) activity theory approach (Lave and Wenger).

Both systems-theory and activity theory acknowledge the importance of social factors for the development and learning of individuals; they differ in their interpretations of the relationships between psychic and social factors: activity theory establishes a strong link between social and psychic structures and emphasizes the role of social factors to such an extent that they are seen as being more important than psychic factors; systems theory regards psychic and social processes as two distinct areas operating on the basis of different elements. Psychic processes operate by consciousness, i.e. thoughts, emotions, feelings, etc.; social processes operate by communication. (Rasmussen, 2001, p. 571) In this regard, psychic and social systems, consciousness and communication, are mutually dependent: they are interdependent.

This distinction between psychic and social processes makes it possible to draw a clearer distinction between learning and teaching: learning is attributed to psychic processes, being an individual phenomenon, whilst teaching is a social activity, being a social phenomenon. According to Luhmann, in order for pedagogy to become really modern, that is, in accordance with the conditions that prevail in a modern differentiated school, it must liberate itself from the old European notion of teaching as an interpersonal subject/subject relation. (Luhman, 1984 (1995), p. 109)

Searching the differences between individual cognition and organizational learning, the theory of situated learning, developed by Lave and Wenger, could be of most interest in pedagogy: the starting point from this perspective is the ability of individuals to learn from their experiences and to learn from/with each other in work or learning settings, in “a community of practice”: “A community of practice is a unique combination of three fundamental elements: a domain of knowledge, which defines a set of issues; a community of people who care about this domain; and the shared practice that they are developing to be effective in their domain. The domain creates common ground and a sense of common identity.” (Wenger, McDermot, Cnyder, 2000, p. 27) “A community of practice is a set of relations among persons, activity, and world.” (Lave and Wenger, 1991, p. 98) Social theory of learning is putting emphasis on the learning as social participation. According to the theory of situated learning “there are four learning components: community-learning as belonging, identity-learning as becoming, meaning-learning as experience, and practice-learning as doing.” (Wenger, 1998, p. 5)

Various sociological traditions have produced many sociological discourses in organizational learning – from organizational learning as the ideology of particular power groups to organizational learning as the transmission of knowledge within workplace communities. In the postmodern tradition organizational learning is viewed as a discursive practice. (Gherardi, Davide, 2003)

The interpretation of the concept of a learning organization in pedagogy

Modern education sets a competent person as an ideological aim, proficiency as a strategical aim and a strategical category in the multilevel system of aims and goals. The formation of a new learning culture is highlighted the features of which are greatly related to organizational learning: the change of views about learning, the change of roles between a pupil and a teacher in the process of education, cognition dominating over knowledge, reliance and solidarity, learning as an activity. (Bri ka et al., 2006) School in its concept is based on learning; learning theories which are in the basis of the learning in pedagogy in their core do not differ from the theories of organizational learning. Interpretation of learning organization in pedagogy broadens the understanding of the variety of learning, offering new landmarks which are essential in the development of the view. There is a rather wide scope of research carried out to describe a school in terms of organizational learning.

A large part of sources related to learning organizations and organizational learning are normative, that is, explaining how managers should establish a learning organization within their companies (Schein 1992, Senge 1990) and how to assess the input-output of investments related to these activities (Ondonez de Pablos, p. 642). This also refers to literature dedicated to school issues that mostly show how schools can be developed into organizations that are ready and apt for changes (Senge, Leithwood).

Various criteria have been developed by which a school could be characterized as a learning organization. The most suitable aspects used in school assessment in Latvia are the following: the school vision and mission, school culture, school structure, school strategies and policy, and the resources. (Leithwood, Janzi and Steinbach, 1998, p. 77) However, developed structures present opportunities for learning in an organization, but does not mean organizational learning. Besides, organization learning at school is basically assumed as workplace learning of teachers and leadership, but pupils are the major part of learners of school. In contrast to the most renowned literature on school as a teacher's workplace learning, the objective of the research is to expand the perception of organizational learning by including pupils as an equal consistent of the community of practice although their learning is different. The application of such an approach seems possible due to the theories of dialogical education, particularly the ideas of “Philosophy For Children”, an international educational program, taught widely in many countries, developed more than thirty years ago by Matthew Lipman, where the

objective is the achievement of “a community of inquiry” in the class, and it has extensively contributed both to theory and practice. According to Lipman “The adult often serves to translate the society’s experience, its culture, to the student and to translate the student’s experience to the society. The community of inquiry embeds that translation in everyday school practice.” (Lipman, 2003, p. 94) “The classroom community of inquiry is more than pedagogy: it is a way of life involving instilling and perfecting of cognitive, emotional and behavioral habits.” (Sharp, 2007, p. 92) Therefore, it should be important to view a school as a learning organization pupils inclusive and to examine processes within different and various levels.

Field/Case study results

In order to establish the research design and to put forward theses for further qualitative research, the formal situation of education in Latvia was evaluated and one particular school was examined from four main aspects:

- 1) the formal aspect (normative compliance research);
- 2) the structural aspect (the school vision and mission, school culture, school structure, school strategies and policy, and the resources, questionnaires);
- 3) the cognitive aspect (what teachers and pupils think about their own learning – questionnaires, enquiries, and discussions);
- 4) the social aspect (how pupils, teachers and the management feel at school – the results of questionnaires and observations of lessons).

As a result, a series of issues, problems and contradictions were observed.

In Latvia, the regulations and the respective amendments worked out by the Cabinet of Ministers formally determine the requirements for teachers’ education and professional qualifications in order to make them comply with the standards of the profession (LR MK not. 347); they set out the procedure of how a person in Latvia can acquire pedagogical education and further education necessary for a school teacher. Other regulations by the Cabinet of Ministers determine the procedure of professional development for a teacher of general education and interest-related education (LR MK not. 570). It is also important to point out the significance of education for teachers within the framework in regional methodological units.

In general, one can draw a conclusion: the state has ensured that any teacher in Latvia has good opportunities of professional perfection, schools bear full responsibility for accomplishing the execution of these regulations, and within the framework of this formal system, a significant part of teachers’ education is being carried out. Similarly, the criteria for pupils’ education are also formed and precisely defined. The formal indicators of the teachers’ qualification, further education and the pupils’ achievements are some of the criteria for the school as a learning organization. They might be used for the purposes of comparison with the other indicators.

When looking from the structural point of view:

- the self-assessment of school according to the accreditation methodology includes the components which partly characterizes the school as a learning organization: school’s environment and resources, educational programmes, teachers as qualified professionals, the teachers’ life-long learning, cooperation with parents etc;
- the results of the questionnaires show that by learning together the teachers gradually become better and better at teamwork;
- one can identify and observe both classes: classes that are motivated to learn and classes that are not motivated to learn. Frequently even teachers are unable to answer why these discrepancies occur. To a great extent reasons are searched in separate individuals or it is explained as a separate case.

When looking at the problem from the cognitive perspective:

- the way the teachers perceive their learning in school considerably differs from the way the management sees it; the way the pupils perceive their learning in school considerably differs from the way the teachers see it;
- there are situations when a teacher does not see the point in teaching the subject matter according to the curriculum. In order to concentrate on “meaningful teaching”, one of the ways of the teacher’s professional advancement is searching for the sense of the subject; and this is a never-ending process.

Observing the situation from the social point of view:

- It would be natural that teachers of one area were more open and interested in the ideas of each other, however, observations have proven the opposite: even without cultivating an inner competition among teachers, internal, tacit competition is a major obstacle that hinders the development of a school into a learning organisation.
- The way a teacher feels at school depends on whether the teacher in his/her consciousness divides pupils and teachers into “them” and “us”. It is possible to perceive work at school and being together with pupil because of their mutual process of learning as “real life” or either as a job of a teacher.
- A teacher efficiently learns from his/her experience through reflection and exchange of thoughts and ideas (and most frequently it is in an informal way) about topics like “what have I or haven’t I seen in pupils while being together with them in the process of learning”.
- By using “Philosophy for Children” methods at the lessons teachers acquire the stand wick is in the basis of community of practice. This approach is the effective way for teachers and pupils to master the new attitudes in classroom.
- An essential criterion that characterises a school as a learning organization is the fact that you can express yourself and you will be heard. This refers to all levels of a school.
- Learning in the school framework on the surface at pupils’ level seems collective, but as a matter of fact it is seldom a process of organizational learning (pupils often learn in groups but very rarely as a group).
- With years a teacher gradually distances from the expierence of a child, at the same time becoming more professional by learning.

Designing a school as a multilevel learning organization

In literature on organizational learning the term “multilevel” has already been attributed to the school as a learning organization in the sense of learning at the individual, group and organizational level: individual learning by teachers or school leaders within he context of the school, learning in small groups or teams of teachers, learning that occurs across the school organization as whole. (Leithwood and Louis, 1998; Crossan, Lane, and White, 1999) In the paper the term “multilevel” is used differently: the pupils, teachers, and the management, referring to the type of perception and reflection, as well as the system of values and the cognitive experience of particular groups of individuals. Although their objectives vary, individuals of these levels are closely linked in a learning organization by involvement in the same learning processes.

Organizational learning in a school could be interpreted in any of the above mentioned theories and approaches. The purpose of the research is the application of two completely different approaches: 1) from the management position using the structural approach, by characterizing

the school's vision and mission, the school culture, its structure, strategies, policy and resources; 2) from the social position regarding a school as a community of practice, viewed as a united learning organisation by highlighting particular sub-processes: the class, the class + a teacher, pupils' interest or project groups, teachers, methodological communities of teachers, a management + a teacher etc). Relationships in these sub-processes are not independent; they are interlinked and influenced by the school's learning culture. In this sense, school's product in organization learning is pedagogical approaches and methods that are more a unity of social actions carried out in various interpretations of individuals, rather than a specific model of actions that could be judged and assessed more or less objectively.

Theses for further studies

1. A school as a multilevel learning organization could be perceived as a community of practice in which individuals are learning by participating in the mutual process of belonging, becoming, experience and doing.
2. As a teacher becomes a member in the community of practice through dialogues and participation, the teacher's way of dominance changes.
3. Each school's structure (the class, its part, a group of friends etc) can be regarded as a particular sub-process of a learning organization and its development should be viewed in accordance with the principles of a learning organization.
4. Only the teachers who daily undergo the process of learning themselves can be equal participants in the community of practice together with their pupils, thus being experts and accomplices at the same time.
5. Only the teachers who perceive life-long learning and innovations in education not as a difficulty imposed on them but as a possibility to grow and develop in an indirect way can transfer this feeling to pupils throughout the instructional process.
6. If the speed of the advancement of a teacher through learning from his/her experience exceeds the distancing from the experience of a child, he/she continuously becomes a better teacher; otherwise he/she has to recognize that "in the past the schools were better and the children were better."

Conclusions

The paper gives an insight into the theories of a learning organization and organizational learning and interpretation of these concepts in pedagogy from two points of view: the view of the management and the social aspect. Each of them reveals organizational learning in a different way, but they both complement each other, thus making a complete picture. The various and distinct perspectives allow maintaining the conceptual purity of the research process, thus giving a possibility to understand the processes much better, but each of them separately cannot portray the whole functioning of a school as a learning organization.

Regarding the usage of the theories of organizational learning, it is essential to point out that in Latvia, the concept of organizational learning at school is rather new because only fifteen years ago school as an organization was the keystone of totalitarian ideology with a very strict hierarchical and authoritarian structure and style of leadership. In the Soviet times, any mention as well as discussion of organizational learning was not possible; therefore, schools in Latvia even now are a scene of learning democracy.

Looking for the confirmation of the developed theses, further qualitative research is necessary.

References

1. *Argyris, C.* Reasons and Rationalizations: The limits to organizational Knowledge. – New York: Oxford University Press, 2004.
2. *Argyris, C. and Schön, D.* Organizational Learning: a Theory of Action Perspective. – Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1978.
3. *Bri ka, I. u. c.* Plaisa kompetences izpratnē teorijā un praksē. // *Akopova, Ž., u. c.* No zināšanām uz kompetentu darbību. – Rīga: Latvijas Universitāte, 2006.
4. *Dewey, J.* Experience and Education. – New York: Collier Books, 1938 (1974).
5. *Гаррат, Б.* Сила обучения действием. // *Педлер М.* Практика обучения действием. – Москва: Гардарики, 2000, стр. 62–76.
6. *Garvin, D. A.* Building a learning organization. // *Harward Business Review*, July-August, 1993, p. 78–91.
7. *Gherardi, S., Davide, N.* The Sociological Foundations of Organizational Learning. // *Handbook of organizational learning and knowledge.* – New York: Oxford, 2003, p. 35-60.
8. *Lave, J. and Wenger, E.* Situated learning. – New York: Cambridge University Press, 1991 (2007).
9. *Leithwood, K., Jantzi, D., Steinbach R.* Leadership and Other Conditions which Foster Organizational Learning in Schools. // *Leithwood, K., Louis, S.* Organizational Learning in Schools. – Swets & Zeitlinger, 1998, p. 67–89.
10. *Leithwood, K., Louis, S.* Organizational Learning in Schools: an Introduction. // *Leithwood, K., Louis, S.* Organizational Learning in Schools. – Swets & Zeitlinger, 1998, p. 1–14.
11. *Lipman, M.* Thinking in Education. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003 (2006).
12. *Luhman, N.* Social Systems. – USA: Stanford University Press, 1984 (1995).
13. *Nonaka, I., Toyama, R., Konno, N.* SECI, BA and Leadership: a Unicef Model of Dynamic Knowledge Creation. // *Nonaka, I., Teece, D.* Managing Industrial Knowledge. – London: Sage Publications, 2001, p. 13–43.
14. *Ondonez de Pablos, P.* Measuring and reporting structural capital. // *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, Vol. 5, No. 4, 2004, p. 629–647.
15. *Rasmussen, J.* The importance of communication in teaching: a systems-theory approach to the scaffolding metaphor. // *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, vol. 33, No. 5, 2001, p. 569–582.
16. *Schein, E.H.* Organizational Culture and Leadership. – 2nd. ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1992.
17. *Senge, P.* Schools that Learn. – London: Nicholas Brealey Publ., 2003.
18. *Senge, P.* The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of Organizational Learning. New York: Doubleday, 1990.
19. *Sharp, A. M.* The Classroom Community of Inquiry and the Education of the Emotions. // *Chamny, D. G., Philosophical Foundations of Innovative Learning.* – Sankt Augustin: Academia Verlag, 2007, p. 84–99.
20. *Wenger, E.* Communities in Practice: Learning, Meaning and Identity. – USA: Cambridge University Press, 1998.
21. *Wenger, E. McDermot, Cnyder W. M.* Cultivating Communities of Practice. – USA: Harvard Business School Press, 2000.
22. Latvijas Republikas Ministru Kabineta noteikumi Nr. 347 (2000.10.03.) “Noteikumi par prasībām pedagogiem nepieciešamajai izglītībai un profesionālajai kvalifikācijai,” (pēdējie grozījumi 2006.12.19.) izdoti saskaņā ar Izglītības likuma 14. panta 13. punktu, 48. panta pirmo daļu un Profesionālās izglītības likuma 18. pantu.
23. Latvijas Republikas Ministru Kabineta noteikumi Nr. 570 (2007.08.28.) “Vispārējās izglītības pedagogu un interešu izglītības pedagogu profesionālās pilnveides kārtība,” izdoti saskaņā ar Izglītības likuma 15. panta 14. punktu.

Kopsavilkums

Referāta mērķis ir aprakstīt skolu kā mācīšanās organizāciju un izvirzīt tēzes turpmākam kvalitatīvam pētījumam nolūkā izprast procesus, kas veido skolu kā izglītības iestādi par skolu kā daudzlīmeņu mācīšanās organizāciju.

Pirmkārt, caur literatūras apskatu referātā aplūkota jēdzienu “mācīšanās organizācija” un “mācīšanās organizācijā” attīstība.

Otrkārt, veidota teorētiskā izpētes bāze, balstoties uz divām perspektīvēm: menedžmenta pozīciju, lietojot strukturālo pieeju, un sociālo pozīciju, lietojot darbības teoriju. Šīs divas perspektīves ir pilnībā atšķirīgas; tomēr tās nav neatkarīgas: skolvadības attīstība ir priekšnoteikums skolas attīstībai sociālajā aspektā un otrādi.

Treškārt, tiek meklētas jēdzienu “mācīšanās organizācija” un “mācīšanās organizācijā” interpretācijas pedagoģijā, aplūkojot situāciju Latvijā un vienā atsevišķā skolā četros aspektos: formālā, struktūras, kognitīvā un sociālā. Šajā referātā nosaukums “daudzlīmeņu” tiek lietots, attiecinot to uz atsevišķu grupu – skolēnu, skolotāju un skolas vadības – atšķirīgiem uztveres un refleksijas veidiem, atšķirībām vērtību sistēmā un kognitīvajā pieredzē.

Rezultātā ir saskatīta virkne problēmu un pretrunu un izvirzītas tēzes turpmākam pētījumam.

Atslēgvārdi: mācīšanās organizācija, mācīšanās organizācijā, skolotāju mācīšanās darbavietā.

About the author

Maija Kokare – PhD student, University of Latvia, Faculty of Education and Psychology, Master of Education, Principal of the Secondary School “Patnis”.

E-mail: maija.kokare@patnis.lv

**TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT:
QUALIFYING FOR QUALITY SELF-EVALUATION
AND REFLECTION ON EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE**

**SKOLOTAJU PROFESIONALĀ ATTĪSTĪBA – KVALIFICĒŠANA
PAŠNOVĒRTĒŠANAI UN REFLEKSIJAI UZ MĀCĪBU PRAKSI**

Maja Ljubetić

University of Split, Croatia
Faculty of Philosophy
Department of Education

Abstract

Teacher's pedagogical competency is one of the many crucial factors which contribute to the quality of educational process. Therefore it is necessary to invest unendingly in its improvement.

Important assumptions for effecting an improvement in teacher's pedagogical competency are continuous qualifying and readiness for self-assessment as well as evaluation of ones own educational performance, which is necessary for putting in practice previously agreed upon criteria.

Teacher's pedagogical "competency necessary" should be understood as continuum from pedagogical incompetence to pedagogical competency which is constantly under review and change. Therefore it is necessary to take into account all the conditions for ones performance in action and also building and improving relationships of all participants involved in this process.

In bringing about teachers' professional development it is necessary to create quality programs which should qualify teachers for self evaluation of their own practice, and consequently, bring about elevation of their pedagogical competence level.

Keywords: quality, educational practice, pedagogical competency, reflection, self evaluation.

Professional development of teachers: qualifying teachers for a competent self-evaluation and reflection upon the educational practice

Introduction

In the ever changing and unpredictable world of today, the issue of sustainable development becomes a necessity in all areas of human activity, particularly in the sphere of education, where future may be said to have already begun. Professional development of teachers presupposes the acquisition of new and improved, but already existing competences in the methodological-didactic area of work, as well as in those pertaining to human relations, interactions and leadership on all levels, which includes the principal of the educational institution, teachers, pupils, parents, the whole local community, etc. It is the development of these competences of teachers (concerning leadership and relations) that are considered to be exceptionally important for raising the overall quality of the entire education system, i.e. for creating the prerequisites necessary for a healthy and integral development from which a high level of achievement of children / pupils can be expected to result. It is therefore of paramount importance to give these competences a much greater attention, at both theoretical and practical levels.

The contemporary kindergarten/school/class is usually perceived as a "community" or a "learning organization" (Watkins and Mortimore 1999; Senge 2003; Verin 2004; Kletzien 2004; Slunjski 2006), in which each particular member (from the principal to the child/pupil) contributes towards the process and quality of learning in their own individual way

and in accordance with their knowledge, wishes, competences, experience, and at their own pace. This could be said to constitute an ideal, or even idealized image of the contemporary educational institution: Fortunately, however, “shining examples” can be found both in Croatia and abroad. Although we may sometimes be impatient in our desire to see these processes develop more effectively, on a larger scale, and at a much faster rate, it is imperative to be more patient, to offer and share information, and actively participate in those areas where the expert help is expected and appreciated. Every change, however, takes time and deliberate and persistent planning of a series of short-term goals, as well as thorough and cooperative work of all factors at their implementation, the institution is likely to set off in the direction of becoming a “learning organization”. Therefore Fullan (2005a, 16) points out: “The law of the force of context reads: what is really important are small steps”. Major and more drastic, insufficiently prepared moves, could additionally and unnecessarily destabilize and possibly jeopardize the functioning of the system or might be perceived interpreted as coercion or an attack from the outside, thereby most probably provoking, at the very beginning, resistance in the participants of the education process, dooming the whole effort to failure.

As is constantly being shown and also proved by everyday practice, the transformation of the school/kindergarten into a “learning organization” is a long and toilsome process, frequently much slower than expected, dependent on a number of elements, the human factor being the most significant. It is precisely the “human factor”, i.e. the individual within the learning organization, that can act as the initiator and the prime mover or, as the case may be, the “brakeman” - an insufficiently interested and poorly motivated executor of the process. Which of the roles an individual will assume, depends to a great extent upon the culture of the institution, i.e. leadership system, relations, vision and many others, more or less visible, features institution in question, In this paper we shall try to draw attention to and focus on some of the referential points upon which the modern perception of educational institutions is based, particularly the ones developing towards “learning organizations”, the fundamental prerequisite of their successful development resting on pedagogically competent individuals – participants in the education process.

Contemporary perception of educational institutions

A modern perception of the educational institution is one that looks upon it as a “living organism” – unique, dynamic, and changeable, developing its own culture, curriculum, and relationships, as well as building and improving very specific interactions between the factors of the education process. This is why Margraves and Fink (2006, 164) emphasize the fact that successful institutions “function in a complex and unpredictable *milieu* with a mobility and adaptability of a living system rather than a mechanical precision of a well-lubricated machine”. Susceptibility and adaptability to change constitutes one of the system’s basic characteristics, requiring of all its participants contemplation, deliberation and a readiness to act, as well as openness in face of uncertainties, since it is “due to its own dynamics that a successful organization faces a completely incomprehensible specific future” (Fulani, 2005, 44). Impenetrability and uncertainty of the future is being pointed out by Hentig (2007, 19) as well, particularly stressing our responsibility in forming the pedagogical reality. It is therefore imperative for the efforts made by pedagogues and the society as a whole to be focused on forming such pedagogical contexts as will enable all (pupils, teachers, parents, principals, and others) to learn and make progress.

Furthermore, as Watkins and Mortimer (1999, 4) have pointed out, “teachers may be perceived as influenced by the context”, whereas the class represents “an active system which needs to be established and guided by the teachers” (ibid. 5). It is therefore crucial that the teacher, together with other participants, should create a friendly, stimulating, accepting, and encouraging context for all the participants in the education process. Creating such a context necessarily

requires a great deal of reflection and constructive dialogue, as well as competences of all the participants, primarily due to dynamic and frequently turbulent processes accompanying this “creative act”, the outcomes being uncertain in the majority of cases.

The vitality of an institution is primarily reflected in constant balancing between stability (check and control mechanisms, familiarity, certainty, security, adjustment to the *milieu*, etc.) and instability (excitement, novelties, exploration, discovery, etc.), its “success depending on the organization being maintained within the boundaries oscillating between stability and instability”, as has been claimed by Fulani (2005, 43), who goes on to say that “The existence of too tight a structure may lead to paralysis, while an excessively loose structure is bound to create chaos... the key to an effective change lying in the balance being permanently maintained on the verge of chaos” (Fulani, 2005, 45). The “maintaining of balance on the verge of chaos” primarily requires a leader possessing a wide range of competences, both professional and social, while at all times being prepared to improve his/her performance by contemplating, analyzing, and upgrading knowledge and skills. One of the skills required is the readiness, willingness, and ability to work in a team since, as has been pointed out by Ridley (1996, 175) “cooperative groups thrive and flourish, while self-centered ones do not”. Consequently, prosperity and success of various “communities” or “learning organizations”, as well as dealing with any problems they may face, are to a great extent dependent upon the quality of interactions between the members, which is why Fullan (2005, 48) stresses that “people need other people’s knowledge in order to solve problems”, adding that “motivation to share information with others and accessibility to the information requires continuous interaction”.

The quality of the entire system is determined by the quality of interaction within it

Dahlberg and Moss (2005, 82) focus on three basic principles crucial to a successful interaction, namely “responsibility - to oneself and to the others; respect of others (care, active listening, openness, tolerance of differences), as well as in relation to others, not relying on the calculated or exclusively rational thinking”. What these authors seem to regard as being most important is the relationship between the individual and others and an awareness, as well as assuming responsibility for the relationship since we all “to a greater or lesser extent, depend upon the care, solicitude, kindness, and respect of others” (ibid., 82).

Exemplary interactions and communication within a learning organization are as important issues mentioned by Hargreaves and Fink (2006, 164), as well as the need for the prerequisites necessary for creating “an active communication network with multiple feedback”. Consequently, an open communication based on trust and directed towards a common goal involving all the members of the learning organisation constitutes a prerequisite indispensable for its success, permanent growth, and quality, i.e. the development of the institution as a desirable place, suitable for learning and professional development. Good social relations cannot be sufficiently or effectively based exclusively upon the relation teacher-pupil and/or teacher-parent: they need to be built and improved between all the participants in the education process, whether within the institution or outside it since, as Fulani (2005a, 17) keeps pointing out: “If the system is to be changed, it is necessary to increase the quantity of constructive interaction between the individuals at all levels”. Qualitative change in the individual behavior is rendered impossible unless the individual is directly influenced by the milieu with a view to changing the behavior pattern and directing it towards a desired goal. Such an approach would reflect our belief in external motivation and evading responsibility (Glasser, 2000), which is contrary to our attitude. Quite the contrary, “if human behavior is to be changed, it is necessary to create a *milieu* within which new opinions and convictions will be expressed, fostered, and practically applied” Fullan (2005a, 17). Consequently, changing the system (kindergarten/school, class)

will most likely effect a change in inadequate or unacceptable behavior in individuals, at the same time motivating them to activity, cooperation, assuming responsibility, etc...

One of the fundamental attitudes at work in successful learning organizations is the one according to which “teachers learn best by sharing ideas, planning in cooperation, criticizing one another’s ideas and experiences, and eliminating isolation” (Hargreaves and Fink, 2006, 175), namely, they learn as they go along, exploring and evaluating their own practice(s). Good communication as a basis of quality relationships and cooperation would thus appear to be the common denominator of all successful institutions. However, the readiness and ability to build, maintain, and improve relationships represent individual categories dependent upon a number of factors (age, personal qualities, knowledge, skills, etc.) which, in spite of the fact that they are sometimes regarded as given conditions, can be acquired and improved. The first step in improving competences in the area of human relationships is consciousness-raising, followed by action with an aim of effecting changes for the better. Thus the first task of any individual within the learning organization would involve self-evaluation, i.e. Raising the crucial question: Does my behavior (words, gestures, attitudes) bring me any closer to the persons to whom I relate (colleagues, pupils, parents, others) or does it alienate me from them? The following series of questions will help the individual to become aware of and to cast more light on their behavior and its effects upon the quality of the relations established with other individuals. E.g.: What do I want to be like, as a person and as a professional? What kind of relations with others do I want to establish? How important do I find establishing better relations with people I work, collaborate, and associate with? How important are these issues to me and how important are they for the quality of functioning of the entire system (kindergarten, school, family, etc.)? What am I prepared to do in order to improve my relations with others? Will better relations help me in learning and improving and to what extent? In what ways will it be beneficial to other people? How willing am I to collaborate with others? Am I prepared to treat other members of the “organization” with respect and appreciation and listen attentively to what they have to say? Am I prepared to share power with other participants in the process?, etc.

Distribution of power and “flow of energy”

“The essence of leadership is influence, not power” as Gossen and Anderson (1996, 46) claim, further emphasizing three categories of personal power exerted by the individual. They are as follows: 1. power over one’s own self, gained by understanding one’s own needs, personal choices of behavior, and strengthening of the body; 2. power over inanimate objects (e.g. use of computer technology);, and 3. influence upon other people, particularly through emotions, but also by using “useful and effective concepts, information, and resources, beneficial behavior, and by creating circumstances in which they are able to help themselves” (Gossen and Anderson, 1996, 47). Distribution of power in a learning organization is one of the crucial elements in creating a “healthy” and motivating atmosphere in the institution, indispensable for a full development of each individual’s potentials. The role of the teacher/leader therefore consists of contributing towards creating of a stimulating atmosphere by his/her own personal efforts, since optimum level of energy is attained by cooperation in prevention of and dealing with problems, bearing in mind that “negative actions decrease our energy” (Fullan, 2005a, 36). Thus it is the leader/teacher who becomes “the generator of energy” (ibid., 37), not “the person drawing on the energy of others” (ibid., 38), resulting in the synergy of positive and constructive energy of all the participants, thus becoming the prime mover of all actions and activities in the institution directed towards the common goal – realization of the institution’s vision.

Successful learning organizations create favorable conditions which enable each individual to acquire skills and exercise self-evaluation in all aspects of activity in order to improve, both with respect to his/her own person and in relation to other people. An individual engaged in a

permanent self-evaluation and making efforts with a view to changing his/her own undesirable (ineffective) behavior gets closer to other people, strengthens the relations with them, builds the sense of belonging, thereby "clearing" the ground for an open, clear, friendly, direct, and two-way communication. In such communication the participants exchange ideas in an animated and relaxed discussion and, without being afraid of judgment, unkind criticism, or labeling, argue and corroborate their points, defend their positions and attitudes, confront each other at a professional instead of personal level, thereby learning from one another and improving themselves, at the same time raising the overall quality level of the entire institution (learning organization).

Competent reflective practitioner – a necessity for a contemporary pedagogical practice

Pedagogically competent individuals possess and/or acquire and continuously develop the ability for self-evaluation and reflection, i.e. "critical analysis" of their own work, as well as that of others with the aim of learning through experience and changing their practices by combining practical and theoretical knowledge, acquired through an exchange of diverse experiences and attitudes" (Fullan, 2005a). As Miljak (1996, 24) says, "a discrepancy between what the teachers think they are doing and what they succeed in realizing, i.e. a discrepancy between their proclaimed theory and the theory they actually realize in action (practice) can be frequently observed in pedagogical practice. With a view to raising consciousness and rectifying, i.e. coordinating and reconciling the educators' implicit and explicit theories, it is necessary to create such conditions in the institution in which it is not only possible, but also desirable and necessary, to conduct open debates and dialogues in order to effect "a conceptual change of consciousness" (Slunjski, 2006, 38) in all the participants of the education process aimed at understanding the existing behavior patterns and changing them where necessary. Understanding one's own behavior (in pedagogical practice) and taking action towards change and improvement is a long and demanding process, requiring the individual to be constantly focused on quality. The first step in transforming the individual into a reflective practitioner consists of a good self-evaluation, whereas at the second step the help and collaboration of a "reflective friend" becomes necessary or, as agud (2006, 24) has it "in reflective practice learning does not only occur in a community between individuals and practice, but also in collaboration with other colleagues". However, the question of reflection, i.e. the role of the "reflective friend" and/or "critical friend" (Schon, 1987; Watkins and Mortimore, 1999; Coldron and Smith, 1999; Stoll and Fink, 2000; Slunjski, 2006; agud, 2006) or critical analysis of one's own and especially other people's work, may become "the bone of contention" or "the stumbling block" and, if the necessary conditions have not been created, could seriously jeopardize the attained level of quality of human relations. This is an issue to which Watkins and Mortimore (1999) draw attention, warning that the term "critical friend" is not always completely clear. Namely, it would appear to make "some people concentrate on 'critical', whereas others only note the 'friend' part of the symptom" (ibid. 13). The task of the "critical friend" would consist of motivating the individual to self-reflection, i.e. better understanding of their own behavior and practice, and it only becomes possible on condition that a good relationship based on mutual trust has been previously established and that the feedback is exclusively based on facts, under no circumstances on judgment, particularly not on any personal references to the individual being observed and evaluated. It is the skillfulness and competence of the "critical friend" or, still better, "reflective friend" (since criticism seems to evoke negative connotations in the majority of people) that the further quality of relationship depends, as does the direction of changes that the individual is or is not willing to make in order to improve his/her behavior and pedagogical practice. Quality self-evaluation and reflection upon one's own, as well as other people's educational practice, can be only made

by a pedagogically competent individual, possessing the necessary knowledge and skills and acting in a context which supports, encourages, and stimulates such processes.

Pedagogical competence – how to improve it?

There are two basic interpretations of professional competence in general (Cheetham and Chivers, 1996), pedagogical competence being no exception: a need for a holistic approach in exploring competence and a combination of formal education and professional improvement programmes (following the formal education). Consequently, the approach to the problem is multidisciplinary, with permanent professional improvement programs being conceived relying upon scientifically founded indicators, aimed to provide for the actual needs of teachers in an optimum way. Bases for creating the “holistic model of professional competence”, as viewed by Cheetham and Chivers (1996, 24), consist of different known models and standards of competence, which is why the authors, by combining their advantages, have offered a new model with four basic components of professional competence being particularly emphasized: functional competence, personal or behavioral competence, cognitive competence, and ethical competence.

Professional (pedagogical) competence may also be perceived and interpreted as a mosaic composed of a series of diverse competences which are in continuous “interaction” (Cheetham and Chivers, 1996, 27), forming necessary prerequisites for a competent performance of educational work. However, since individuals considerably differ in many respects, personal as well as professional, they have to be acknowledged and respected, providing possibilities to improve those competences which have been evaluated as insufficiently developed.

A pedagogically competent teacher is expected to employ his professional knowledge, skills, and abilities (Chivers, 1996; Coldron and Smith, 1999) in his pedagogical work, at the same time possessing personal qualities, such as “emotional sensitivity, creativity, cooperativeness, moral integrity, etc.” (Ljubetić et al., 2007, p.72), that would make him/her a positive model for identification to his/her pupils and an authority whom the pupils will voluntarily follow. Assuming that a competent person possesses adequate competences or qualities (Bezinović, 1993), a competent teacher is expected to possess and permanently improve abilities and qualities of understanding, accepting, and attentively listening (to children, parents, colleagues), participating in activities, taking the initiative, appreciating, negotiating, motivating, etc., as well as to create the conditions necessary for observing, recognizing, and successfully meeting the psychic, emotional, spiritual, and other needs of all the children in a particular class/school. A pedagogically competent teacher is also expected to create and form such a context as will prove motivating and inspiring to the pupils, bearing in mind the fact that “*milieu* is the second educator” (Slunjski et al., 2006; Senge, 2003). Additionally, one of the basic components necessary in a competent teacher is his/her ability to establish and improve good relationships with all the factors of the education process (children, parents, colleagues, others), as well as the necessary prerequisites for quality interactions at all levels (pupil-pupil, pupil-adult, adult-adult). Should this relationship prove to be satisfactory, it fosters positive feelings and a sense of accomplishment to all the factors in the process, giving them a sense of being accepted and appreciated, a sense of security and success in the process of learning and making progress in a joint effort.

Teachers today meet with many demands and expectations posed by the local community, society in general, as well as themselves. Namely, teachers are expected to reflect upon themselves and their profession, determining long-term goals of their pedagogical activity. They ought to be informed about what their pupils feel and think, how they behave; to possess skills necessary to increase the satisfaction and effectiveness of the teaching profession, developing at the same time the pupils’ self-esteem and security. In other words, they are expected to critically evaluate themselves and their work, to “locate” possible problems and

setbacks and constantly take measures towards personal and professional improvement. However, as is shown by our everyday practice and further corroborated by scientific research, there are individuals who do not seem to possess the personal and professional qualities expected of a competent teacher. The fact that a person has achieved the teacher's vocation through formal education is by no means a guarantee that the aforementioned expectations are likely to be met. It is therefore imperative that the teachers' pedagogical competence should be developed and further improved even after they have completed their formal education. It is necessary to offer teachers such courses and programs of permanent professional training and education as will raise the overall level of their pedagogical competence, particularly in segments where they themselves and, more importantly, "significant others" (Welk, 1999) may evaluate them to be insufficiently qualified. In order for these programs to be effective in their implementation, it is necessary to further explore pedagogical (in) competence, determining and delineating its components, to locate the "critical points" on which permanent teachers' improvement programs are to be focused.

Conclusions

Pedagogical practice abounds in new challenges, needs, and expectation being constantly posed in front of teachers/leaders and the only ones who are able to successfully meet the increasing requirements are those teachers who permanently make effort to raise and improve the overall level of their pedagogical competence. However, there are a number of teachers who, regardless of / irrespective of professional knowledge and skills they possess, frequently express dissatisfaction due to their insufficient competence with regard to human relations

In order to raise the level of competence in teachers/leaders, it is also in this area that programs aimed at meeting their needs become a necessity and have to be devised. Well-conceived programs to bring about of teachers' permanent improvement suited to their actual needs would enable them to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills for establishing, maintaining, and improving good communication with others. Good relations in the learning community/ organization (family, kindergarten, school, etc.) constitute the necessary prerequisite and the basis for its development and progress in accordance with the jointly created vision. In order to assure that the educational institution is to be developing in the desired direction it is necessary to create such conditions or context (absence of coercion, distribution of power, freedom, communication, etc.) as will ensure the development of all the potentials in all its participants (children and adults). It is only in those institutions that have succeeded in creating and maintaining relationships based upon acceptance, appreciation, support, and tolerance that a two-way and open communication, ensuring an exchange of ideas, collaboration, and reflection aimed at promoting the personal and collective professional development, is rendered possible.

Literature

1. Bezinović, P. (1993) Samopoštovanje i percepcija osobne kompetentnosti. Godišnjak zavoda za psihologiju (prosinac), Rijeka.
2. Cheetham, G; Chivers, G. (1996) Towards a Holistic Model of Professional Competence. *Journal of European Industrial Training* 20/5 (1996) 20–30. MCB University Press
3. Chivers, G. (1996) Towards a Holistic Model of Professional Competence. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 20 (5), 20–31.
4. Coldron, J., Smith, R. (1999) Active Location in Teacher's Construction of their Professional Identities. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 31 (6), 711–726.
5. Dahlberg, G; Moss, P. (2005) *Ethics and Politics in Early Childhood Education*. New York, USA, Routledge Falmer. (provjeri velika slova naslova).

6. Glasser, W. (2000) *Teorija izbora- nova psihologija osobne slobode*. Zagreb. Alinea
7. Gossen, D., Anderson, J. (1996) *Stvaranje uvjeta za kvalitetne škole*. Zagreb: Alinea.
8. Fullan, M. (2005) *Sile promene: nastavak*. Beograd, grafički atelje DERETA.
9. Fullan, M. (2005a) *Leadership and Sustainability: System thinkers in action*. Thousand Oaks, California: Corvin Press.
10. Hargreaves, A., Fink, D. (2006) *Sustainable Leadership*. San Francisco, CA, John Wiley & Sons Inc.
11. Hentig, von H. (2007) *Kakav odgoj želimo?* Zagreb: Educa.
12. Kletzien, S. (2004) *Opis primjera specijalističkog programa za nastavnike (prilog B)*. U: *Razvoj modela cjeloživotnog obrazovanja učitelja i nastavnika – fazni izvještaj za prvu projektnu godinu (preliminarni rezultati)*. Projekt Ministarstva znanosti, obrazovanja i športa. Zagreb, Institut za društvena istraživanja u Zagrebu, Centar za istraživanje i razvoj obrazovanja.
13. Ljubetić, M., Arbunić, A., Kovačević, S. (2007) *Osobine učitelja – studentsko iskustvo*. U: *Zbornik radova Osmi dani Mate Demarina*, Kadum, V. (ur.), Pula: Sveučilište Jurja Dobrile u Puli, Odjel za obrazovanje učitelja i odgojitelja.
14. Miljak, A. (1996) *Humanistički pristup teoriji i praksi predškolskog odgoja*. Velika Gorica – Zagreb: Persona.
15. Ridley, M. (1996) *The Origins of Virtue*. London, Penguin Books.
16. Schon, D. (1987) *Educating the Reflective Practitioner*. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA.
17. Senge, P. M. (2003), *Peta disciplina - principi i praksa učeće organizacije*. Zagreb: Mozaik knjiga.
18. Slunjski, E., Šagud, M., Brajša-Žganac, A. (2006) *Kompetencije odgojitelja u vrtiću – organizaciji koja uči*. *Pedagoški istraživanja* 3 (1), 45–58.
19. Stoll, L., Fink, D. (2000) *Mijenjajmo naše škole: kako unaprijediti djelotvornost i kvalitetu škola*. Zagreb, Educa.
20. Šagud, M. (2006) *Odgajatelj kao reflektivni praktičar*. Petrinja: Visoka učiteljska škola.
21. Verin, E. (2004) *Trendovi u reformama obrazovanja nastavnika u državama članicama OECD-a*. U: *Marinković, R., Karajić, (ur.), Budućnost i uloga nastavnika (TEMPUS) N*. Zagreb: Sveučilište u Zagrebu Prirodoslovno-matematički fakultet, str. 21–30
22. Watkins, C., Mortimore, P. (1999) *Pedagogy: What Do We Know?* In: *Understanding Pedagogy and its Impact on Learning* (Mortimore, P. Ed.) London, Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.
23. Welk, G.J. (1999) *The Youth Pshysical Activity Promotion model: A Conceptual Bridge Between Theory and Practice*. *Quest*, 51, str. 5–23.

About the author

I am **Maja Ljubetić**, Ph.D., Assistant Professor and I work at University of Split (Croatia), Faculty of Philosophy, Department of Education where I lecture on Family Pedagogy and Partnership between Family and School. I am also a Superintendent of Department of Education.

The focus of my scientific interests is: preschool pedagogy, teacher's education, quality of school and parents-children relationships.

I am also a Basic week instructor and Supervisor I and II for Choice Theory, Reality Therapy and Lead Management and a member of William Glasser Institute, CA, USA.

LEARNING-CENTERED LEADERSHIP

MĀCĪŠANĀS VADĪBA

Ivars Muzis

Riga Teacher Training and Educational Management Academy

Abstract

Leadership is vital for teams, for organizations, for countries and even, if we are to believe the popular press, for the world itself. Learning-centered leadership is applied in literature to different levels of learning within an organization. The focus on improved student learning opportunities and outcomes is a common feature. Learning-centered leadership is also used to link teacher's professional learning to the core purpose of schools, student learning. Considering the degree of the teachers influence, we must understand what teachers should do to promote positive results in the lives of students with regard to school achievement, positive attitudes toward school, interest in learning, and other desirable outcomes. Learning-centered leadership creates conditions under which all members of schools collectively and individually, through a focus on learning, can make sense of the issues and opportunities they face and take effective action. It takes a collectivist view of leadership. It builds our capacity to work together, to deal with underlying issues, generate new achievements and change our culture.

Keywords: leadership, learning organization, leadership capacity, competence.

Introduction

Leaders must view their organizations as learning communities, for faculty as well as students, and the primary role of a school leader in school improvement is to act as a catalyst in creating a learning environment for both teachers and pupils (Harris & Lambert, 2003). The learning-centered leaders cast school improvement in terms of hypotheses to be tested rather than solutions to be handed out and that leaders should be attacking the barriers to collaboration, and making decisions democratically rather than bureaucratically. If learning-centred leadership includes the promotion of a learning culture in a school community, it follows that development of new skills for leadership should be part of that learning. Costa (1997) links these related ideas by advocating that, from the outset, leaders model personal learning. He says leaders should specify the behaviors on which they are working, make public the rationale for choosing them, and ask others to monitor and provide feedback about their skills, effectiveness and congruence with stated values. Such leadership is invested in people at all levels of the organization as they perform their multiple functions of planning, coordinating, communicating, influencing, coaching, consulting and assessing. There is also a connection in the literature between understanding the learning process and effective leadership. Leithwood and Duke (1997) say that in order for principals to provide leadership in developing forms of instruction that are more consistent with constructivist and related views of learning and motivations, it will require them to understand these views themselves and help teachers, parents and community members develop such understanding. Importantly, in many discussions about learning outcomes, there is recognition of the fundamental importance of what Howard Gardner would describe as interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence. As Stoll (2002) says, surely understanding one's own learning, possessing a love of learning, and existing with others harmoniously have to be essential learning outcomes in today's and tomorrow's world.

Aim of the research: To characterize the understanding of the term of learning-centered leadership within the context of school as a learning organization and classroom management and organization, as well as to determine the leadership capacity.

Schools as learning organizations

Leadership in learning organizations' centers around subtler and, ultimately, more important work. In a learning organization, the leader's roles differ dramatically from that of the charismatic decision maker. Leaders are designers, teachers, and stewards. These roles require new skills: the ability to build shared vision, to bring to the surface and challenge prevailing mental models, and to foster more systemic patterns of thinking. In short, leaders in learning organizations are responsible for building organizations where people are continually expanding their capabilities to shape their future; that is, leaders are responsible for learning. Long term survival of schools in the future depends on them becoming creative learning organizations. The best way students can learn how to live in the future is to experience the life of the learning school. Here, everyone is a learner: staff, school leaders, parents/caregivers, community and the government all engaging in high quality learning with the purpose of improving student learning outcomes. While in theory, schools might become learning organizations, many are far from making the transformation. Teacher isolation, lack of time and the complexity of teaching are three impediments. As a result, people in the school workplace move forward as individual points of flight not as part of a learning organization (Tafinders, 2004). Time being allocated for teachers to work and reflect together in a process of collective inquiry, such a process may be strengthened by more democratic forms of governance. These groups, composed of school leaders, administrators, teachers, parents and community members, would not be traditional parliamentary decision-making groups, but would act as champions for extended inquiry. The focus is also on characteristics that assist the transformation to a learning organization, including a clear purpose, participation in decision-making of staff, parents and students, high leadership capacity and broad-based participation.

School principals actively mitigate against transformation and innovation by buffering teachers against outside interference; they and teachers are threatened by intrusions into the technical essence. This prompts well-known arguments that conjure mystery and inviolability of the unique relationship between each student and teacher and its need for distance from bureaucratic or policy controls. Cibulka (2003) focuses on rejection of "machine bureaucracy" and the replacement of structural hierarchy with collaborative networks as essential to building a learning organization, while Johnson (2003) identifies four factors affecting the growth of schools as learning organizations:

- the existence of inclusive collaborative structures;
- effective communication channels;
- integrated professional development programs;
- learning-focused leadership.

Senge (2000) also identifies a range of learning disabilities which, when adapted to the school context, would include:

- narrow job or role definition and compartmentalized structures;
- blame shifting, where individuals cannot see the larger system and their place within it;
- staring at events but missing the patterns;
- suffering the illusion of taking charge.

Leadership capacity

Building leadership capacity, means broad-based, skilful involvement in the work of leadership. Leadership capacity appears to have two separate dimensions: an increased breadth of involvement in leadership, and skill acquisition and development amongst those involved.

Harris and Lambert (2003) draw a number of implications from this. They claim that building leadership capacity involves:

- redistribution of power and authority;
- acknowledging that everyone has the potential and right to work as a leader;
- seeing leadership as a shared endeavour;
- undertaking learning that leads to constructive change;
- resisting dependency on a single authority figure.

They describe the two critical conditions for building leadership capacity as having sufficient skilled teachers to carry forward the work of the school in accordance with a clear vision, and a commitment to self-renewal of the school through ongoing reflection, inquiry, conversations and focused actions. Fullan (2001) links the idea of building leadership capacity to succession, saying that leadership at all levels, developing and supporting leadership, and expecting leaders to develop other leaders are all essential components of present day strategies. The main trait of effective leaders is how many effective leaders they cultivate and leave behind, who can go even deeper than they did.

Sharing of leadership responsibility across the school community is much described in the literature. Mulford and Silins (2001) talk about the collective efficacy of the staff, the ability of teachers to engage in organizational learning and recognition of informal teacher leadership roles (not just promotion to formal leadership positions) as key components for building leadership capacity. They describe high performing restructuring schools as those where the work of leadership is assumed by the school community as a collective responsibility and where building leadership capacity is akin to the concept of distributed leadership, which develops into a characteristic of the organization itself.

Classroom management and organization

Responsibilities for getting the work done can be distributed among a leadership team or attributed to teachers as specific functions. All teachers – novice and experienced alike – recognize the challenges of classroom management and understand that this aspect of quality teaching is vital (Sokal, Smith & Mowat, 2003).

Classroom managers who are prepared for the ups and downs of the instructional day work to create a setting that responds to the ebb and flow of the students. A positive attitude conveys this preparedness to students. This positive attitude is contagious; it spreads throughout the classroom (Žogla, 2000)

In addition to arranging the physical setting, effective teachers establish and actively teach rules and procedures at the beginning of the school year and rehearse them in the context in which they will be applied. They consistently and fairly enforce the rules for all students. Good classroom managers are effective monitors of students, as well. These teachers are keen observers of student behaviors and are adept at discerning and addressing potential disruptions. Over and over again, the term "with-it-ness", meaning awareness of surroundings, is used to describe teachers who are effective classroom managers. Moreover, effective teachers who are aware of student behaviors have a tendency to be close to problems when they erupt, and so they can quell them quickly.

Studies show that classroom management is an influential variable in teacher effectiveness (Gorbet & Wilson, 2002). Elements of effective classroom management include establishing routines and procedures to limit disruption and time taken away from teaching and learning, maintaining momentum and variety in instructional practices, and monitoring and responding to student activity. These elements contribute to students active engagements in the learning process (Marzano, Marzano & Pickering, 2003).

Research findings on the classroom management skills of teachers consistently outline the following elements:

- effective teachers are more consistent and proactive in classroom management as compared to less effective teachers, who are more permissive and inconsistent (Molnar, 1999);
- effective teachers establish routines for all daily tasks and needs;
- effective classroom managers orchestrate smooth transitions and continuity of momentum throughout the day;
- effective teachers and classroom managers strike a balance between variety and challenge in student activities.

Classroom management skills include the use of space and proximity or movement around the classroom to be near trouble spots and encourage attention (McLeod, Fisher & Hoover, 2003).

Effective classroom teachers resolve minor inattention and disruptions before they become major disruptions.

Effective classroom managers are able to increase student engagement in learning and make good use of every instructional moment (Good & Brophy, 1997).

Capabilities of leaders

Leadership capabilities are often defined and discussed in terms of how they differ from competencies or standards. Spry (2002) points out the shortcomings in trying to identify the key competencies required within a given role, saying that it is no longer useful (and could be disastrous) to measure the performance of leaders in terms of reliable delivery, (...) technical expertise and the mastery of established procedures. She claims that in new uncertain and complex contexts, a leadership artistry is required that is unlikely to emerge from the acquisition of a generic set of management competencies gained through training or apprenticeship models.

Leithwood and Duke (2000) advocate a commonsense approach, saying that much of the debate about the qualities, practices and behaviors a school leader needs is over semantics and has no real bearing on what leaders deliver. Suffice it to say that school leadership has a lot to do with establishing directions which most of those with a stake in schools believe to be sensible and worthy of their initiative and commitment.

Sets of leadership qualities (expressed as competencies, capabilities, etc) abound. Claims about the efficacy of these sets are broad and often bold, including providing the leader with direction and confidence in their work, working as a tool for performance and accountability purposes, and informing aspirant leaders of what they are in for.

Interestingly, Stoll, Fink and Earl (2002) use the idea of capacity – both organizational and individual – to arrive at the following set of educational Learning Capacities:

- understanding learning;
- making connections;
- future thinking;
- contextual knowledge;
- critical thinking;
- emotional understanding.

Conclusions

1. Learning-centered leadership involves leaders in modeling an ongoing commitment to their own learning and in building expectations across the organization that all members are continually engaged in learning.
2. Leadership and learning are bound together by constructive change so that broad involvement, shared purpose and continuous learning across the school community are likely to result in the most significant and sustainable improvement.
3. Theories of trait leadership (associated with charismatic leaders) seem to be incompatible with both the demands of school leadership and ability to provide leadership in a democratic setting where the leadership skills of others are invaluable to the overall capacity of the organization to thrive.
4. The term "leadership capabilities" seems to encapsulate a set of qualities, practices and behaviors that are above a "competent" performance standard.
5. Identifying desired qualities for school leaders from agreed assumptions about the teaching and learning environment schools aim to create may be a more effective way of describing leadership capabilities than the traditional job analysis approach.
6. Effective teachers recognize that no single instructional strategy can be used in all situations. Rather, they develop and call on a broad repertoire of approaches that have proven successful for them with students of varying abilities, backgrounds, and interests.

Literature

1. Cibulka, A. (2002) Schools as Learning Organizations: a Review of the Literature. National College of school leadership (UK).
2. Costa, A., & Garmston R. (1998) Maturing outcomes. *New horizons for learning*, Vol. III, No. 4.
3. Fullan, M. (2001) *Leading in a culture of change*. Jossey – Bass.
4. Gorbett, D. & Wilson, B. (2002) What urban students say about good teaching. *Educational leadership*, 60 (1), 18-22
5. Good., T. L. & Brophy, J. E. (1997) *Looking in classrooms*. 7th ed. New York. Addison-Wesley.
6. Harris, A., & Lambert L. (2003) What is leadership capacity? National college for school leadership, UK.
7. Johnson, N. J. (2003) Perspectives on education and working in teams. Victorian department of education & training, Victoria.
8. Leithwood, K. & Duke, D. (2000) Defining effective leadership in Connecticut schools. A monograph prepared for the Connecticut state department of education.
9. Marzano, R. J., Marzano, J. S. & Pickering, D. J. (2003) *Classroom management that works: Research-based strategies for every teacher*. Alexandria, VA: Association for supervision and curriculum development.
10. McLeod, J., Fisher, J. & Hoover, G. (2003) The key elements of classroom managements. *Managing time and space, student behavior, and instructional strategies*. Alexandria, VA: Association for supervision and curriculum development.
11. Mulford, W. & Silins, H. (2001) Leadership for organizational learning and improved student outcomes. The LOLSO project, showcase paper presentation at the ACEA National Conference, Gold Coast, Queensland.
12. Senge, P. (2000) *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization*. Nicholas Brealey publishing.
13. Soka L., Smith, D. G., & Mowat, H. (2003) Alternative certification teachers attitudes toward classroom management. *The High School Journal*, 86 (3), 8–16.

14. Spry, Gayle. (2002) A framework for leadership in old catholic schools.
15. Stoll, L. (2002) Enhancing Internal Capacity: Leadership for Learning. National College for School Leadership
16. Stoll, L., Fink, D. & Earl, L. (2002) It is about learning (and it is about time). London: Routledge/Falmer.
17. Tafinders, P. (2004) Intensīvais līdervadības kurss. Rīga: Pētergailis, 155 lpp.
18. Žogla, I. (2000) Skolas pedagogija. III daļa. Eiropas ideja skolotāju izglītībā. Rīga: LUPPI. 40 lpp.

Kopsavilkums

Paradigmām mainoties no mācīšanās, atsevišķu priekšmetu apguves un pedagoga kā galvenā virzītājspēka izglītībā uz mācīšanos un izglītības ieguvēja aktīvu darbību, mainās arī daudzu jēdzienu izpratne. Mācīšanos kā zināšanu un pieredzes veidošanu, kas balstās uz apjēgšanu un nozīmīguma izpratni, ietekmē visas pieejas mācību procesam:

- 1) ir nepieciešams veidot saikni ar apgūstamām un iepriekš apgūtām zināšanām un starp zināšanu jomām,
- 2) aktualizējas saikne starp teoriju un praksi,
- 3) mācīšanās procesā nozīmīga ir sadarbība ar citiem tajā iesaistītajiem.

Aizvien lielāku nozīmi iegūst mācību process, kurā mācīšanās rezultātā veidojas kompetence. Skolas vadītāja darbības efektivitāti paaugstina vadības modelis, kas orientēts uz cilvēku, kad ar vadītāja autoritātes ietekmi un darbinieku motivāciju tiek panākta skolas kultūras uzlabošanās un skola mācās no savas darbības pieredzes.

Skolas kā mācīties spējīgas organizācijas gala produkts ir individuāls pasūtītāja problēmu risinājums – pēc iespējas kvalitatīvākas zināšanas, prasmes un attieksmes, kas nodrošina skolēna augstu dzīves kvalitāti nākotnē. Būt par skolas vadītāju šodien nozīmē būt par pārmaiņu vadītāju, kas pašreizējā situācijā ir komandas darbs, sadarbība un komunikācija ar vecākiem, sabiedrības pārstāvjiem un skolēniem. Skolas vadītājam jārada apstākļi, kas skolotājiem ļauj analizēt savu personisko un kopējo redzējumu un stimulē to, veido jauno risinājumu dziļāku izpratni, ļaujot personālam mācīties no savas darbības un uzlabot savu profesionālo kompetenci.

Atslēgvārdi: vadība, mācīšanās organizācija, vadības kapacitāte, kompetence.

About the author

Prof. Dr. Paed. **Ivars Muzis**, Chair of School Management Department, Riga Teacher Training and Educational Management Academy. Primary research interests are teacher effectiveness and teacher and administrator leadership competence.

Address: Imantas 7. līnija 1, Rīga. LV-1083, Latvija

Phone: (+371) 7808031

Fax: (+371) 7808031

E-mail: muzisivars@inbox.lv

A PROJECT OF LATVIAN VOLLEYBALL FEDERATION “VOLLEYBALL ABC” – HOW TO DEVELOP VOLLEYBALL IN LATVIAN SCHOOLS?

LATVIJAS VOLEJBOLA FEDERĀCIJAS PROJEKTS “VOLEJBOLA ABC” – KĀ ATTĪSTĪT VOLEJBOLU LATVIJAS SKOLĀS?

Tamara Shkolnikova

Riga Technical University, Latvia

Herbert Zoglowek

Finnmark University College, Norway

Abstract

Latvian Volleyball Federation started the project “Volleyball ABC” which is aimed to promote volleyball popularity in Latvian schools using the possibilities of education of interest.

One of the tasks of this project is to elaborate the study programme in education of interest by sport teachers for improving pupils' competence (pupils' experience constructed through learning, cooperation and communication) in volleyball.

The programme of the subject “Sports” includes a lot of ball-games like basketball, handball, volleyball, etc. But teaching possibilities are not equal for all ball-games. There are some objective and subjective conditions which decrease pupils' competence, e.g., in volleyball: insufficient time for volleyball teaching; very difficult technique of volleyball skills; insufficient and old sports facilities and equipment; unstable pupils' motivation to play volleyball because of lack of quick success; insufficient sport teachers' competence to teach volleyball because of their different sport specialization.

The main activities of the project are organisation of the methodical seminars, study courses, summer school for sport teachers (1); elaboration of study programme in volleyball by sports teachers (2); elaboration and organisation of system of different level sports competitions in volleyball for pupils of education of interest (3); preparation of methodical materials by sports teachers, translating and funding a book of volleyball teaching, supplying of sports equipment (T-shirts, balls, volleyball nets for Latvian schools) (4). The activities are oriented toward improvement of teachers' and pupils' competence in volleyball.

The paper is based on a questionnaire results of current situation in Latvian schools about volleyball status, pupils' motivation to play volleyball, conditions for teaching volleyball, sports teachers' competence to teach volleyball.

Keywords: physical education, facilities, volleyball, teachers' and pupils' competence in volleyball.

Introduction

In autumn 2007 the Latvian Volleyball Federation started a project to promote volleyball popularity in Latvian schools using the possibilities of education of interest. Background for this initiative was first that the Latvian volleyball, compared with European and international standard is only on a third level. And that is not a satisfying situation for a federation with higher ambitions. In accordance with the formula of achievement, that “breadth causes top”, the federation wants to improve volleyball in Latvian schools, with the expectation that this, in perspective, will create more top players. At the same time the federation meets in this project some goals, in which the sport federation of Latvia and the Ministry of Education are very interested. Perhaps these goals are more important. National and international studies have

shown that the physical capacity and the state of health in generally has decreased (Currie, e.a. 2000, 2004; Centrs 2003; Brettschneider/Naul 2004; Laskiene, e.a. 2004). Less movement, unhealthy food and unhealthy lifestyle – these are some reasons – make the situation of growing up for today’s young people more and more a society problem. Three examples illustrate the situation of Latvian youth.

	Male			Female			Total (11- to 15-year-old boys and girls)
	Age class						
	11-year-olds	13-year-olds	15-year-olds	11-year-olds	13-year-olds	15-year-olds	
Latvia	46.1	42.6	40.7	32.7	39.3	31.6	38.8
Estonia	42.1	47.0	40.8	35.7	35.8	29.2	38.4
Lithuania	35.4	40.8	39.1	31.6	31.0	25.4	33.9
Portugal	28.4	37.9	28.2	28.6	41.2	32.0	32.7
UK	31.7	31.8	30.5	28.4	33.0	30.2	30.9
Poland	34.0	35.3	33.3	24.1	26.8	22.2	29.3
Czech R.	26.1	31.3	30.5	23.1	22.0	23.5	26.1
Netherlands	22.2	29.3	29.6	16.8	22.8	21.6	23.7
Denmark	22.7	27.7	26.2	15.8	26.4	21.2	23.3
Italy	19.8	22.3	21.3	17.0	28.8	27.3	22.8
Spain	19.8	23.5	25.0	15.8	23.7	26.3	22.4
Belgium	22.8	26.7	21.9	15.6	17.6	19.9	20.8
Germany	15.5	25.3	27.0	11.7	20.7	22.6	20.5
Hungary	22.2	23.2	20.6	17.9	22.9	15.6	20.4
Ireland	20.0	24.9	19.6	16.0	17.7	18.2	19.4
France	18.3	23.2	22.7	13.3	17.5	19.9	19.2
Finland	17.4	19.7	18.6	21.7	19.2	17.8	19.1
Slovenia	23.1	23.3	16.4	16.8	20.0	13.9	18.9
Greece	19.5	24.6	21.0	12.0	18.0	13.4	18.1
Malta	18.9	22.4	17.0	12.1	24.6	12.1	17.9
Sweden	13.2	18.6	24.3	11.7	19.5	19.8	17.9
Austria	12.9	17.5	20.1	8.6	15.0	16.0	15.0
EU average	24.2	28.1	26.1	19.4	24.7	21.8	24.1

Fig. 1. Percentage of young people who watch television > 4 hours a day on weekdays (%)
(Brettschneider/Naul 2004, p. 42)

Figure 1 shows that nearly 39% of Latvian boys and girls are watching television daily for four hours or more. On weekend, the percentage increases to nearly 65%. Also in physical activities, the Latvian youth is among the lowest in Europe. In Figure 2 we can see that less than 50% of girls take part in vigorous activity outside school lessons as minimum twice a week. Boys’ activity lies around 70%, and that is also among the lowest.

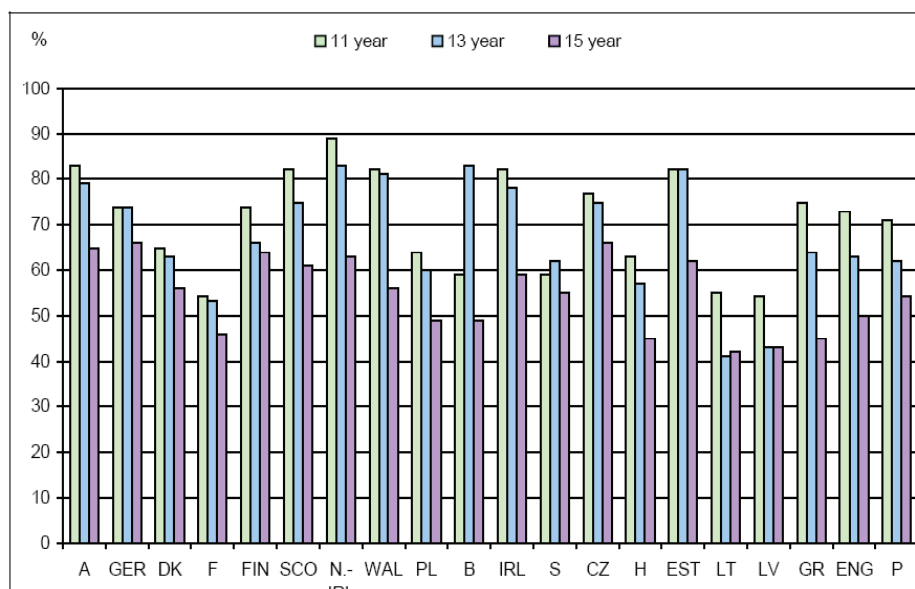


Fig. 2. Percentage of girls who exercise twice a week or more out of school.
(Brettschneider/Naul 2004, p. 25)

And, at last, physical education in the curricula of Latvian schools is neither satisfactory. 80 minutes per week is the lowest in Europe, as it is evident in Figure 3.

Country	Schoolyear															
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14		
Austria	100		150		200		150 -	200	150	150 -	200	100				
Belgium	100						100 -									
Czech Rep.	90															
Denmark	90				135	90										
Estonia	90						90 -									
Finland	90			135			90					45				
Germany	Land specific variations between 1-4 school hours a school year, ø 105 min															
Greece	not regulated															
Italy							60					120				
Latvia	80	80 -														
Lithuania	105	135			90											
Luxembourg	150							100			50					
Malta	150						200			90						
Netherlands	hours are no longer compulsory, though 2 lessons for one year at basic education level have to be taught															
Poland	135				200						90					
Portugal	100			150												
Slovakia	135				90					135						
Slovenia	145						90			145						
Spain	200										120					

Fig. 3. Minutes per week allocated to physical education/sport in EU countries (Hardman 2002)

The main goal and the tasks of the project

In this situation, schools, sport federation and sport organisations are urged to think and to find possibilities to stop this unfavourable course of development. To give a good and motivating offer to learn and to play volleyball, one step can be enough. And the Volleyball Federation is willing and able to take this step – and this is the project “Volleyball ABC”.

The goal of the project includes a variety of tasks such as:

- to give possibilities for sport teachers to develop their professional competence in volleyball teaching (study courses, summer school, competition system in volleyball, volleyball book and methodical materials, sports equipment);
- to motivate sports teachers to work out and implement a programme of volleyball in education of interest at their schools;
- to increase pupils' motivation for volleyball, acquiring the basic skills of this game;
- to supply better opportunities for selection of young talents – volleyball players;
- to promote a healthy lifestyle to pupils.

Which are the main problems? Which priority and which order is most successful? What are the most important wishes of the participants, teachers and pupils? Answers on these questions must be the basis for the further strategy. Therefore, the first stage in the project is a questionnaire for teachers. We have to emphasize two main directions of project's objectives aimed at different levels of pupils' physical activities, which include motivational moments, fundamental equipment and methodical questions.

First, the most important is promotion of motivation, motor skills acquisition, healthy lifestyle and lifelong physical activity of pupils. Another part of this aspect is sport teachers' motivation and competence. In this case, volleyball can be the basic strategy and a tool for successful goal achieving.

Second, the main priority is to provide schools with opportunities for raising young volleyball players. It should be a broad basis for selection of the new talents for teams, coaching them as top players.

Both directions have no contradiction, quite the opposite – better possibilities for sports activities for all, and the highly motivated pupils can progress through the school system and will be experienced in setting goals to a higher level of performance.

The first stage of the project aimed to achieve some objectives:

- to get a clear vision of the current situation of volleyball position, sports teachers' and pupils' competence in volleyball in Latvian schools;
- to organize seminars – theoretical and practical lessons for sports teachers in 6 Latvian towns: Cēsis, Gulbene, Daugavpils, Kuldīga, Jelgava and Rīga;
- to provide sports teachers with a new volleyball handbook and sports equipment for pupils (balls, nets, T-shirts).

The project started with a seminar with a focus on these three points. The teachers had to answer two questionnaires. One, at the beginning of the seminar day, about the situation in physical education in general, and the second, at the end of the seminar day, about volleyball situation, competence and methodology.

The aim of the article is to present, to discuss and to evaluate the first results of the questionnaire. These are

- objective results: teaching conditions in Latvian schools in general and specifically in Volleyball;
- subjective results: pupils' interest in physical activities at all and in volleyball separately; motivation and didactic competence of physical education teachers for teaching volleyball.

Presentation of the results

(a) The state of physical education teaching: physical and psychological prerequisites

The project aims to include most schools in Latvia. But, of course, with nearly a thousand schools, it is not possible that all schools simultaneously can be involved in the project. In the first phase of the project, the seminar in October 2007, 126 schools and 145 sports teachers from all Latvian regions participated.

The Latvian Volleyball Federation invited these schools, taking into account two criteria: the school must have a sports hall for teaching volleyball, and the school is not very active in volleyball. In addition, we have ensured that all sports teachers have a diploma of higher education.

In the first analyzing work, we focused on teachers' opinion about teaching and learning situation in physical education. We have taken the first diagram (Figure 4) from a report at the Sport Congress «Developing the Program of National Sport for 2005–2012» in Riga in September 2006. It shows the number of schools and sports halls in different towns and regions in Latvia. We have taken the results of these towns and regions which teachers participated in the first phase of the project. The results are quite clear.

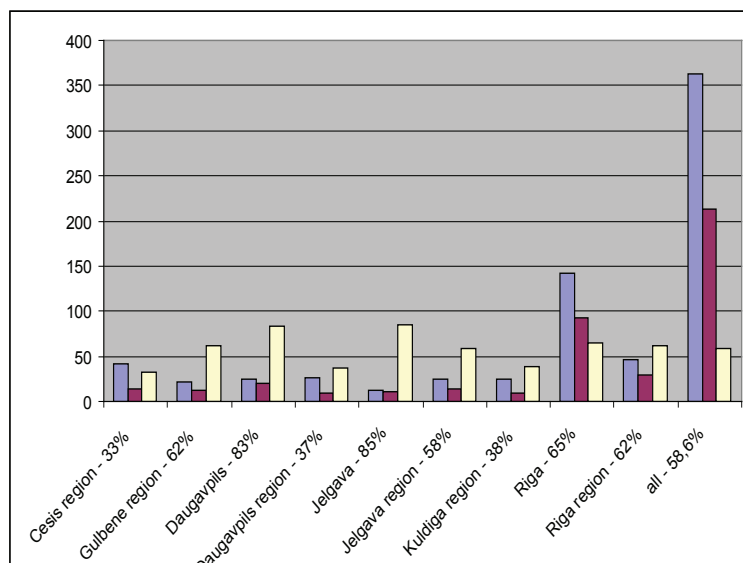


Fig. 4. Availability of sports halls at selected secondary schools in Latvia (N = 364)

There are only two towns (Jelgava and Daugavpils) where the situation is almost good, but the other towns and regions have not enough sports halls or the halls are in very bad condition. In Cēsis, Daugavpils and Kuldīga, only every third school has a sports hall, in Gulbene, Jelgava and Rīga two of three schools have a sports hall. Only 65% of these Latvian schools have a sports hall at all; considering the whole country, it's only 53%. In other words, nearly every second physical education teacher has no sufficient working conditions.

We have said that all participants of this project have a sports hall; that means, they are among these 65% of schools with this basic condition. Therefore, now it is interesting to see how the teachers would evaluate the general equipment for teaching of physical education and the conditions to teach and to play volleyball inside these sports halls.

For developing popularity and improving the quality of volleyball in Latvian schools, teaching possibilities occupy an important place in the whole complex of pedagogical and psychological conditions. The level of sport facilities' quality has been classified by five marks: excellent (8.4%), good (29.5%), satisfactory (33.8%), poor (22.5%), very poor (5.5%) (Fig. 5).

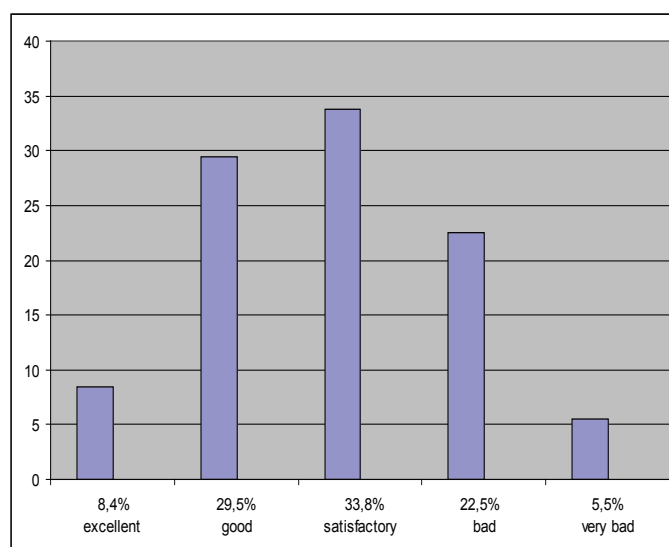


Fig. 5. The general working conditions to teach physical education (teachers' opinion) (N = 144)

Notably, the situation with sports facilities at schools is mostly evaluated as “satisfactory” and “good”. Mostly schools have sports halls with more or less suitable conditions for sports lessons. Nevertheless, every fourth sports hall is in poor or very poor condition, that means unsuitable for quality teaching.

Corresponding to these objective moments are the results about pupils’ interest in physical education, although we must emphasize that we have asked teachers, and the results are teachers’ opinions. But for sports teachers, pupils’ interest in physical activities is one of the most important criteria for their attitude to sports lessons, and it partly indicates the professional competence of the teachers.

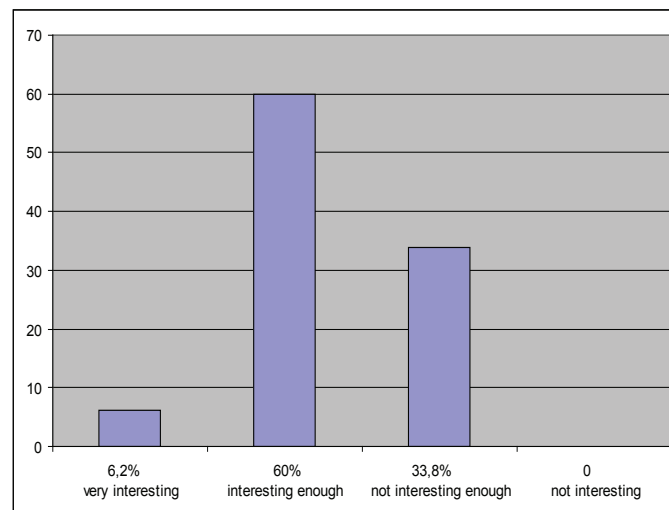


Fig. 6. Pupils' interest in physical activities (teachers' opinion) (N = 145)

In teachers' evaluation, pupils' interest in physical activities is very high (6.2%), sports lessons are interesting enough (60%) (Fig. 6). At the same time, the results display that every third pupil is not really interested in physical activities. From this point of view, perhaps the result in the next diagram is much more important, some will probably say: dramatically. We have asked whether the interest in physical activities has changed in the last years. More than half of the teachers deem that there has been a decrease of interest and engagement in physical activities.

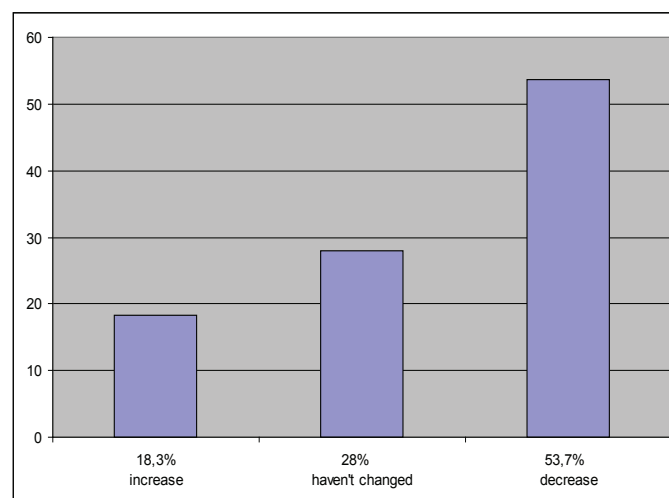


Fig. 7. Evaluation of the dynamics of pupils' interest in physical activities (teachers' opinion) (N = 139)

This result must attract special attention. 53.1% of the teachers think that pupils' interest for physical activities has decreased (Fig. 7). Nowadays, it is possible to play games without physical activity, e.g., on the internet or computer games. That can be one of the explanations of pupils' positive motivation for sports. It is probable that lack of good sports halls and lack of good sports equipment indirectly influences pupils' attitude to physical activities.

(b) The state of volleyball teaching: physical and psychological aspects

The question about the conditions to teach and to play volleyball shows the same tendency as the conditions to teach physical education (Fig. 5), indeed a little better. Sports teachers have evaluated the level of their sports facilities for teaching volleyball, using the same five grade system as in Figure 5: very good (10.4%), good (35.4%), satisfactory (31.7%), poor (15.3%), very poor (7.2%) (Fig. 8).

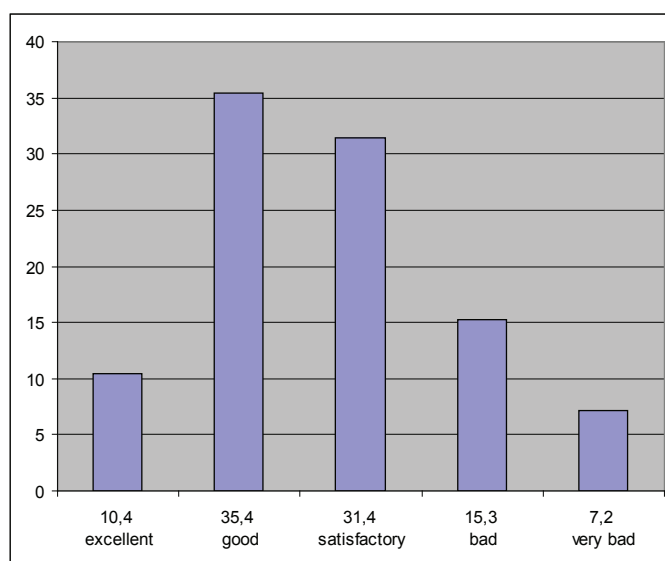


Fig. 8. The working conditions to teach volleyball (teachers' opinion) (N = 124)

Teaching conditions for teaching volleyball can be evaluated mostly as good and satisfactory. Four of five teachers evaluate the possibilities positively. It seems that these results are confirmed by the next two questions. First, about pupils' interest to learn and to play volleyball. As Figure 9 shows, we can notice that pupils' interest in volleyball in most cases is very high.

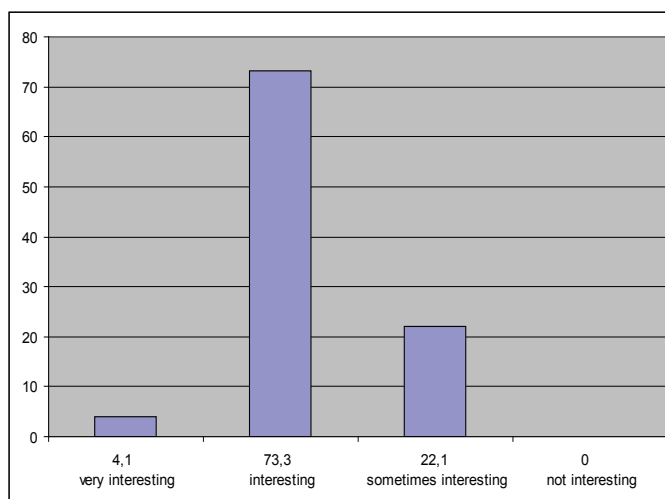


Fig. 9. Pupils interest in volleyball (teachers' opinion) (N = 122)

The great pupils' interest in volleyball is confirmed by the next question: "Do you have a volleyball team at your school?" It is remarkable that many schools (70%) have one or more volleyball teams (Fig. 10).

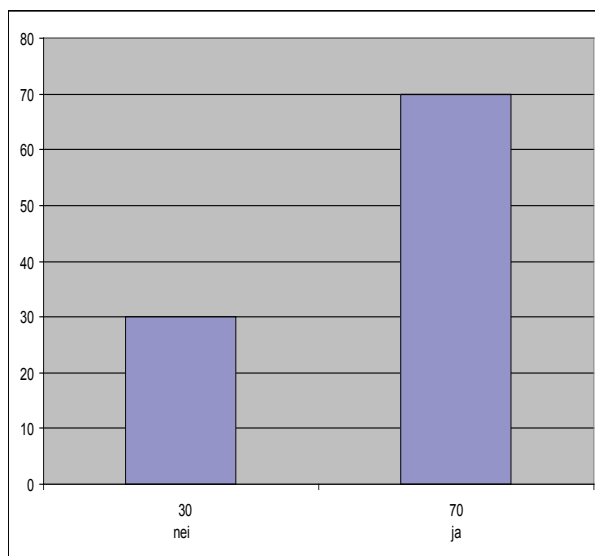


Fig. 10. Amount of schools which have volleyball teams (N = 119)

This result is slightly surprising because one of the prerequisites for participation was that volleyball is not popular at the school. Maybe the teachers distinguish the word "popular" qualitatively way: high interest, but not successful and not much competition activity.

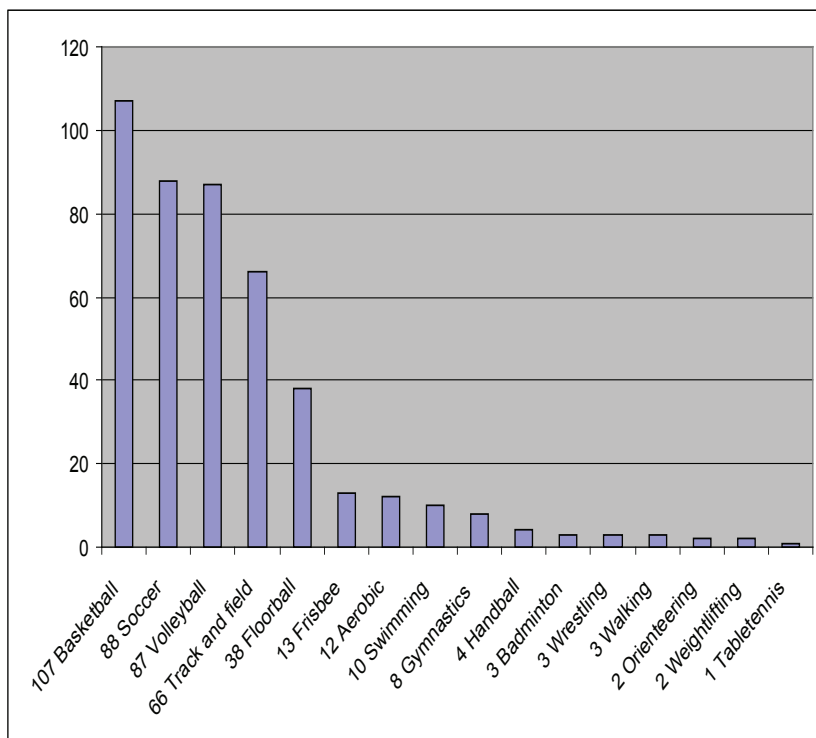


Fig. 11. The most popular sports activities at schools (teachers' opinion) (N = 142)

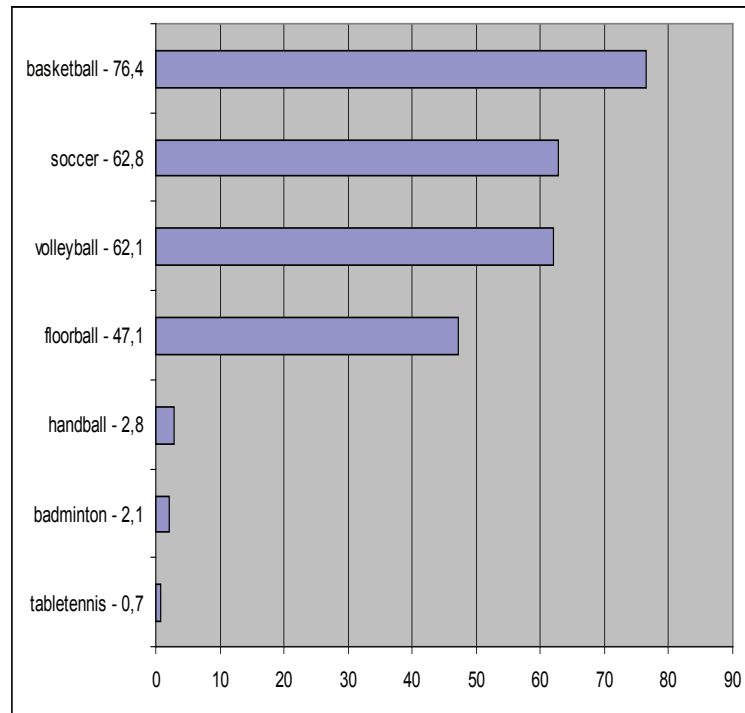


Fig. 12. The most popular ball-games (teachers' opinion) (N = 142)

What kind of sport activities are the most popular at schools? The analysis of questionnaire's results shows that basketball (107 choices), football (88), volleyball (87) are the most attractive for pupils (Figures 11 and 12). Team games are more interesting than individual games where children can develop their cooperation skills and enjoy the game with high emotions.

It looks that the situation for volleyball is "satisfactory" and "good". We get a more different picture when we look deeper at the answers of the question about the most difficult problems to teach volleyball. We have divided the answers in two figures, the first (Fig. 13) shows the main objective problems, the second (Fig. 14) we will come back to, this category will show more subjective and methodical problems.

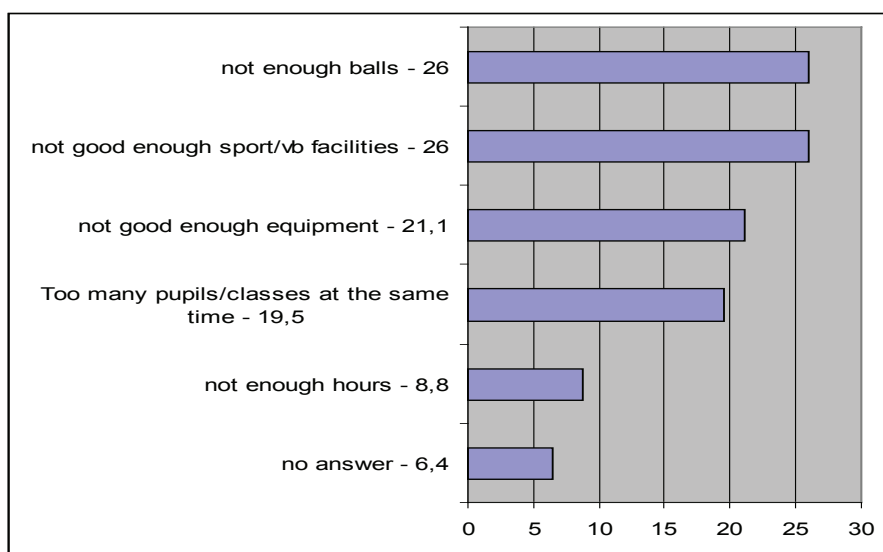


Fig. 13. The most difficult problems to teach volleyball (objective aspects) (N = 124)

Even if the situation with facilities is in general quite satisfying, on a closer inspection, every fourth teacher complains about not enough balls and not good enough equipment. Every fifth teacher complains about principal organisation problems, on the grounds of too little time and too much pupils in lessons. Some teachers report about three classes of more than fifty pupils at the same time. That there are not enough hours to teach makes no difference in view of the other problems.

(c) The state of volleyball teaching: methodical and organizational aspects

In addition to the objective problems we have already shown in Fig. 13, we can name here some more methodical problems, which the teachers have named in relation to teaching of volleyball. These results are shown in Figure 14. We think that these results also give a different picture and show a certain contradiction with the first, more positive results.

Pupils' interest in volleyball is important for acquiring basic skills in volleyball and for learning correct volleyball technique. Sport teachers are responsible for the quality of volleyball lessons and their attractiveness to pupils. What are the possibilities for sport teachers' preparation for volleyball lessons?

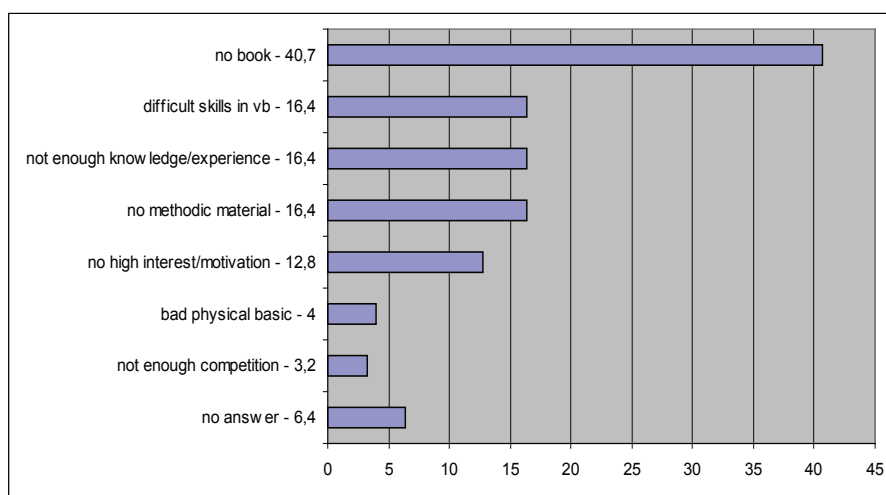


Fig. 14. The main problems of sport teachers' preparation and conducting of volleyball lessons (didactically-methodical aspect) (N = 124)

We can analyse the next group of teachers' answers: some pupils have insufficient physical condition to learn and work with volleyball skills. This number is under 5% and is not really important. Also, one in eight pupils is not seriously interested in volleyball. This is quite normal. Some of them perhaps lose motivation because they are mostly interested in competition, which they do not get enough. It is more important that nearly every fifth teacher does not feel competent enough to teach volleyball. It is remarkable because the same percentage think that volleyball skills are difficult, maybe too difficult to come up on a good level in school volleyball. In addition, there is not enough methodical help, and 40% of the teachers state that they have no volleyball book at their disposal. Probably these sport teachers use their own methodical materials from their study years or remembered knowledge from seminars or courses.

It is a usual situation that there are not enough books in Latvia on sports pedagogy. The teachers named only six books, which they use for volleyball teaching, and only two of these are volleyball books, the others are books about ball-games, where volleyball is only a small part. When we search inside these books, we can notice that the way in which these books

have been written is not suitable for using the material in everyday work. We can imagine that teachers with low knowledge and competence will especially have problems because:

- (a) there is only a technical description and only a few pictures; sometimes they show an unclear or incorrect technique because of the bad quality of drawings;
- (b) there are only technical exercises drawings without explanation about purpose of usage;
- (c) the practical exercises are without developing of cognitive thinking of the pupils;
- (d) there are no theoretical cognitive exercises or homework for pupils.

Conclusions

Objectively seen, the situation in physical education in Latvian schools is unsatisfactory. Only 52% of schools have a sports hall, and most of them cannot implement the requirements which are set in the «standard of sport». Nevertheless, it seems that the majority of teachers manage the situation, on the condition that they have a sports hall. They are satisfied with the general setup, which means that they are able to manage the everyday teaching of physical education.

We can note a relatively large interest: large interest and engagement of teachers in teaching sports activities, large interest of pupils in physical activities, and also large interest in volleyball. This is in spite of the unsatisfactory conditions. In contrast, more than 50% of the teachers have noticed a decrease of interest in physical activities. It is not easy and obvious to give reasons for this development, but the teachers have also given some indications where they see the most difficult problems. In talks and discussions with physical education teachers, these problems became clearer. The everyday teaching for teachers and the learning situation for pupils has a lot of problems in physical education. We want to summarize this complex of problems in objective and subjective conditions.

Objective conditions:

- sports facilities (lack of sports halls or old halls which are not suitable for volleyball playing);
- sports equipment (insufficient amount of balls, old or poor quality volleyball nets, etc);
- scientific literature, books, methodical materials on volleyball are insufficient in Latvian, very old in Russian, no books translated from other languages;
- insufficient time for volleyball teaching (programme of the subject “sports” includes a lot of ball games but not enough time for their acquisition);
- the too complicated technique and strong rules of the volleyball game (these conditions have a large influence on pupils' motivation for volleyball).

Subjective conditions:

- insufficient competence of sports teachers to teach volleyball. Many sports teachers have not enough knowledge both methodical (insufficient methodical preparation of different theoretical approaches in teaching) and practical (lack of a variety of special exercises of volleyball – which kind of exercises to use); lack practical skills of correct volleyball technique because of their different sports specialization;
- pupils' motivation to participate in physical activities. Starting with grade 6–12, we have decline of pupils' intrinsic motivation in the last years. One possible reason is that many physical educators were excellent athletes and enjoyed competitive sports, and it is simply hard for them to imagine that not all children and young adults feel the same way they do. Competitive sports are not bad but it is a poor teaching method

and lack of connection to adult life. One more reason is lack of particular interest in, fun and excitement about exercise-learning situations. One of the most important keys for sport teachers: emphasize enjoyment! Being physically active should be enjoyable and interesting;

- pupils' unstable motivation to play volleyball. Pupils' need to play volleyball are not satisfied because of frustration, unstable motivation, which appears in the difficult learning process without both successful feedback on the process and quick satisfaction of the results. It is not enjoyable to participate in an activity in which a pupil lacks the basic skills. Pupils cannot play volleyball if they have no basic skills in volleyball, have not enough balls and cannot play on a standard volleyball court (have not enough place).

Perspectives

On the basis of the empirical results, discussions with teachers and aims of the project, we can formulate the following contradictions, which make the situation around volleyball in Latvian schools problematic, and which the continuing project has to work with:

- A contradiction between pupils' wishes to play volleyball and their insufficient basic skills or lack of the skills for volleyball;
- A contradiction between pupils' large interest to acquire volleyball and the low level of sports teachers' competence in this game;
- A contradiction between pupils' motivation to play volleyball and insufficient sports facilities, sports equipment and learning time for volleyball;
- A contradiction between the interest of sports teachers in teaching volleyball and insufficient sports literature and methodical material on volleyball.

Literature

1. Brettschneider, W.-D., Naul, R. (2004) "Study on young people's lifestyle and sedentariness and the role of sport in the context of education and as a means of restoring the balance" – Final report – Paderborn <http://europa.eu.int/comm/sport/documents/lotpaderborn.pdf>
2. Bünemann, A. (2005) Mediennutzung im Heranwachsendenalter – Ursache für steigende Übergewichtsprävalenzen? In: Sportunterricht, 54, No.12, 362–367.
3. Latvijas jaunatnes sporta centrs. (2003) Sporta izglītības rādītāji – 2003/2004. m. g. 7–21.
4. Currie, C., Hurrelmann, K., Settertobulte, W., Smith, R., Todd, J. (2000) Health and health behaviour among young people. Copenhagen: World Health Organisation.
5. Currie, C., Roberts, C., Morgan, A., Smith, R., Settertobulte, W., Samdal, O., et al. (2004) Young People's Health in Context. Health Behaviour in School-aged Children (HBSC) Study: international report from the 2001/2002 survey. (Health Policy for Children and Adolescents, No. 4) Copenhagen: World Health Organization Regional Office for Europe.
6. Fischer, U., Zoglowek, H., Eisenberger, K. (1995) Sportiv: Volleyball. Leipzig.
7. Hardman, K. (2002) Council of European Survey (CDDS), European physical education/sport survey. Report on summary of findings. Strasbourg.
8. Lapiņš, V. (2002) Volejbols. Mācīšanas metodika. Rīga
9. Laskiene, S., Zaborskis, A., Zemaitiene, N., Abele, A., Zeringyte, A. (2004) Study on young people's lifestyle and sedentariness and the role of sport in the context of education and as a means of restoring the balance. Case of Lithuania and Latvia. Lithuania: Academy of Physical Education.

Kopsavilkums

Rakstā ir sniegti materiāli, kas atspoguļo Latvijas Volejbola Federācijas (LVF) projekta “Volejbola ABC” pirmā posma rezultātus. Raksta mērķis – analizēt un novērtēt psiholoģiskus un pedagoģiskus nosacījumus Latvijas skolās, kas ir nepieciešami fiziskās audzināšanas procesa norisei kopumā un volejbola mācīšanai atsevišķi. Dati, kas ir prezentēti rakstā, balstās uz anketēšanas rezultātiem. Mērķa grupa, kas bija iesaistīta pētījumā, ir sporta skolotāji ar augstāko izglītību no 6 Latvijas reģioniem.

Diskusijā ir izceltas dažās pretrunas, kas parādījās pētījuma gaitā, un skar fiziskās audzināšanas mācību procesu.

The authors

Tamara Shkolnikova – Dr. Paed., Associate Professor at the Riga Technical University, Sports Department, Rīga, Latvia.

Fields of research: professional competence and evaluation system of sports teachers; theoretical concepts and didactic models in physical education; research methods in sports pedagogy.

Riga Technical University,
Kaļķu Street 1, LV-1658, Rīga, Latvia.
E-mail: tshk@inbox.lv

Herbert Zoglowek – Dr. Phil., Associate Professor at the Finnmark University College, Department of Physical Education and Sports Studies, Høgskolen i Finnmark, Alta, Norway.

Fields of research: teacher's professional development and identity; didactic concepts and models in teaching ball games; qualitative research methods; interview as conversation; communicative validity; outdoor life education in a didactic perspective.

Finnmark University College,
Follumsvei 31, N-9509 Alta (Norway),
E-mail: herbert@hifm.no

LĪDERĪBAS UN AUTORITĀTES JĒDZIENI SKOLOTĀJA PROFESIONĀLAJĀ DARBĪBĀ

CONCEPTION OF LEADERSHIP AND AUTHORITY AS A COMPONENT OF TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITY

Sandra Smilga

School of Business Administration "Turība"

Anotācija

Mūsdienās skolotājam ir svarīgi būt līderim, kurš, izmantojot savas profesionālās kompetences un līdera prasmes, varētu izglītot un audzināt konkurētspējīgu un uz partnerattiecībām orientētu jauno paaudzi. Pētījumā apskatīta skolotāja līderība kā profesionālā iezīme.

Skolotāji uzskata, ka produktīvā izglītības procesā skolotāja izraudzītās galvenās pieejas pamatā ir pedagoga personīgās īpašības.

Autore teorētiski analizē autoritāti kā skolotāja profesionālās darbības komponenti un tās specifiskās izpausmes. Skolotāja autoritātes īpašības analizētas saistībā ar līdera īpašībām. Pedagoģijā, kas balstās uz humānisma idejām, varas jēdziens tiek aizstāts ar skolotāja autoritātes jēdzienu un līdera personīgajām īpašībām, kā arī skolotāja spēju veidot skolēncentrētu mācību procesu. Autores uzmanības centrā ir divi jēdzieni – līderība un autoritāte.

Atslēgvārdi: līderis, autoritāte, kompetence, sadarbība, partnerattiecības.

Ievads

Raksta mērķis ir atklāt nozīmīgas skolotāja profesionālās īpašības mūsdienu pedagoģijas procesā, pētīt tās mūsdienu kontekstā, lai palīdzētu skolotājam apzināties humānpedagoģijas būtību, bet skolēniem – tiesības un pienākumus to vienotībā, kā arī to realizēšanas specifiku sociālajā vidē. Tādēļ pētījumam izraudzītas divas parādības – skolotāja līdera īpašības un skolotājs kā autoritāte skolēnu vidū, kas nepieciešamas skolēncentrēta procesa veidošanai.

Humānpedagoģijā skolotāja autoritāte ir aplūkota pietiekami plaši, tomēr šīs parādības attīstība kontekstā ar līdera spējām joprojām ir aktuāls izpētes temats.

A. Maslovs (Maslow, 1997) par nozīmīgu jautājumu humānistiskajā audzināšanā uzskata jauniešu pašaktualizāciju, vajadzību un spēju identificēties ar skolēnam nozīmīgu grupu, kā arī citu spēju atklāšanu. Šajā kontekstā skolēna daudzveidīgo spēju attīstība ir visnotaļ saistīta ar skolotāja līdera autoritāti, kas funkcionē kā pedagoģiski profesionāla kompetence, kura veicina skolēna pašaktualizāciju. Turklāt, pēc A. Maslova domām, svarīgāk ir veicināt skolēna domāšanu nekā uzvedību, viņš kritizē arī stimulu praksi, tajā skaitā pārspīlētu atzīmes nozīmi, akcentējot skolēna apzinātu darbību sevis attīstībai.

Latvijas skolās mūsdienu izglītības vidē ir šādas pedagoģiskās pieejas, uz kurām balstās mācību process:

- 1) uz skolotāja personību un darbību centrēta pieeja;
- 2) uz mācību priekšmetu centrēta pieeja;
- 3) uz sabiedrības vajadzībām un interesēm centrēta pieeja;
- 4) uz skolēnu kā personību, kā vērtību centrēta pieeja;
- 5) uz skolēna darbību, mācību prasmēm un pieredzi centrēta pieeja.

Tikai divas pēdējās pieejas atbilst humānpedagoģijai un uz skolēna mācīšanos orientētai pedagoģiskai paradigmai, kas arī ir paradigmu maiņas mērķis izglītības reformā. Pirmās trīs pieejas liecina par paradigmu maiņas procesu un reformas nepabeigtību.

Humānpedagoģiska procesa centrā atrodas cilvēka personība, palīdzība skolēnam pašam darīt un attīstīties, pašizteikties un pašnoteikties. Līdz ar to humānpedagoga darbs ir vērsts uz skolēnu – viss, ko dara skolotājs, palīdz skolēnam attīstīties. Tādējādi mūsdienu mācību procesā ir svarīgi nodrošināt pedagoga un skolēna kopveseluma skatījumu uz skolēna attīstību, mācīšanos kā attīstības pamatu, mācību saturu un metodēm, kā arī skolotāja īpašībām, kuras veicina skolēna patstāvības attīstību.

Izglītībā notikušās pārmaiņas tiek saistītas ar skolotāju un skolēnu attiecību problēmām, kuru pamatā vienmēr ir sociālās vērtības un kuras saasinās vērtību maiņu laikā. Vērtību kopums nosaka kā skolēna, tā skolotāja rīcību un savstarpējās attiecības.

Skolotāja pieredze un pedagoģiskā kompetence aptver viņa līdera spējas, kas nodrošina mūsdienīga skolēncentrēta procesa un pedagoģiskās vides izveidošanu. Skolotāja darbs un uzdevumi vērtību maiņas apstākļos kļūst īpaši sarežģīti. Skolēnu mācīšanās efektivitāte, lietderīgi izmantotās mācību procesa iespējas bieži vien saistās ar skolotāja spēju nodrošināt piemērotus darba apstākļus mācību stundā, arī skolēnu darba disciplīnu un mācībām piemērotu kārtību, lai ieguvēji būtu visi un katrs.

Izglītības vidē liela uzmanība tiek pievērsta pašdisciplīnai, savstarpējai cieņai, dalītai atbildībai, sociālajai vienlīdzībai. (Balsons, 1996, 10. lpp.) Šīs īpašības skolēni attīsta sociālajā vidē, arī skolotāja vadītajā pedagoģiskajā procesā. Tādēļ pētījumā ir vienotībā aplūkotas skolotāja līdera un autoritātes īpašības, skolēna un skolotāja tiesības un pienākumi.

Ir svarīgi atrast robežu, kur saduras skolotāja tiesības darīt savu darbu – palīdzēt skolēniem apgūt priekšmetu un attīstīties vispusīgi un harmoniski, no vienas puses, un skolēna tiesībām, kā arī savu tiesību individuāli subjektīvu izpratni, no otras puses. Lai mazinātu spriedzi, kas objektīvi var rasties un rodas šajā kontekstā, pētījumā aplūkota skolotāja līdera kompetence vienotībā ar autoritāti.

Skolotāja un skolēna tiesības

Skolotājam ir tiesības aizrādīt skolēnam, kurš traucē stundu vai pārkāpj skolas kārtību starpbrīdī. Skolēnam ir tiesības tikt ievērotam, uzklausītam, saprastam. Kā noteikt to robežu, kur varētu nonākt pretrunā skolotāja tiesības ar skolēna tiesībām? Autore uzskata, ka risinājums varētu būt humānas savstarpējās attiecības, kuras veidojas, citam citu labi pazīstot un uzticoties. Tas nozīmē, ka skolotājam labi jāpazīst skolēni un skolēniem skolotāji, lai starp viņiem rastos uzticība. Ulbrokas vidusskolas skolotāja Ilze Šūmane ir veikusi pētījumu un analizējusi skolēnu atbildes par to, kādam jābūt skolotājam, lai viņš iemantotu skolēna uzticību. Septiņas atbildēs biežāk minētās īpašības ir “saprotošs, mīļš, sirsnīgs, gudrs, godīgs, ar humora izjūtu, stingrs”. (Šūmane, 2008) Kā redzams, skolēnu vēlmes nav vienpusējas un izteikti liberālas, tās ietver tādas īpašības, kuras palīdz skolēnam iegūt labākus sasniegumus.

Uzticība ir ētikas kategorija, kas nav vienkārši nosakāma, bet izveidojusies tā rada labvēlīgu vidi vērtību apmaiņai pedagoģiskajā procesā.

Skolēni pozitīvi novērtē to, ka skolotājs izrāda skolēnam humānas īpašības, ka viņš arī ir cilvēks ar emocijām, jūtām un individuāliem pārdzīvojumiem. Tomēr jā saglabā distance (Brīlmeiers, 1998), kas palīdz skolēnam apgūt pieredzi kontrolēt savu rīcību.

Skolotāja Šūmane uzskata, ka skolēna uzticēšanos ietekmē arī skolotāja pieejamība. Svarīgi ir gūt skolēna uzticību viņu iedrošinot, ticot viņa spējām, tas nozīmē, ka skolēnam ir jāuztic atbildība par kādu kopējo darbu, kas arī palīdzētu nodrošināt viņa piederības izjūtu klasei un skolai. Līdz ar piederības izjūtu rodas arī atbildība par disciplīnu skolā, kas saistīta ar skolēnu vajadzību un tiesību īstenošanu.

Skolotāja Šūmane grupu diskusijās noskaidrojusi savas audzināmās klases skolotāju un skolēnu dominējošās vajadzības un tiesības.

Skolēnu vajadzības:

- labs un saprotošs skolotājs;
- draudzīgs klases kolektīvs;
- ērta, labi iekārtota klase.

Skolotāja vajadzības:

- ērti iekārtota klase un labi mācību piederumi;
- labs kontakts ar skolēniem;
- saskaņa ar mācību plāniem, skolas prasībām un skolotāja iekšējo būtību.

Skolēnu tiesības:

- mācīties klusumā un mierā;
- tiesības izteikties, tikt uzklausi, saņemt atbildi un palīdzību;
- mācīties drošā, sakārtotā vidē.

Skolotāja tiesības:

- aizrādīt skolēnam, kurš traucē citiem;
- darba, kāda pasākuma u. tml. plānošanā teikt galavārdu, lai varētu īstenot plānotās darbības. (Šūmane, 2008)

Lai nodrošinātu nepieciešamo disciplīnu klasē, pētnieki iesaka dažādus uzvedības modeļus, bet vienlaikus arī nonāk pie secinājuma, ka nav universālas metodes, kas apmierinātu visas vajadzības. (Priekule, 75. lpp.) Piemērotākais modelis ir “Disciplīna ar cieņu” pēc Kervina un Mendlera (Curvin and Mendler, 1998), kura pamatprincipi ir šādi:

- uzvedības veidošana ir nevis “caurumu aizlāpīšana”, bet gan ilgtermiņa programma;
- skolēnu uzvedības veidošana ir skolotāja darba sastāvdaļa;
- programmā ļoti svarīgi ir saprātīgi likumi;
- pats skolotājs ir uzvedīguma paraugs;
- skolotājs vienmēr izturas pret skolēniem ar cieņu;
- atbildība ir daudz svarīgāka par paklausību;
- skolotājs nenodarbojas ar neefektīvām lietām;
- skolotājs var neizturēties pret visiem vienādi, tomēr būt taisnīgs.

Kervins un Mendlers uzskata, ka vissvarīgākais ir iemācīt skolēniem izturēties atbildīgi, skolēnus nekādā veidā nešķirojot un neizslēdzot, jo tas izraisa aizvainojumus. Līdzdarboties tiek aicināti visi skolēni, arī tie, kuriem ir vislielākās problēmas ar komunikāciju, sadarbību, pieņemšanu grupā u. c., kas neļauj uzslavām aizēnot vērtības, bet sodu izraudzīties bez skaidras atbildes par iespējamām sekām. Kervins uzskata, ka daudz vērtīgāks disciplīnas balsts ir atbildība, nevis paklausība. Tādēļ šī pētījuma empīriskajā turpinājumā tiks analizēta skolotāja līdera spēja un autoritāte pēc tāda kritērija kā skolotāja un skolēnu individuāla un savstarpēja atbildība.

1. tabula

Paklausības un atbildības salīdzinājums (Priekule, 2006, 76. lpp.)

Skolēnu paklausība	Skolēnu atbildība
Balstās uz uzslavām un sodiem.	Balstās uz vērtībām; mācās pareizo arī no nepareizā.
Centrēta uz iebaidīšanu.	Uzmanības centrā ir norādījumi.
Vislabāk der paklausīgiem skolēniem.	Derīga visiem skolēniem.
Nepieciešama drošībai.	Piemērota visās situācijās.
Iedarbojas ātri, bet ne ilgi.	Prasa lielāku ieguldījumu.

Demokrātiskā sabiedrībā ir atbildības un pienākumu līdzsvars, bet līdzsvara iegūšanas līdzeklis ir apzināti pieņemtas normas, kuras, piemēram, noteiktas pedagoga ētikā un kuras uztur visiem pedagoģiskā procesa dalībniekiem pieņemamu kārtību.

Skolotāju un skolēnu saskarsmes ētiskās normas

Pedagogu profesionālās ētikas pamatprasību (Pedagogu profesionālās ētikas pamatprasības (projekts), 2000) ievaddaļā teikts: “Skolotāja darbs ietekmē daudzu cilvēku prātu, gribu, jūtas, viņu likteņus, tāpēc tas balstās uz noteiktiem ētikas principiem. Skolotāja ētiskās darbības pamatprincipi ir profesionalitāte, koleģialitāte, brīvība, atbildība, taisnīgums, patiesums, cieņa un pašcieņa, smalkjūtība.” Skolotājs attīsta skolēnos dažādas ētiskās vērtības:

- attīsta skolēnu patstāvību, spēju brīvi un atbildīgi lemt un rīkoties;
- neizmanto savas privilēģijas, lai uzspiestu kādus politiskus u. c. uzskatus;
- kopj dialoga kultūru;
- problēmsituācijas risina, nevairoties no konstruktīviem, pedagoģiski nepieciešamiem kompromisiem un principiāliem lēmumiem;
- ciena skolēna personību un tā savdabību;
- katrā skolēnā saskata pozitīvās īpašības un veido savas attiecības ar viņu, balstoties uz tām;
- nedala savus skolēnus tīkamajos un netīkamajos;
- uzklausa skolēnu domas un rēķinās ar tām;
- uzklausa skolēnu kritiku un nezaudē pašsavaldīšanos;
- ir iecietīgs, labestīgs, nepieļauj rupjību attiecībās ar skolēniem, vecākiem, kolēģiem;
- māca skolēnus būt iejūtīgiem pret citiem un pārvarēt savas vājības;
- neizpauž un neizmanto viņam uzticētos vai citādā veidā iegūtos skolēnu noslēpumus;
- izsakot padomus vai aizrādījumus, ņem vērā skolēnu vecuma psiholoģiskās īpatnības un iespējas uztvert pamācības;
- skolēnam neizsaka nepatīkamu patiesību viņa cieņu aizskarošā formā;
- skolēnam neizsaka nepatīkamu patiesību publiski, citu vienaudžu klātbūtnē. (Kuzņecova, 2003, 125. lpp.)

Uzvedības normas skolā ietver nosacījumus, kas veicina saskaņotu un ritmisku darbību skolas vidē un mācību procesā. Ir normas, kas nepieciešamas labām darba attiecībām, taču ir arī normas jeb normatīvi, kas traucē skolotājam pievērsties tieši skolēna personībai un centrā izvirza mācību priekšmetu, paša skolotāja darbību, bet skolēns paliek pēdējā vietā, pedagoģiskajā procesā veidojot disproporciju.

Lai skolotājs varētu sekmīgi strādāt, arī no skolēna puses ir nepieciešamas elementāras sadarbības un pieklājības normas.

Piemēram, dažas normas no vidusskolas iekšējās kārtības noteikumiem:

skolēnam jāuzņemas personīga atbildība par savu uzvedību skolā, nedrīkst darīt neko tādu, kas varētu traucēt un aizskart skolasbiedrus;

- skolā jāievēro sabiedrībā pieņemtās morāles un ētikas normas;
- skolēnam jāizpilda skolas pedagoga, darbinieku un skolas dežurantu prasības;
- skolēnam jāsviecina skolotāji, skolas darbinieki un skolas apmeklētāji, kuriem vajadzības gadījumā jāsniedz palīdzība;

- skolā jāierodas vismaz 10 minūtes pirms stundas sākuma;
- ja ir nokavēts stundu sākums, skolēnam, ieejot mācību telpā, jāatvainojas skolotājam par stundas traucēšanu un jālūdz atļauja piedalīties mācību procesā;
- uz stundām skolēns ierodas sagatavojies: ir izpildījis mājasdarbus, paņēmis līdzi nepieciešamos mācību līdzekļus;
- stundu laikā jāievēro disciplīna un klusums; jā rūpējas par sava kabineta un savas darbavietas kārtību un tīrību;
- skolēnu pienākums ir saudzēt skolas īpašumu, saudzīgi izturēties pret skolas telpām, inventāru, kā arī ievērot taupības režīmu (elektroenerģija, ūdens).

Noteikumi ir vispārzināmi, tomēr to apzināta ievērošana ir visa pedagoģiskā procesa audzinošs rezultāts, ko nevar iegūt epizodiski un vienpusēji pildot šos noteikumus.

Ja skolēns neievēro elementārās normas, kas nepieciešamas dzīvojot sabiedrībā, skolotājam ir tiesības smalkjūtīgi aizrādīt, neaizskarot skolēna pašcieņu. Skolēns iemācās būt pieklājīgs ne tad, kad iegaumē pieklājības normas, bet tad, kad viņš saskarsmē ar citiem skolēniem un skolotājiem, kā arī ar citiem cilvēkiem pārbauda savas ētiskās vērtības un nostiprina tās tikumiski pareizā, sabiedrībai pieņemamā veidā, atbilstoši vispārcilvēciskajām uzvedības un sadarbības normām, tā veidojot tikumiski atzīstamas uzvedības pieredzi. Šī atziņa veido vēl vienu kritēriju turpmākajai skolotāja autoritātes un līdera īpašību attīstībai.

Skolotājs ir tas, kurš palīdz skolēnam apgūt tikumiskās vērtības un attīstīt tikumus, atbalstīt tos uzvedībā un saskarsmē. Taču ikdienā daudzkārt vērojami uzvedības normu pārkāpumi – tā ir realitāte, kas jāizmanto audzinošiem mērķiem, veidojot līdzsvaru starp prasībām, to izpratni un katra skolēna nepieņemamas uzvedības pārdzīvojumu. Skolēniem ir jāpārliecinās arī par zaudējumiem, kas rodas no nepareizas uzvedības.

Skolotāja profesionālajos pienākumos ietilpst palīdzība, lai skolēns zinātu un saprastu skolas noteiktās konsekvētās disciplīnas prasības, kuras atbilstoši tiek iestrādātas arī katras klases uzvedības noteikumos. Skolotājs izmanto tādas metodes, kas māca skolēnu ierobežot sevi, savu rīcību, ja tā traucē saskarsmi. Viena no iespējām, ko iesaka vairāki pedagogi, ir noslēgt starp skolotāju un skolēnu sadarbības līgumu, kurā būtu formulēti klases disciplīnas likumi un sekas to neievērošanas gadījumā. (Priekule, 2006, 77. lpp.) Lielākā daļa skolēnu pieņems šos sadarbības noteikumus, bet vienmēr ir jā rēķinās ar iespēju, ka atsevišķi skolēni var nepakļauties nekādām prasībām. Tādā gadījumā, protams, jāiesaista papildspēki – vecāki, skolas administrācija, sociālie darbinieki. (Priekule, 2006, 83. lpp.)

Liela nozīme saskarsmē ar skolēniem ir skolotāja personībai. Autoritātes pamats ir skolotāja atbildība par savu uzdevumu, savstarpējo attiecību un savas personības pilnveidošanu.

Autoritārs skolotājs vai skolotājs – autoritāte?

A. Kuzņecova atzīmē, ka mūsdienās vēl daudziem vadītājiem un arī skolotājiem trūkst prasmju un iemaņu, trūkst arī metožu, kā pāriet no autokrātiskā vadības stila uz demokrātisko stilu. (Kuzņecova, 2003, 124. lpp.)

Skolotāju stilu atšķirību uzskatāmi parāda M. Balsons. Lai pārietu no autokrātiskā stila uz demokrātisko, pirmkārt, nepieciešams mainīt pašu skolu un skolotāju domāšanu. Ja skolotājs tikai atturas būt diktatorisks, par demokrātu tas nekļūst. Anarhija rodas, kad sāk uzskatīt, ka diktatūras pretstats ir demokrātija.

Būt demokrātam nenožīmē atzīt visatļautību, demokrātija ir sistēma, kas vēlreiz apliecina tādas vērtības kā cieņa, vienlīdzība, līdztiesība un atbilst principam – brīvība kopā ar kārtību. (Balsons, 1996, 130. lpp.) Vienīgā reālā izvēle ir starp autoritāru un demokrātisku vadības stilu, kuri raksturoti šādi.

2. tabula

Autoritāra un demokrātiska stila salīdzinājums (Balsons, 1996, 130.–131. lpp.)

Despotisks stils	Demokrātisks stils
Priekšnieks. Vara. Pavēles. Piespiedu līdzekļi.	Līderis. Aicinājumi. Veicināšana.
Asa balss.	Draudzīga balss.
Prasība darīt, sadarboties.	Aicinājums un apstākļu radīšana sadarbībai.
Uzskatu uzspiešana.	Uzskatu popularizēšana.
Kritizēšana.	Iedrošināšana.
Orientēšanās uz kļūdām.	Sasniegumu atzīšana.
Sodi.	Palīdzība.

Pētnieks secina, ka, pārejot no despotiskas vides uz demokrātisku, skolēni un skolotāji kļūst brīvi, taču brīvība nav iedomājama bez noteiktas kārtības un atbildības. Skolā tas panākams, pamatojoties uz cieņu, vienlīdzību un sadarbību. (Balsons, 1996, 132. lpp.) Pārejas gadu vērojumi liecina, ka vadības stila maiņa nav ātrs un vienkāršs process – skolotājam ir mērķtiecīgi un pacietīgi jāstrādā, kamēr skolēni apzinās atšķirības starp brīvību un visatļautību, tiesībām un pienākumiem. Pāreju uz demokrātisku vadības stilu skolotājs var realizēt, tikai pats praktizējot līdera prasmes un kļūstot par autoritāti skolēnu vidū.

Pedagoģiskajā literatūrā aizvien biežāk izskan doma, ka tagad vairāk nekā jebkad agrāk nepieciešams, lai tieši pedagogs būtu līderis, kas, izmantojot līdera kompetenci, spētu audzināt uz sadarbību orientētu jauno paaudzi. Daudzi autori ir vienprātīgi, ka līderis ir cilvēks, kurš ietekmē citus pārliecinot, nevis piespiežot. Tātad ir iespējams vadītājs, kuram ir varas autoritāte, bet nav personiskās autoritātes; var būt līderis, kuram ir personiskā autoritāte, bet nav oficiāla varas statusa, un visbeidzot var būt vadītājs – līderis. (Reņģe, 2007, 89. lpp.) Skolotājam ir dota šī vara līdz ar sociālo lomu sabiedrībā. Jautājums, kā to labāk izmantot pedagoģiskos nolūkos, lai panāktu vēlamu rezultātu – audzinātu un dzīvei sagatavotu, jaunajos ekonomiskajos apstākļos dzīvotspējīgu jauno paaudzi.

Vienkāršotā veidā vadītāja un līdera atšķirību var skaidrot ar autoritātes palīdzību. Var izšķirt “varas autoritāti”, kuru nosaka statuss, ieņemamais amats, un “personisko autoritāti”, kuru nosaka indivīda psiholoģiskās un morālās īpašības. Jo indivīdam ir lielākas iespējas apbalvot vai sodīt citus cilvēkus, jo lielāka ir viņa varas autoritāte. Ja indivīdam ir tikai varas autoritāte, tad pārējie, kuri ir atkarīgi no šī indivīda, galvenokārt baidās no viņa. Ja indivīdam ir personiskā autoritāte, cilvēki viņu respektē un ciena.

Dž. Hanters definē vadību kā “prasmi ietekmēt cilvēkus, lai viņi aizrautīgi strādātu, tiecoties uz mērķi, kas tiek uzskatīts par kalpošanu vispārības labā”. Savukārt autoritāte, pēc Dž. Hantera domām, ir “prasme panākt, ka cilvēks labprāt pilda jūsu gribu jūsu personiskās ietekmes dēļ”. (Hanters, 2002, 30.–31. lpp.) Vara ir definēta kā spēja, autoritāte – kā prasme. No pragmatiska viedokļa, autoritāte ir saistīta ar skolotāja pienākumiem garantēt klasē kārtību un visu aktivitāšu norisi un vajadzības gadījumā lietot sankcijas. (Foray, 616. lpp.)

I. Forands atzīmē, ka līderi raksturo arī “prasme komunicēt ar savu grupu un cilvēkiem. Ir svarīgi, lai viņam būtu lieliskas oratora dotības, spēja izveidot atgriezenisko saiti, kas ietver ne tikai savas domas izklāstu, bet arī prasmi klausīties, lai saklausītu tikko uztveramo sacītā nozīmi un izjūtas. Līderim jāuztver arī paustais neverbālā veidā, jo tas bieži vien pasaka vairāk nekā vārdi”. (Forands, 2007, 83. lpp.)

Autoritātes pētniece B. Freija uzskata, ka skolotāja autoritātes pamatā ir astoņas kompetences:

- 1) mācību priekšmeta kompetence;
- 2) didaktiskā–metodoloģiskā kompetence;
- 3) audzināšanas kompetence;

- 4) diagnosticējošā kompetence;
- 5) sociāli emocionālā kompetence;
- 6) komunikatīvā kompetence;
- 7) personīgā kompetence;
- 8) rīcības kompetence. (Frei, 2003, 46. lpp.)

Kā šīs skolotāja – autoritātes kompetences atbilst līdera kompetencēm un kā līderības pētnieki definē līderību?

V. Beniss (W. Bennis) secinājis, ka visiem līderiem nepieciešamas četras kompetences:

- 1) uzmanības vadība (iedvesmot, panākt, lai citi pieņem līdera idejas par savām);
- 2) uzdevuma vadība (noteikt svarīgāko);
- 3) uzticības vadība (emocionālā “līme”);
- 4) sevis vadība (pilnveidošanās, neatlaidība un pieķeršanās “lietai”). (Forands, 2007, 97.–98. lpp.)

Kets de Vriess atzīmē, ka līderim ir divas lomas – harizmātiskā un arhitektoniskā. Harizmātiskā loma ietver nākotnes redzējumu, varas sadali un iedvesmošanu; arhitektoniskā – projektu, kontroli un apbalvošanu. Turklāt viņš uzsver, ka īstie līderi nevar pastāvēt bez kādas no šīm lomām, jo tās viena otru papildina. (Kets de Vries, 2005, 255. lpp.)

Līderības pētnieks Dž. Edeirs izteicis vairākas atziņas.

- Līderis ir cilvēks, kas cilvēkus nevis vada (to manage), bet gan ved (to lead) un motivē. Līderis ir cilvēks, kam piemīt virziena izjūta.
- Līdera koncepts nozīmē, ka līderis sniedz savu ieguldījumu, kā arī koordinē pārējo darbu.
- Ja esi līderis, vienmēr svarīgi izrādīt uzticību cilvēkiem.
- Līderība ietver vadību ar piemēra rādīšanu. (Edeirs, 2007, 16. lpp.)

Kā atzīmē P. Tafinders, katram vadītājam – līderim ir sekotāji, un līderis šos sekotājus “ievirza”, rada uzticēšanos. Līderi rada piedzīvojuma sajūtu, ienes aizrautības garu. Līderi nav prognozējami, viņi pārsteidz un izgudro. (Tafinders, 2004, 17., 81., 83. lpp.)

D. Golemans kā primāro uzsver, ka lielie līderi vada cilvēkus ar emociju palīdzību. Vēsturiski dažādās kultūrās cilvēku grupas vadītājs – līderis ir bijis tas cilvēks, uz kuru visi lūkojas, gaidot padomu un atbalstu, ja jūtas nedroši, ja kāds jautājums nav skaidrs, sastopoties ar draudiem, vai ja veicams kāds uzdevums. Līderis darbojas kā grupas emocionālais gids. (Goleman, 2002, 4.–5. lpp.) Galvenais primārās līderības noslēpums, uzskata D. Golemans, ir līdera emocionālā kompetence – tas, kā līderis vada sevi un savas attiecības ar cilvēkiem. Līderi, kas pārvalda savas emocijas un maksimāli tās izmanto, vada cilvēkus vajadzīgajā virzienā. Kā vienu no būtiskiem aspektiem D. Golemans uzsvēris vadītāja – līdera smaids nozīmi un prasmi radīt pozitīvu atmosfēru darba vidē. (Goleman, 2002, 16.–17. lpp.) Autoritātes un līdera kompetencēm ir dažas kopīgas pazīmes.

3. tabula

Autoritātes un līdera kompetenču salīdzinājums
(pēc Frei B. un Bennis W.)

Skolotāja – autoritātes kompetences	Līdera kompetences
Mācību priekšmeta, didaktiskā un metodoloģiskā kompetence, audzinātāja, komunikatīvā kompetence, sociāli emocionālā kompetence, personīgā kompetence.	Uzdevumu vadība, uzmanības vadības prasme, uzticības vadība, harizma, sevis vadība.

Šīs īpašības, attīstoties vienotībā, pastiprina cita citu un tādējādi kā skolotāja profesionālās kompetences nozīmīgas īpašības atbilst humānpedagoģiska procesa organizēšanai.

Līderības pētniecībā ir vairākas pieejas, viena no tām ir personības pieeja. O. Grišāne, pētot Valsts ģimnāziju skolotāju sniegumu laikmetīgai mācību organizācijai, secina, ka visvairāk mācību procesa kvalitāti ietekmē skolotāja personība. (Grišāne, 2006, 28. lpp.)

Psiholoģijas skolotāja Antra Sloka (Sloka, 2008) ir veikusi pētījumu, kas parāda, kādu skolotāju vēlētos redzēt skolēni un kādu skolotāji. Pētījuma rezultāti piedāvāti saīsinātā veidā, minot tikai pirmās nosauktās īpašības.

Skolēnu ideālais skolotājs ir

- saprotošs;
- māk ieinteresēt, pasniegt savu priekšmetu;
- stingrs, prasīgs.

Skolotāji uzskata, ka ideāls skolotājs ir

- zinošs, gudrs savā profesijā;
- māk ieinteresēt, pasniegt savu priekšmetu;
- stingrs, prasīgs.

Tātad skolēni galvenokārt ilgojas pēc saprotoša skolotāja, kas viņos ieklausītos, bet skolotāji par svarīgāko uzskata kompetenci savā priekšmetā. Nozīmīgs ir arī šī nelielā pētījuma secinājums, ka "atzītākie" skolotāji sava profesionālā darba centrā ir izvirzījuši skolēna personību. (Sloka, 2008) Raksta autore 2007. gada novembrī un decembrī, kā arī 2008. gada janvārī un februārī veica aptauju desmit Latvijas vidusskolās, tai skaitā sešās Rīgas vidusskolās, lai noskaidrotu, cik lielu daļu no savas skolas skolotājiem skolēni un paši skolotāji uzskata par autoritātēm. Interesanti, ka līdzīgas īpašības kā A. Slokas pētījumā nosauca gan skolēni, gan skolotāji atbildot uz jautājumu "Kāds skolotājs, pēc jūsu domām, ir autoritāte?". Skolotāji par trīs nozīmīgākām īpašībām uzskatīja kompetenci savā priekšmetā, psiholoģijas zināšanas, spēju nodrošināt disciplīnu. Skolēni uzsvēra skolotāja stingrību, prasīgumu, zināšanas, gudrību un sapratni, kā arī taisnīgumu.

Daudzos gadījumos skolēni autoritātes jēdzienu cieši saista ar konkrētām skolotāju personībām, nosaucot uzvārdus, piemēram, autoritāte ir tāds skolotājs, kāds ir skolotājs X. Kādas vidusskolas direktore prognozēja, ka skolēni par autoritātēm atzīs tos skolotājus, kas viņiem patīk, taču šie skolēnu spriedumi ne vienmēr sakrīt ar pieaugušo un pedagogu priekšstatiem par skolotāju autoritāti. Dažos gadījumos skolēni jauc jēdzienu "autoritāte" ar jēdzienu "autoritatīvs". Starp skolotāju atbildēm bija arī viedoklis, ka skolotājam vispār nav jābūt autoritātei.

Kādai vajadzētu būt mūsdienu tipa skolotāja personībai? Silvija Sprudzāne rakstā "Pedagoga personības iezīmju raksturojums" min vairākus jaunā pedagoga raksturlielumus, kas interpretēti šī pētījuma kontekstā, formulējot minēto pedagoga īpašību konkretizēšanos autoritatīva līdera kompetences attīstībai.

- ◇ Prasme organizēt noteiktu kolektīvās darbības formu – līdera autoritātes kontekstā tā varētu būt virzīšanās uz partnerattiecībām.
- ◇ Zināšanas par grupas darbību, grupas organizācijas līmeņiem, kas skolotāja kā autoritatīva līdera darbībā vērstos uz savstarpējas uzticēšanās attiecībām.
- ◇ Prasme mācāmo priekšmetu pasniegt dažādu vingrinājumu veidā, lai skolēns varētu apzināti un mērķtiecīgi attīstīties.
- ◇ Zināšanas par mācību procesa organizēšanas un personības attīstīšanas psiholoģiskajiem mehānismiem un likumsakarībām, kas autoritatīvam līderim nodrošina iespēju pakārtot priekšmeta iespējas skolēna attīstības vajadzībām, vienlaikus veicinot priekšmeta kvalitātīvu apguvi.

- ◇ Teicami apgūts mācāmais priekšmets, lai veicinātu mācībpriekšmeta apguves procesa efektīvu organizāciju un orientētu skolēnus uz mācīšanos kopā, ko panāk ar patstāvīgiem, skolēnu interesēm atbilstošiem uzdevumiem, temata apakštematu apguvi u. c. Pienākumu sadale klasē ļauj aptvert pilnīgāku satura apjomu, apvienojot skolēnu patstāvīgā darba iespējas ar rezultātu prezentēšanu un apspriešanu klasē – no tā iegūst visi, bet skolotājs kļūst par studējošas sabiedrības dalībnieku, aizvien attālinoties no zināšanu avota pozīcijas.

Pats galvenais, ka šīs pedagoga prasmes palīdz veidot dialogu starp pedagogu un skolēnu. (Sprudzāne, 2007, 7. lpp.)

No sadarbības uz partnerattiecībām

Dialogs ir līdzeklis, kas palīdz atrast kopīgas vērtības un noskaidrot, kāpēc skolotāju un skolēnu viedokļi par skolotāju – autoritāti nesakrīt. Mērķi un vērtības skolotājiem un vidusskolēniem atšķiras. Skolotāji, tiekdami uz ideālu, reālajām īpašībām pievieno arī vēlamās, kurām vajadzētu veidoties viņa palīdzības rezultātā. Skolotāju un skolēnu mērķu atbilstība iezīmēs to robežu, kas skolotājiem un skolēniem ļaus vērtēt parādības līdzīgi – skolotāja mērķis ir audzināt skolēnos pašpaļāvību, kas veicina sadarbības attīstību, un ir jāpalīdz skolēnam to saprast un pieņemt.

“Pašvērtējums un ticība sev nav iedzimtas īpašības, tās tiek audzinātas, un skolotājam var būt liela nozīme paštēla veidošanā. Lielbritānijā un ASV tiek īstenota tāda pieeja mācību videi, kas saīsināti tiek saukta par BASIS (*belonging, aspiration, safety, identity, success*) modeli.” (Lanka, 2003, 29. lpp.) Skolotājs palīdz skolēnam apzināties mācību mērķi, akcentē un palīdz uzturēt šī mērķa skaidrību. Skolēns, savukārt, mācās izvirzīt mērķus pats, noteikt līdzekļus to sasniegšanai. Skolotājs ir gatavs sniegt padomus un piedāvāt uzdevumus, bet skolēns – pieņemt un izpildīt tos mērķa īstenošanai. Ja mācību procesā nenotiek sadarbība, tiek veicināta skolēnu neprasme domāt patstāvīgi un neprasme mācīties. Sadarbības procesā skolotājs māca skolēnam vērtības, taču arī skolotājs var mācīties no ikviena skolēna, kas ir neatkarīga individualitāte, tādējādi notiek vērtību apmaiņa starp skolotāju un skolēnu, mācīšanās notiek dialogā, mācību procesā dominē interaktīvas metodes. Vairums skolotāju teorētiski pieņem šo sadarbības pedagoģiju, taču praksē bieži dominē vienvirziena komunikācija un tradicionāli ilustratīvi skaidrojošā metode. (Lanka, 2003, 14. lpp.)

Kā šādā situācijā palīdzēt izprast jēdzienu “mācīšanās kā partnerība” un pieņemt partnerību kā sadarbības kvalitāti?

Personības veidošanās pamatos notiek skolas vecuma beigu posmā, kad jaunieši nostiprina un pilnveido domāšanu jēdzienos. (Božoviča, 1975, 242. lpp.) Šim attīstības posmam vairumā gadījumu raksturīga pasaules uzskata nostiprināšanās un savas identitātes apzināšanās. Vidusskolēns gatavojas pieaugušo dzīvei, tāpēc jo svarīgi ir attīstīt jaunieši spēju būt pieaugušam. Jaunieši mācās pildīt savu sociālo lomu, mācās būt pieauguši ārpusskolas vidē. Bieži jaunieši mācās būt pieaudzis dažādos interešu pulciņos, sporta nodarbībās, kur komunikācija un sadarbība ar pulciņa vai sporta nodarbību vadītāju, treneri noris brīvāk nekā skolā. Taču arī vidusskolā jaunieši vēlas justies pieauguši, tāpēc nepieciešams veidot skolotāja un skolēna partnerattiecības, kas jauniešiem palīdzētu mācīties būt pieaugušam. Skolēnam ir jāredz un jājūt, ka skolotājam ir bagāts zināšanu krājums profesionālajā jomā un vairāk pieredzes, taču skolotājam jāprot arī “nolaisties no akadēmiskiem augstumiem”, lai ļautu vidusskolēniem izjust līdztiesību, jo tā, savukārt, rada pašapziņu, izjūtu “es esmu līdzvērtīgs, esmu pieaudzis” – tas palīdz veidot pieauguša cilvēka atbildības pieredzi.

Apzinātas un mērķtiecīgi uzturētas partnerattiecības pilnveidojas vidusskolas vecākajās klasēs.

Kāda ir realitāte? Aptaujājot vidusskolēnus, noskaidrojās, ka jaunieši labprāt strādātu ar skolotājiem partnerattiecībās, skolēni atzīst, ka ir tādi skolotāji, ar kuriem var runāt par

dažādiem jautājumiem kā līdztiesīgi cilvēki, taču vienlaikus viņi to vairāk redz kā darbu nelielās grupās, divatā ar skolotāju, kā arī ārpuskolas nodarbībās vai pasākumos. Mācību stundu laikā, kur skolotājs viens strādā ar klases kolektīvu, ar dažādiem raksturiem un individualitātēm, ar 26 līdz 30 skolēniem, zēni tomēr balsoja par to, lai skolotājs būtu vadītājs, atzina, ka vajadzīga autoritātes vara, lai spētu nodrošināt kārtību un mācību darbu. Interesanti, ka visas meitenes izvēlējās partnerattiecības ar skolotāju, īpaši uzsverot, ka vēlas, lai skolotājs ir draugs, cilvēks, kurš izturas saprotoši, ar kuru iespējams pārrunāt dažādas problēmas. Tātad skolotājam vienlaikus jāspēj būt gan partnerim, gan autoritatīvam vadītājam – nav iespējams “tīrs stils”.

Skolotāji atzīst, ka lielākā daļa skolēnu pat vidusskolas pēdējās klasēs ne vienmēr ir gatavi mācību procesā strādāt partnerattiecībās, dažos gadījumos skolotāja uzticība tiek pārprasta un izmantota negodīgi. Līdzko uzdevums kļūst grūtāks un skolēnam jāuzņemas īsta pieaugušā atbildība par tā izpildi, skolēni mēģina ar skolotāju “sarunāt”.

Partnerattiecības nav pašmērķis, tās neizslēdz prasības pret sevi un citiem. Partnerattiecības ir orientētas uz kvalitāti un vēlamu rezultātu sasniegšanu, saglabājas tās sadarbības un komunikācijas kvalitātes, kas izvirza augstas prasības pret sevi un citiem. Skolotājs palīdz uzturēt šīs prasības. Skolēns prasa skolotājam palīdzību, ja netiek galā viens pats. Skolēnam daudzkārt ir vajadzīga palīdzība, tāpēc viņš iet uz skolu, jo visu nevar paveikt patstāvīgi, turklāt ir vajadzīga cilvēciska saskarsme.

Partnerattiecības un skolotāja ētiku izprotošs skolotājs negaidīs, kad būs rezultāts, bet piedāvās palīdzību, ja redzēs, ka skolnieks viens nevar izpildīt uzdevumu. Skolotāja uzdevums ir laikus pamanīt, ievērot skolēna vājākas sekmes vai skolēna iespējas sasniegt labākus rezultātus, jo skolēns var arī neapzināties, kad ir vajadzīga palīdzība un kāds rezultāts būtu jāsasniedz. Tas nozīmē, ka humānpedagoģiskā procesā skolotājs nesāks ar kļūdu meklēšanu, bet gan izcels skolēna sasniegumu, tikai pēc tam palīdzēs apzināt vēl sasniedzamo un kopā ar skolēnu izraudzīsies veidu, kā tas visefektīvāk darāms.

Diskusijai izvirzītie secinājumi

- ◇ Skolēnu atbildības attīstīšana par sava pienākuma izpildi balstās uz uzticēšanos starp skolēnu un skolotāju.
- ◇ Skolēnu iepazīstināšana ar skolotāja kā pilsoņa un cilvēka tiesībām dialogā ar skolēnu tiesībām un pienākumiem palīdz noturēt līdzsvaru starp skolotāja un skolēna tiesībām, kas veidojas uz savstarpējas pazīšanas un uzticēšanās pamata.
- ◇ Skolotāja mērķtiecīgi uzturētā dialogā ar skolēniem, skolotājiem u. c. cilvēkiem skolēns iemācās ētiskās vērtības un tikumiskās normas, skolotājam un skolēnam pašam vērtējot savu rīcību un tās motīvus, tādējādi katrs pārbauda savas uzvedības pozitīvās un negatīvās sekas.
- ◇ Skolēnu un skolotāju skatījums uz skolotāja autoritāti ir atšķirīgs, tas paredz skolotāja vadošo vērtēšanas kritēriju analīzi, kā arī atšķirību novēršanu pedagoģiskajā procesā dialogā ar skolēniem, kas palīdz atrast kopīgas vērtības. Autore saista šeit formulētos secinājumus diskusijai konferencē ar iespēju radīt vidusskolēniem pedagoģiskus nosacījumus pārejai no epizodiskas sadarbības uz skolotāju un skolēnu partnerattiecībām kā pilnvērtīgāku sadarbības kvalitāti skolēnu patstāvības attīstībai.

Izmantotie informācijas avoti

1. Balsons, M. Kā izprast klases uzvedību. Lielvārds, 1996, 208 lpp.
2. Brīlmeiers, A. Vara un autoritāte audzināšanā. LU, 1998, 39 lpp.
3. Božoviča, L. Personība un tās veidošanās skolas gados. Zvaigzne, 1975, 302 lpp.

4. Curwin, R. L., Mendler, A. M. *Discipline with Dignity for Challenging Youth*. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree, c1999, 181 p.
5. Edeirs, Dž. *Līderība un inovācija*. Lietišķās informācijas dienests, 2007, 126 lpp.
6. Frei, B. *Pädagogische Autorität*. Münster, c 2003. 234 S.
7. Forands, I. *Menedžmenta autoritātes*. Rīga, Latvijas Izglītības fonds, 2007, 212 lpp.
8. Foray, P. *Autorität in der Schule // Zeitschrift für Pädagogik*, Heft 5/2007. 616 S.
9. Goleman, D. *Primal Leadership*. Boston, 2002. 303 p.
10. Grišāne, O. *Laikmetīga mācību procesa organizācija*. Skolotājs, 2006/03, 28 lpp.
11. Hanters, Dž. Č. *Tavs autoritātes spēks*. 2002, 153 lpp.
12. Kets de Vries, Manfred, F. K. *Мистика лидерства*. 2005, 311 с.
13. Kuzņecova, A. *Pedagoga profesionālās ētikas pamati*. RaKa, 2003, 201 lpp.
14. Lanka, A. *Pedagoģiskais process*. Rīga, RTU, 2003, 98 lpp.
15. *Pedagogu profesionālās ētikas pamatprasības (projekts)*. Izglītība, 2000.12.05.
16. Priekule, L. *Vai jaunajam skolotājam ir vajadzīga disciplīna? // Jaunais skolotājs: pārdomas un ieteikumi mūsdienu skolotājam*. Rakstu krājums. Rīga, IAC, 2006, 136 lpp.
17. Reņģe, V. *Mūsdienu organizāciju psiholoģija*. Zvaigzne ABC, 2007, 215 lpp.
18. Sloka, A. "Kāds Tu esi, skolotāj?" www.iac.edu.lv/arhivs/numuri/raksti/13-kads%20esiskolotajs.doc [Skatīts 6.02.2008.].
19. Sprudzāne, S. *Pedagoga personības iezīmju raksturojums*. Psiholoģija ģimenei un skolai. 2007/08. 2.–8. lpp.
20. Šūmane, I. *100 un 1 sīkums, kas veido uzticēšanos skolotājam*. <http://www.iac.edu.lv/arhivs/numuri/raksti/9-Uzticiba.doc> [Skatīts 6.02.2008.].
21. Tafinders, P. *Intensīvais līdervadības kurss*. Pētergailis, 2004, 155 lpp.
22. Маслоу, А. *Цель и значение гуманистического образования, Часть IV/ Образование, Дальние пределы человеческой психики*, Издат группа "Евразия", 1997, 430 с.

Summary

Today more than ever before it is essential for a teacher also to be a leader, who, using his/her professional competence and the leader's ability, could educate a competitive and cooperation-orientated new generation. Therefore, the research explores teachers' leadership as a professional trait.

The paper deals with two concepts – authority and leadership. Teachers consider that the majority of input into a productive educational process depends on the teacher's personal qualities. The author of the report theoretically analyzes authority as a component of teacher's professional activity and its specific appearances. Authority is treated as one of the features of teacher as a leader. In pedagogy based on humanistic perspective, the conception of authority as a leader's personal feature and teacher's ability of creating a learner-centred process replaces authoritarian teacher's perspective.

Keywords: leadership, authority, competence, cooperation, partnership.

The author

Sandra Smilga, MBA, is a lector at the School of Business Administration "Turība", a PhD student of the University of Latvia. Her academic activities are connected with teaching German for tourism, hotel management and business management students.

Address: Graudu 68, Rīga LV-1058, Latvia

E-mail: sandrasm@turiba.lv

CRITERIA OF LEADERSHIP AND AUTHORITY AS A COMPONENT OF TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITY

LĪDERĪBAS UN AUTORITĀTES KRITĒRIJI SKOLOTĀJA PROFESIONĀLAJĀ DARBĪBĀ

Sandra Smilga

School of Business Administration "Turība"

Irēna Žogla

University of Latvia

Abstract

More than ever before today it is essential for a teacher to be also a leader, whose authority and leader's qualities can educate competitive and cooperation-orientated new generation. Therefore, the research explores teachers' leadership as a professional trait, emphasizing the criteria of the development of these qualities.

Teachers consider that their personal qualities make major input to a productive educational process. The authors of this article theoretically analyze *authority* as a component of teachers' professional activities, and its specific appearances. Authority is treated as one of the teacher's as *leader's* features. In pedagogy based on humanistic perspective, the conception of power replaces the conception of authority as leader's personal feature and teacher's ability of creating a learner-centred process. The paper deals with two concepts – *authority* and *leadership*, offers criteria for the development of these qualities for discussion.

Keywords: leader, authority, criteria.

Introduction

The aims of the paper are to define criteria that, by researching and identifying the essential features of teachers in the modern day context, will help teachers recognise the development of their authoritative leadership features in the humanistic pedagogical process as well as to help students recognise the set of rights and obligations and their observance in specific social environment. Therefore, the task of the research is to define the criteria for *authority* and *leadership* of teachers among students, necessary for the development of a learner-centred process.

Despite being formal organizations universally established to promote learning, schools have been particularly slow to examine the potential of organizational learning and its recently identified supporting conditions: prioritizing learning of all members, fostering inquiry, facilitating dissemination of learning, practicing democratic principles, attending to human relationships, and providing for members' self-fulfillment (Collinson and Cook, 2007).

Many schools are implementing fragments of these conditions (e.g., professional learning communities, inquiry, collaborative teamwork, distributed leadership) without linking them to organizational learning. However, in the absence of a link to an overarching theory, teachers may conclude that these fragments are simply unrelated fads that impinge on their already limited time.

What to address for solving topical problems at school? They can be numerous and complicated. We investigate possible improvement of teachers' guidance, qualities they should develop to cope with the impact that a changing society brings to schools.

Humanistic pedagogy widely uses the notion *authority* of the teacher; nevertheless, the development of this feature in relation to the *leadership* skills is still a topical theme for research. Moreover, there are no precise development criteria for this feature.

Self-achievement, identification with the needs and abilities of significant group of students as well as discovery of skills of others are the main aims of humanistic pedagogy according to A. Maslow (Maslow A., 1997). The development of student's versatile abilities is closely connected with the authority of the teacher as a leader in this context and functions of a pedagogue's professional competence that promotes student's self-achievement. Furthermore, A. Maslow considered that it is important to promote the student's thinking rather than behaviour and criticised the practice of stimulation including exaggerated significance of scores. He emphasised the learners' cognitive effort towards self-development.

Latvian school education of today is based on five pedagogical approaches that support the teaching-learning process, which appear in the investigation:

1. Teacher's personality and activity-centred approach.
2. Study subject-centred approach.
3. Approach centred on social needs and interests.
4. Approach centred on student's personality and values.
5. Approach centred on student's activity, skills and experience.

Only the last two conform to humanistic pedagogy and pedagogical paradigm orientated on students' learning, which is also the aim of the paradigm shift in educational reform. The presence of the first three approaches is evidence that the paradigm shift and reform is not yet completed.

Personality development, assistance that teachers provide their students, empowering their doing and ability of independent learning, self-expression and self-determination make the centre of a humanistic pedagogical process. Hence, the humanistic pedagogues focus in their job on students' activities – everything done by the teacher aims at the development of the student. Therefore, it is important to ensure a joint pedagogues' and students' insight on the student's development, on teaching as a factor of development, content and methods as well as teacher's features that promote the independent development of the student in the modern day teaching process.

The changes occurring in education are connected with problems concerning teacher student relations, the basis of which are always social values and these problems are more acute during the transition when there are changes and shifts in emphasis of these values. The actions of students and teachers as well as their mutual interaction determine a set of values hold by the students.

Not only students but also teachers have their rights and obligations, and the teacher's experience and pedagogical competence comprise leadership skills that ensure the modern day learner-centred process and creation of an appropriate pedagogical environment. The job and tasks of the teacher under circumstances of changing values is becoming especially complex. The effectiveness of teaching students, efficient use of all teaching options are often connected with the ability of teachers to provide suitable working conditions during the lessons, including discipline and appropriate conditions during the lessons so that each and every student benefits.

The attention of educational institutions focuses on the learners' self-discipline, mutual respect, shared responsibility and social equality; documents and the education system of various countries follow this idea to ensure a humanistic pedagogical process (Balsons M., 1996, p. 10). Social environment as well as the organized pedagogical process, develops these features.

Consequently, our research gives a holistic overview of teacher's *authority* and *leadership* features in a context with the student's and teacher's rights and obligations.

It is important to find balance, where the teacher's rights to perform his/her duties, i.e., assist students' learning and personal development meet the student's rights, as well as their subjective understanding of their and their teachers' rights. In order to diminish the pressure that could objectively arise or arises in such a situation, the research reviews the leadership competence of the teacher in the context of authority and defines the development criteria for teacher's *authority* and *leadership*. A theoretical analysis and exploration of situations in schools are the main methods of this investigation.

An authoritative teacher or teacher's authority?

A. Kuzņecova points out that today many leaders and teachers lack skills and abilities as well as methods to change from authoritative leadership to a democratic style of leadership. (Kuzņecova A., 2003, p. 174)

This research follows several completed investigations in Latvia (Balsons, Reņģe, Forands). Balson clearly shows the differences in the teacher's styles in his research.

Table. 1.1
Teachers' leadership styles (Balsons M., 1996, p. 17)

Democratic style	Authoritative style	Liberal style
Mutual trust and respect	Control using reward and punishment. Attempt to gain respect and authority.	Students can do everything they like.
Optional rights are awarded where possible.	Set of requirements. Single leadership.	Anarchy.
Motivation through incentives. Emphasis on achievements.	Emphasis on mistakes and shortcomings.	All kinds of behaviour tolerated.
Internally limited freedom. Balance between freedom of action and duty towards work.	Externally limited freedom. Promoting dependency or rebellion.	Unlimited freedom. Chaos.
True motivation. Aims formulated jointly by students and teachers.	Exaggerated, untrue motivation and punishments.	Unpredictable and undeterminable motivation.
Action orientated towards achievement of progress and strengthening self-dependency.	The main aim of action is to achieve the highest results.	Some measures help students progress, others do not.
Cooperation, shared responsibility.	Competition.	Individual rights, do not consider others.
Self-discipline as a component of the education process.	Teacher responsible for ensuring discipline.	Lack of positive aims.
Students participate in determining the aims.	Aims determined by the teacher.	No decisions taken.
Students put forward ideas and participate in problem solving.	All issues are decided by the teacher.	Students do not obey.

Balsons concludes that to transform from the authoritarian style to a democratic style, firstly, it is necessary to change the teachers' thinking. If the teacher stops being a dictator, he/she does not become a democrat. Anarchy arises, when they deem that the opposite of dictatorship is democracy. Being a democrat does not mean that everything is allowed; democracy is a system that confirms such values as respect, equality, equal rights and corresponds to the principle – freedom together with order. (Balsons M., 1996., p. 130)

The only real choice between despotic and democratic leadership styles can be characterised as:

Table 1.2

Comparison of despotic and democratic styles.
(Balsons M. 1996, pp. 130–131, according to R. Dreikur)

Despotic style	Democratic style
Boss. Power. Coercion. Criticism. Focused on mistakes. Punishment.	Leader. Challenges. Promotion. Cooperation. Encouragement. Recognising achievements. Assistance. Negotiations.

Based on various studies, researchers conclude that transformation from despotic to democratic style makes students and teachers free; however, freedom is not possible without definite order and responsibility. Teachers can reach it in schools when they use as a background equality and cooperation. (Balsons M., 1996, p. 132)

Pedagogical literature frequently states that today more than ever it is necessary that the ordinary teacher is a leader, and by using the leadership competence, he/she is able to educate the younger generation that is orientated towards cooperation. Many authors are of the opinion that the leader is a person who influences others by persuading others, not by coercing. In this case, they are managers, who use their authority of power instead of personal authority; in contrast, managers, who have personal authority but lack official status become managers-informal leaders (Reņģe V., 2007, p. 89). The teacher is granted this power with respect to the social role-played in the society. The question is how to use it efficiently for pedagogical purposes to achieve the desired results – educate and train the younger generation for life in new economic conditions.

The simplest way of explaining the difference between the manager and the leader is with the help of authority. One can differentiate between “authority of power”, which is determined by status and position and “personal authority”, determined by the individual’s psychological and moral features. The more the individual has the opportunity to reward and punish others, the more is his/her authority of power. If an individual has only authority of power, the others are dependent on him and are basically afraid of him. People respect an individual who has personal authority.

J. Hanter defines management as “ability to influence people to make them work with dedication, striving towards their aims, which they deemed are good for all.” In contrast, authority in Hanter’s opinion is “ability to make people voluntarily perform your wishes due to your personal influence.” (Hanters J. 2002, pp. 30–31)

I. Forands states that skills of communication with a team of people characterize a leader. It is important that a leader has a well-developed talent of an orator, ability to generate feedback, which includes not just expressing oneself but also listening to others to perceive the significance of what was heard, as well as anticipate the partners’ feelings. A leader should also perceive nonverbal communication, as it often expresses more than just speech. (Forands I., 2007, p. 83)

Among several approaches to researching leadership, there is the personality traits’ approach.

O. Grišāne, when reviewing the teaching staff in State grammar schools as modern-day educational institutions concludes that teachers’ personal features and their personalities in general influence the quality of the education process. (Grišāne O., 2006, p. 28)

A teacher of psychology Antra Sloka has conducted a research that shows what qualities students and teachers mention to characterize an ideal teacher.

The ideal teacher in students' views is:

1. Understanding, friendly, emphatic, tolerant;
2. Knowledgeable, adept in his profession;
3. Can involve the students, teach the subject;
4. Strict, demanding;
5. Honest, fair.

Teachers view an ideal teacher as:

1. Knowledgeable, adept in his profession;
2. Can involve the students, teach the subject;
3. Honest, fair;
4. Strict, demanding;
5. Understanding, friendly.

Hence, we can see that students would like to have an understanding teacher who would listen to them, while teachers rank competence in one's subject in the first place. It is significant that the conclusion of this small research leads to the discovery that the most "popular" teacher orientates his/her activities towards the students' abilities. (Sloka A., 2008).

It is important that both students and teachers mention similar characteristics when responding to the question "What kind of teacher, in your opinion, is an authority?" Teachers spot out three significant characteristics, such as competence in one's subject, knowledge of psychology and ability to ensure discipline. Students point out strictness, exactingness, knowledge, adeptness and understanding as well as fairness.

In many cases, students closely relate the notion of authority to the personality of a definite teacher, giving his/her name, e.g., teacher X is an authority.

A director of a secondary school predicts that students accept a teacher whom they like because of their authority; however, the conclusion does not always coincide with the opinion of adults and other teachers. In several cases students confuse the notion of "authority" with "authoritative". There also exists an opinion among teachers that a teacher does not need to be an authority.

What is then the new type of a teacher's personality? Silvija Sprudzāne states in her article "Features of a teacher's personality" that the following characteristics are ascribed to the notion "new teacher":

- Ability to create a definite form of teamwork.
- Knowledge on group work, ability to organise groups.
- Ability to teach the subject in different ways and by using different exercises.
- Knowledge of organisation of the teaching process and knowledge of psychological mechanisms and correlations of a person's development.
- Excellent knowledge of the subject necessary to promote effective organisation of the learning process.

The author points out that a teacher's ability to conduct a dialogue between teachers and students is above all. (Sprudzāne S., 2007, p. 7)

Learners' understanding of the notions *authority* and *authoritative*, as well as the analysis of opinions of teachers and students enable us to conclude that one of the leadership criteria of an authoritative teacher is his/her ability of closing the gap between the opinions of teachers and students they hold on the subject of authority of teachers. It would lead to bridging the differences regarding opinions and criteria how teachers and students evaluate teachers.

Teacher as an authoritative leader – an essential professional feature

Teachers work with the young people, who are on the path of discovery of themselves and the world. The teachers as experienced adults guide students in different fields of a very complicated process of growing up and self-determination. The teacher, thanks to his/her experience and the level of maturity, is the right person who is able to provide assistance and guidance to the students. The matter is how and if the learners evaluate these qualities and accept teachers as authorities and leaders due to these qualities. Dependence of the youth due to their still developing qualities, their necessity for guidance, on the one hand, and teachers' experience, on the other hand, make the difference between adults and infants. If the young people understand this necessity and accept teachers' assistance, one can speak of a legitimate pedagogical authority – authority based on knowledge, ability and experience, broad vision that grants the teacher rights as well as imposes the duty of assuming responsibility in the education and upbringing. (Frei B., 2003, pp. 31.–32)

From the practical point of view, authority forms links with the teacher's duty to guarantee order in the class and conduct all events, as well as of impose sanctions if necessary. (Foray P., 2007, p. 616)

The following eight competences form the basis of teacher's authority:

1. Study subject competence,
2. Didactical-methodological competence,
3. Educator competence,
4. Diagnostic competence,
5. Social-emotional competence,
6. Communicative competence,
7. Personal competence,
8. Action competence. (Frei B., 2003, p. 46)

How do teacher's authority and competence relate with a leader's competence and how do leading scholars define leadership?

We can mention four competences or skills, which might be necessary for every leader:

- management of attention (inspire, attain that others accept the leader's ideas as theirs),
- management of tasks (determine the important ones),
- management of trust (emotional sphere),
- self-management (enhancement, determination and dedication to "issues"). (Forands I., 2007, pp. 97–98)

Ket de Vries states that leaders have two roles – charismatic and architectonic. The charismatic role involves vision of the future, sharing power and inspiring; the architectonic role – control of projects and rewards. Moreover, he stresses that real leaders cannot exist without any of these roles as one compliments the other. (Kets de Vries, 2005, p. 255)

Conclusions by a leading researcher Aidar:

- leader is a person who does not manage people but leads and motivates.
- leader is a person who has the sense of direction.

The concept of a leader means that the leader contributes as well as coordinates the job of others.

If you are a leader, it is always important to show your trust in people. Leadership involves leading by patterns. (Aidar J., 2007, p. 16)

Tafinder states that each manager-leader has followers, and leaders direct the followers, create a sense of trust. The leader creates a sense of adventure and excitement. Leaders are not predictable; they astonish people by improvising. (Tafider. P., 2004, p. 17, 81, 83)

Goleman points out that prominent leaders guide people by emotions. Historically, in some cultures, managers-leaders of a group of people have been persons whom people needed as a source of advice and support when they were unsure, something was not clear, some threat was imminent, or they were undertaking some task. The leader usually acted as an emotional guide for the group. (Goleman D., 2002, pp. 4–5)

The main secret of leadership as deemed by Goleman is the emotional competence of leaders – a leader conducts himself and his relations with people. Leaders, who manage their emotions and use them to the maximum, lead people in a targeted direction. One of the essential aspects, as stated by Goleman, is the significance of a manager-leader's smile and his skill to create a positive atmosphere in the working environment. (Golemans D., 2002, pp. 16–17)

The above-mentioned characteristics comprise several features or structural components of leaders and authorities.

Table 1.3

Comparison of an authority and leader (B. Frei, 2003, and W. Bennis)

Teacher-authority:	Leader:
Study subject, didactical and methodological competence, educator, communicative competence, social-emotional competence, personal competence.	Task management, skills of attention management, trust management, charisma, self-management.

These characteristics, while developing together, strengthen each other and thereby as an important feature of a teacher's professional competence correspond to the principles of humanistic pedagogy.

The definition of a teacher as an *authority* and *leader* indicates that these qualities are very important for teacher's professional activity in humanistic pedagogy. The criterion of the development of these features is a synthesis of *authority* and *leader*, simultaneous development of these features.

Teachers' and students' rights

Teachers have the right to discipline students who disturb the lessons or break the school rules. In contrast, students have the rights of respect. They want teachers to hear them, understand, and take into consideration their views. Due to these needs they try to attract teachers' attention by any means available to them. An important for pedagogy question is, how to identify the border where the interests of teachers' and students' turn into a conflict? The authors of this investigation consider that the mutual humane relations that arise from understanding and trusting each other may be a solution. It means that the teacher should know the students very well and the students know their teachers in order to promote trust between them.

Ulbroka's secondary school teacher Ilze Šūmane has carried out a research and analyzed the student responses on what qualities a teacher needs to gain trust of students. The main qualities most frequently mentioned in seven responses are "understanding, loving, sincere, clever, honest, with a sense of humour and strict." (Šūmane I., 2008) As we can see, the student's wishes are not one sided and distinctly liberal; they include teachers' qualities that help students achieve good results.

Trust is an ethical category that is not easy to determine; once a person experiences trust, it helps create a favourable environment for exchange of values in pedagogical process.

Students also positively evaluate the fact that the teacher nurtures humane qualities in students; that students are also persons with emotions, feelings and individuals; at the same time, they keep a reasonable distance (Brilmeiers A., 1998), which helps students gain experience and control their actions.

Teacher Šūmane considers that the availability of teachers also influences the student's trust. It is important to gain a student's trust, encourage him/her, belief in his/her abilities, which means entrusting him/her some responsibility for joint work, which will also help to strengthen the feeling of belonging to the class and school. Responsibility for discipline at school that connects to implementation of the needs and rights of the students develops alongside with the sense of belonging. Šūmane, by means of a group discussion among class teachers and students, has ascertained the dominant needs and rights:

Students' needs:

- good and understanding teacher,
- friendly collective,
- comfortable and well-equipped classroom.

Teachers' needs:

- comfortable well-equipped classroom and teaching aids,
- good contact with students,
- harmony between teacher's inner sense and teaching plans and school requirements.

Students' rights:

- to learn in a peaceful and calm atmosphere,
- rights to expression, to be listened to, receive answers and assistance,
- to learn in a safe and tidy environment.

Teachers' rights:

- to discipline the students who disturb,
- to have the final word when planning work, events etc, or implementing the planned activities. (Šūmane I., 2008)

In order to ensure the necessary discipline in classes, researchers suggest a number of behaviour models, but at the same time, we can conclude that there is no single universal model that would satisfy all requirements. (Priekule L., 2006, p. 75)

Curvin and Mendler (1998) suggest a suitable model "Discipline with respect", which is based on the following principles:

- Behaviour moulding is not just "stitching holes", but a long-term programme.
- Moulding a student's behaviour is a component of the teacher's work.
- Rational rules are very important part of the programme.
- The teacher himself is an example of behaviour.
- The teacher always treats students with respect.
- Responsibility is more important than obedience.
- The teacher does not deal with ineffective things.
- The teacher may not treat all students equally but treatment should be fair.

The authors consider that it is essential to teach the students to act and behave responsibly. Teachers should not differentiate or exclude students as it may cause offence. They invite every student to participate, even those who have problems with communication, cooperation,

integration in a group etc. Thus, teachers ensure that awards do not diminish values and that punishments do not lead to the desired consequences without clear definition of responsibility for possible consequences. Curvin states that it is responsibility not obedience is a very valuable foundation for discipline. Therefore, in the empirical part of this research, the leadership skills and authority of the teacher will be analysed according to one criterion – the teacher's and student's individual and mutual responsibility.

Table 1.4

Comparison of obedience and responsibility. (Priekule L., 2006, p. 76)

Obedience	Responsibility
Based on awards and punishment. Focused on intimidation. Most suitable for obedient students. Necessary for ensuring safety. Works fast but not for a long time.	Based on values; learns to distinguish right and wrong. Focused on remarks. Suitable for all students. Applicable in all situations. Needs a larger contribution.

There is balance between responsibility and duty in a democratic society. Certain norms have been approved as means to ensure this balance, e.g., norms of teacher's ethics have been determined that all participants of the pedagogical process should respect.

Thus, we define another criterion for approbation, which is based on the understanding of rights and obligations of teachers and students, as well as the review of specific professional values in the general context of human values. The development of teachers as authoritative leaders is productive if it takes place together with the development of understanding of rights and obligations of students and teachers, and we achieve it in a dialogue between the students and teachers, as well as promote the development of mutual trust.

Ethical values in interaction between teachers and students

The introductory part of basic requirements for the pedagogue's professional ethics states (Pedagogu profesionālās ētikas pamatprasības, 2000): "The teacher's job influences many people's minds, wills, feelings, destiny, and is therefore based on definite ethical principles. The teacher's basic ethical principles are professionalism, collegiality, freedom, responsibility, fairness, honesty, respect and self respect." Ethical principles include ethical values; we mention some of them here:

- to develop independence of students, ability to decide and act freely and responsibly;
- not to use one's privilege to force any political or other views;
- to nurture dialogue culture;
- to solve problem situations without avoiding constructive decisions based on necessary pedagogical compromises and principles;
- to respect student's personality and cooperation;
- to see the positive features of each student and develop one's relations with the student based on them;
- not to classify the students in those you like and those you do not;
- to listen to students' views and take them into consideration;
- to listen to students' criticism and not lose control;
- to be tolerant, good willing, and not allow coarse relations with students, parents, and colleagues;
- to teach students to be emphatic towards others and overcome one's weaknesses.

- not to use or disclose confidential information entrusted by students or attained by any other means;
- to take into consideration students' age, psychological condition and ability to understand things while offering advice or criticism;
- not to convey unpleasant truths to the student in any way that may offend their dignity;
- not to reveal unpleasant facts about student publicly in the presence of peers. (Kuzņecova A., 2003, p. 125)

Norms include conditions that promote coordinated and rhythmic action in order to achieve everything. There are norms that are necessary for good working relations; however, there are also norms or normatives that involve teachers and focuses on the study subject, or the teacher's activity, and by doing so leaves the students out of attention, thus making the pedagogical process disproportionate, teacher or subject-centred.

Elementary cooperation and courtesy norms are also required from the student's side to make the teacher's work successful.

For example, some norms from school internal regulations:

- students should take personal responsibility for their behaviour at school and must not do anything that could disturb or offend their school mates.
- socially approved moral and ethical norms are observed at school;
- students have to obey the schoolteachers' and staff's requirements;
- students should greet the teachers, staff, and school visitors and assist them if necessary;
- students should arrive at school 10 minutes before the first lesson starts;
- if the student is late for the lesson, he should apologise to the teacher for disturbing the lesson and ask for permission to participate at the lesson;
- students should come to class prepared: they have to complete their home assignment, and have all learning aids necessary for the lesson;
- they have to observe discipline and silence during the lesson and be neat and tidy, as well as be in the appointed seat in the classroom;
- it is the student's duty to protect the school's property, they should act responsibly.

Let us refer to the above-mentioned teacher's professional ethical values and compare them with students' views.

We can distinguish common values: teachers develop students' independence, students take personal responsibility. The teacher develops the culture of dialogues between the participants of the process and respects the student's personality, does not discriminate students, treat them with empathy.

Students follow socially approved moral and ethical norms, valid requirements of the teachers, respect the teacher and his job, as well as their school mates, perform their duties (as they are motivated), take care of good order in the school.

These are widely accepted conditions, but a conscious adherence of these is the result of the pedagogical process, students cannot attain it episodically or by unilateral adherence of these conditions.

If the student does not observe elementary norms that are necessary for balanced social life, the teacher has the rights to reprimand the students tactily, avoiding offending the students and not violating their self respect. The student learns to be polite not when he/she learns the

norms of courtesy; when in communication with other students and teachers as well as other persons, he practices the ethical values and strengthens them in a decent, socially approved manner in accordance to the general rules of human behaviour. Thus, the student develops his socially acceptable behavioural experience.

This conclusion forms another criterion for the development of teacher's authority and leadership features.

The teacher is the person who helps the student gain decent values and develops socially justified behavioural experience. However, each day one can observe several breaches of behavioural norms – it is the reality that should be used for educational purposes, creating a balance between requirements, their understanding and behavioural infractions of each individual student. Students should also check their loss due to improper behaviour.

Teacher's professional duties include helping the students develop their understanding by clearly defined disciplinary requirements of the school, which are also incorporated in the internal behavioural rules of each class. The teacher uses methods that teach students to limit oneself and one's actions if they hinder communication. One of the possibilities that several pedagogues suggest is to practice cooperation agreements between teachers and students, where teachers formulate disciplinary rules and consequences for their breach. (Priekule L., 2006, p. 77) Most of the students would accept the cooperation terms, but one should always leave room for disobedience and cases of violating some of these requirements by individual students. In such cases, it will be necessary to harness additional force – parents, school administration, and social workers. (Priekule L., 2006, p. 83)

However, the development of the teacher and student's common values would be the main part of our research.

Therefore, we formulate another criterion of authoritative teacher as a leader for further research and discussion: closing the gap in understanding of the teacher's and the student's ethical values on the basis of general human values.

Reality and desire: from cooperation to partnership

Dialogue is a means that helps us find common values and ascertain why teachers' and students' opinions do not match. The aims and values of teachers and secondary school students differ. The teachers usually attach real features to the desired ones in the search for perfection. The correspondence of the teachers' aims with the needs and aims of their students allows to evaluate the achievements in a similar manner. The teacher's aim is to teach students self-reliance that would promote cooperation. "Self evaluation and belief in oneself is not an inborn character and must be taught, and the teacher plays an important role in creating the self image of a learner. An approach to the education environment with acronym BASIS (belonging, aspiration, safety, identity, success) model is used in Great Britain and the USA." (Lanka A., 2003, p. 29). The teacher helps students understand the educational aims, emphasise and help them maintain the clarity of the goals. Students learn to formulate their own goals and determine the resources necessary for their achievement. The teacher is ready to give advice and offer assignments, but students – accept and perform them to achieve the goals. If cooperation is not encouraged during the teaching process, students' inability to think and learn independently is encouraged. Because of cooperation, there is exchange of values between the teacher and the student, teaching is carried out through dialogues when interactive method dominates. The majority of teachers theoretically approve this statement, but in practice one-sided communication and traditional illustrative-explanative method dominates. (Lanka A., 2003, p. 14)

How does this situation help teachers and learners understand the essence of learning through partnership and approve partnership as a quality of cooperation?

We know that personality features develop in the later stages of school life when the young people consolidate and enhance their thinking in concepts (Božoviča L., 1975, p. 242). This development stage in most cases is characterised by consolidation of one's views of the world and understanding of one's identity. The secondary school students find themselves on the threshold of self-determination, preparing themselves for adult life, and therefore it is important to develop the ability to become and be adults. They learn to perform their social roles and learn to become adults at school and outside the school environment. It is often during communication and cooperation in different interest clubs and sport clubs where the environment differs from the school environment. However, the youth wish to feel themselves as adults at school, too. Therefore, it is necessary to develop teacher and students' partnership relations that would help the youth become adults. The teacher, of course, has to be a couple of steps ahead in their development if compared to the students. First, it is their professional competence, as well as the level of experience. They should be able to "come down from their academic heights" to rise along with the students and create the opportunity for students to feel equal as it in its turn creates the consciousness and feeling "I am equal; I am an adult", thus helps the learners create an experience of responsibility of an adult.

Conscious and goal orientated partnership is created during the senior classes of secondary school.

What is the reality? By questioning secondary school students, we have ascertained that they would willingly cooperate with teachers in partnership. Students admit that there are such teachers with whom it is possible to discuss various issues on an equal basis; however, at the same time they see it mainly as work in small groups, as one to one with a teacher as well as outside school hours or during events. During the lessons, when the teacher is alone with the class of 26 to 30 students who have different characters and personality traits, several patterns of behaviour appear. Boys, however, preferred that the teacher is a leader and admitted that an authoritative individual is necessary to provide order and normal working environment. It is interesting that almost all girls chose partnership with the teacher, especially pointing out that they wish the teacher to be a friend, a person who understands learners, and with whom it is possible to speak about different problems. Therefore, the teacher has to be a partner as well as an authoritative leader at the same time – a "clear style" is not possible.

Teachers admit that for the most part, students, even in the higher secondary school classes, are not always ready to act in partnership with full responsibility, and on various occasions, the teacher's trust is misunderstood and abused. As the tasks become more difficult, students have to assume real adults' responsibility for their behaviour, communication, and performance. Therefore, the students try to "negotiate" with the teacher.

What is the desired quality of cooperation?

Partnership is not a goal in itself and does not exempt requirements towards oneself and the others. Partnership is orientated towards quality and achievement of desired results. Cooperation and communication quality that puts forward high demands is preserved. The teacher helps maintain these requirements.

The student asks the teacher's assistance if he/she cannot complete a task himself. The student often needs help – that is why the student goes to school, he/she is unable to do everything independently and needs human interaction.

The teacher who understands the essence of partnership and follows professional ethos will not wait until the learner gains some results. The teacher will offer assistance if he/she notices that the student cannot cope with the assignment. The teacher's duty and professional performance is to offer a hand if he/she sees weak results, even more, if the teacher is convinced that the student can achieve better results – the student may not realise that he requires help and what quality results should be achieved.

Another criterion for the development of teachers as authoritative leaders is evaluation of students' and teachers' partnership. While evaluating the student's achievement, the student and the teacher undergo several interconnected stages together:

- they identify the student's definite success related to his/her abilities and in comparison with the completed task during the respective stage;
- they identify what the student could achieve due to his/her abilities, what could be done better;
- they agree upon the means of a better achievement;
- the teacher offers his/her assistance for achieving high quality results.

We suggest the following criteria of a teacher as an authoritative leader for discussion:

- ◇ Learners' understanding of the notions "authority" and "authoritative", as well as the analysis of opinions of teachers and students enable us to conclude that one of the leadership criteria for an authoritative teacher is his/her ability of closing the gap between the opinions of teachers and students they hold on authority of teachers. It will lead to bridging the differences regarding opinions and criteria how teachers and students evaluate teachers.
- ◇ The definition of a teacher as an authority and leader indicates that these qualities are very important for teacher's professional activity in humanistic pedagogy. The criterion for the development of these features is a synthesis of an authority and a leader, simultaneous development of these features.
- ◇ The development of teachers as authoritative leaders is productive if it takes place together with the development of understanding of rights and obligations of students and teachers, and we achieve it in a dialogue between the students and teachers, as well as promote the development of mutual trust.
- ◇ Closing the gap in understanding of teachers' and students' ethical values on the basis of general human values.
- ◇ Evaluation of student's and teacher's partnership. While evaluating the student's achievement, the student and the teacher undergo several interconnected stages together: 1) they identify the student's definite success related to his/her abilities and in comparison with the completed task during the respective stage; 2) they identify what the student could achieve due to his/her abilities, what could be done better; 3) they agree upon the means of a better achievement, 4) the teacher offers his/her assistance for achieving higher quality results.

Literature

1. Balsons M., *Kā izprast klases uzvedību*, Lielvārds, 1996. 208 lpp.
2. Brīlmeiers A., *Vara un autoritāte audzināšanā*, LU, 1998. 39 lpp.
3. Božoviča L., *Personība un tās veidošanās skolas gados*, Zvaigzne, 1975. 302 lpp.
4. Collinson, V. and Cook, T. F. *Organizational Learning: Improving Learning, Teaching, and Leading in School Systems*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA, 2007.
5. Curwin R. L., Mendler, A. M. *Discipline with dignity for challenging youth*. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree, c 1999. 181 p.
6. Edeirs Dž., *Līderība un inovācija*, Lietišķās informācijas dienests, 2007, 126 lpp.
7. Frei B., *Pädagogische Autorität*, Münster, c 2003. 234 S.
8. Forands I., *Menedžmenta autoritātes*, Rīga, Latvijas Izglītības fonds, 2007, 212. lpp.
9. Foray P., *Autorität in der Schule*, Zeitschrift für Pädagogik, Heft 5/2007. Seite 616.

10. Goleman, D., *Primal leadership*, Boston, 2002. 303 p.
11. Grišāne O., *Laikmetīga mācību procesa organizācija*, Skolotājs, 2006/03. 28 lpp.
12. Hanteris Dž. Č., *Tavs autoritātes spēks*, 2002, 153 lpp.
13. Ket de Vries, Manfred F. K., *Мистика лидерства*, 2005, 311 с.
14. Kuzņecova A., *Pedagoga profesionālās ētikas pamati*, RaKa, 2003, 201 lpp.
15. Lanka A., *Pedagoģiskais process*, Rīga, RTU, 2003, 98 lpp.
16. Маслоу А., *Цель и значение гуманистического образования*, Часть IV/Образование, Дальние пределы человеческой психики, Издат группа “Евразия”, 1997, 430. с.
17. *Pedagogu profesionālās ētikas pamatprasības*, Izglītība, 2000, 12. 05.
18. Priekule L., *Vai jaunajam skolotājam ir vajadzīga disciplīna?/Jaunais skolotājs: pārdomas un ieteikumi mūsdienu skolotājam: rakstu krājums*, Rīga, IAC, 2006. 136 lpp.
19. Reņģe, V., *Mūsdienu organizāciju psiholoģija*, Zvaigzne ABC, 2007, 215. lpp.
20. Sloka A., “Kāds Tu esi, skolotāj?” www.iac.edu.lv/arhivs/numuri/raksti/13_kads%20esiskolotajs.doc [accessed on 6. 02. 2008]
21. Sprudzāne S., *Pedagoga personības iezīmju raksturojums*, Psiholoģija ģimenei un skolai, 2007/08, 2.–8. lpp.
22. Šūmane I., 100 un 1 sākums, kas veido uzticēšanos skolotājam, http://www.iac.edu.lv/arhivs/numuri/raksti/9_Uzticiba.doc [accessed on 6. 02. 2008]
23. Tafinders P., *Intensīvais līdervadības kurss*, Pētergailis, 2004, 155 lpp.