

A close-up photograph of two young girls. The girl in the foreground is smiling broadly, showing her teeth. She has light brown hair and is wearing a grey knitted sweater over a red shirt. The girl in the background is slightly out of focus, also smiling. The image is set against a white background, and the bottom half of the slide transitions into an orange background.

Childhgood

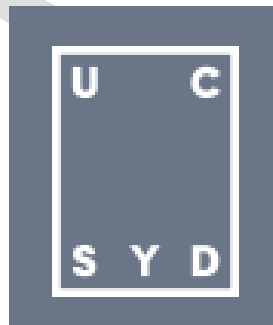
INCLUSION in early childhood

VIVES campus Tielt

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www.goprince.eu

Work package “transnational model inclusion in early childhood”

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Key - Introduction and context an overview

The teachers from the Erasmus Plus 'GO-PRINCE' project come from across Europe and all work within teacher or social educator education. For all of us the theme of inclusion is an important aspect of the work we do with emerging professionals in the early years field. We are all influenced by the common thinking, in terms of research and European conventions, that underpins the practices associated with inclusion in each of our countries. Collegiate learning and the sharing of best practice on the provision of support for children with SEN and those other children at risk from disadvantage and exclusion can be perceived to be lacking at the European level. A political consensus has emerged on the importance of inclusive education, reflected in part by a general trend towards placement of children with SEN in mainstream education, and away from special schooling. Many European Member States have made good progress in developing coherent, localised and inclusive early intervention strategies, which provide for consultation with affected families. Information on the support mechanisms available to parents of children at risk of exclusion from mainstream schooling incomplete, although some examples of good practice exist for replication.

Our Erasmus GOPRINCE project is a response to this call for a best practice approach and aims to make a contribution to the sharing of knowledge, understanding and best practice in inclusive education. It is important then that we give some detailed consideration to a range of definitions of inclusion from an international perspective. If we accept the ideology of inclusive education, then we have to believe that all children and young people, no matter where they are located in the world, should have access to high quality education (Hodkinson (2016)). UNESCO (2005) suggests inclusion emphasizes providing opportunities for equal participation of persons with disabilities (physical, social and/or emotional) whenever possible into general education, but leaves open the possibility of personal choice and options for special assistance and facilities for those who need it. In particular, four key elements have tended to feature strongly in the conceptualisation of inclusion.

Inclusion is a process. That is to say, inclusion has to be seen as a never-ending search to find better ways of responding to diversity. It is about learning how to live with difference and learning how to learn from difference. In this way differences come to be seen more positively as a stimulus for fostering learning, amongst children and adults.

Inclusion is concerned with the identification and removal of barriers. Consequently, it involves collecting, collating and evaluating information from a wide variety of sources in order to plan for improvements in policy and practice. It is about using evidence of various kinds to stimulate creativity and problem-solving.

Inclusion is about the presence, participation and achievement of all students. Here "presence" is concerned with where children are educated, and how reliably and punctually they attend; "participation" relates to the quality of their experiences whilst they are there and, therefore, must incorporate the views of the learners themselves; and "achievement" is about the outcomes of learning across the curriculum, not merely test or examination results.

Inclusion involves a particular emphasis on those groups of learners who may be at risk of marginalization, exclusion or underachievement. This indicates the moral responsibility to ensure that those groups that are statistically most “at risk” are carefully monitored, and that, where necessary, steps are taken to ensure their presence, participation and achievement in the education system.

Definitions of inclusion in education from the Index for Inclusion (Booth and Ainscow 2011, 3rd edition) suggest that inclusion in education involves:

- Valuing all students and staff equally.
- Increasing the participation of students in, and reducing their exclusion from, the cultures, curricula and communities of local schools.
- Restructuring the cultures, policies and practices in schools so that they respond to the diversity of students in the locality.
- Reducing barriers to learning and participation for all students, not only those with impairments or those who are categorised as ‘having special educational needs’.
- Learning from attempts to overcome barriers to the access and participation of particular students to make changes for the benefit of students more widely.
- Viewing the difference between students as resources to support learning, rather than as problems to be overcome.
- Acknowledging the right of students to an education in their locality.
- Emphasising the role of schools in building community and developing values, as well as in increasing achievement.
- Recognising that inclusion in education is one aspect of inclusion in society.

“The concept and practice of inclusive education have gained importance in recent years. Internationally, the term is increasingly understood more broadly as a reform that supports and welcomes diversity amongst all learners. Inclusive education is a process that involves the transformation of schools and other centres of learning to cater for all children – including boys and girls, students from ethnic and linguistic minorities, rural populations, those affected by HIV and AIDS, and those with disabilities and difficulties in learning and to provide learning opportunities for all youth and adults as well. Its aim is to eliminate exclusion that is a consequence of negative attitudes and a lack of response to diversity in race, economic status, social class, ethnicity, language, religion, gender, sexual orientation and ability. Education takes place in many contexts, both formal and non-formal, and within families and the wider community. Consequently, inclusive education is not a marginal issue but is central to the achievement of high quality education for all learners and the development of more inclusive societies. Inclusive education is essential to achieve social equity and is a constituent element of lifelong learning” ([UNESCO, Education page](#)).

Inclusive education involves embracing human diversity and welcoming all children and adults as equal members of an educational community. This involves valuing and supporting the full participation of all people together within mainstream educational settings. Inclusive education requires recognising and upholding the rights of all children and adults and understanding human diversity as a rich resource and an everyday part of all human environments and interactions. Inclusive education is an approach to education free from discriminatory beliefs, attitudes and practices, including free from

ableism. Inclusive education requires putting inclusive values into action to ensure all children and adults belong, participate and flourish. (Cologon undated)

Finally it is important to remind ourselves that having all children learning together teaches children to value diversity, builds social capital and lays the foundation for inclusive communities.

The history of our project

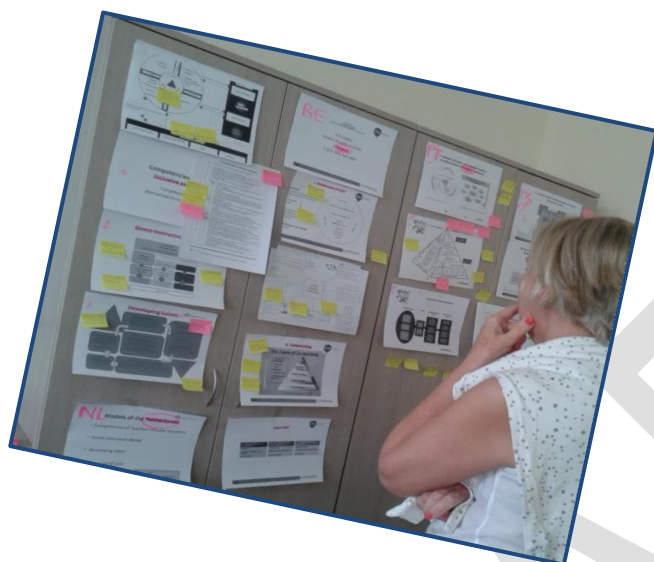
Our work began with our first work package which aimed to capture the current picture of inclusion in each of our countries. It is more than 20 years since the World Conference and the Salamanca Declaration each of our countries was at a different starting point then and the developments in each country reflect these diverse starting points. We wanted to be able to consider the similarities and differences in the approaches that had been adopted in each country as a starting point on our journey to identify and share good practices. You may have looked at our **overview documents already**, but if you haven't these can be found **in this specific area of our website**. Each country has a document of its own and a summary document is also provided. At our meeting in Esbjerg, Denmark in March 2015 we began to share our national overviews, to share the big picture from our individual countries. We wanted to move from the 'big picture' towards a more detailed consideration of how inclusion is being implemented in each country. We left with the task of bringing examples of good practice from our country to the next meeting. We felt that these examples would help to bring the 'big pictures' to life, to help us to understand how inclusion was being experienced by young children and their families in the countries that are part of our project.

At our meeting in Vilnius, Lithuania in May 2015 we shared with each other examples of good practice that illustrated how inclusion was being implemented in our countries. Again these examples of good practice can be found in **in the following folder on our website**. As we listen to the contributions we were intrigued by their variety but also by some of the similarities. We began to identify the common themes and concerns, noting that since the aim of each government was the same then our concerns would inevitably be similar. Our next task was to really unpick what these similarities and common approaches were, and to do this we needed a means of analysing each of the contributions.



We chose an interactive means of analysis. After presenting our models to the group we all created a small wall display covering our main points. Working in trans-national groups of two and three we examined each display in turn and using post-it notes we wrote down the aspects that seemed to us to be an underpinning principle or the most important to aspect of each of the models. We were

challenged to write these on a post-it note and stick it on the wall beside the display. This method enabled us to really start to discuss each of the models, to ask questions, clarify our understanding and begin to draw meaningful comparisons between them and the models from our own country. Deciding on the most important aspects of each model to write on our post-it note required reflection, discussion, negotiation and sometimes compromise!



At the end of this process and when each small trans-national group had had the opportunity to review each of the national models we gathered all of the post-it notes together this was our data and we needed to use it to consider the most appropriate themes to reflect our work so far. So we began to look closely at our words and sort them into piles of similar themes. This method of analysis was referred to as “working from heaps to sets” by Whalley et al (2004:36). It represents an approach to analysing data that is easily adapted to a group situation and a collaborative approach. It actively engages the co-researchers in discussion and debate about how the sets are created, encouraging them to consider and combine, to sort and sort again. Using post-it notes and a large wall space we were able to work together to sort and re-sort, merge sets and divide others until we were satisfied

with the groupings we had established. This was a surprisingly lengthy process but one that would be central to the next stage of our project so again we chose to invest time in reflection, discussion, clarification, negotiation and again some compromise!

At the end of our analysis session we were left with words and phrases that fell into six categories, after further debate we named our categories:

Collaboration

Reflective practice

Holistic view

Shared ethos

Adjustments

Communication

Appendix A, below, captures some of the post-it note contributions that were part of the final categories. Before leaving Vilnius each country chose to take one of the categories and explore it in more depth. At our meeting in Newcastle in November 2015 we shared the development of these overarching categories and again these individual documents can be found in XXXXX. In summary the categories were developed in the following ways.

Collaboration

Our colleagues from Portugal considered the complex nature of collaboration, considering first the notion of professional collaboration which can be described as multi-disciplinary, interdisciplinary or trans-disciplinary (Briggs 1991, 1997, Hernandez 2013). They go on to look at models of collaborative teaching, identified as one of the most promising factors in facilitating inclusion, the collaborative approach to teaching results in the teaming of general and special educators in an inclusionary classroom setting but can also apply to teaming other professionals, such as speech/language pathologists, occupational therapists, and counselors (Rainforth & England, 1997 as cited in Hernandez, 2013). Finally they consider the notion of collaborative learning and the impact that this can have on the successful integration of children with SEN into mainstream classrooms.

Reflective practice

This category was considered by our colleagues from Denmark and they begin to encourage us to think about reflection in terms of its potential to enable us the challenge and change our think and our actions. They capture the complexity of working with young children and especially those with special educational needs through the use of a didactical model of relations was first formulated by Bjørndal and Lieberg (1978) ([Elin can you send the reference for this please?](#)) who explore the interconnected nature of different aspects of our work with children. This section highlights the complex nature of reflection and its importance in developing effective practice.

Holistic View

Our colleagues from Belgium looked at the category we had labeled developing a '*Holistic view*' view of the child. Drawing on the work of Laevers et al (2005) this piece demonstrated how his theories have been used to focus on the child, their well-being and their involvement in their surroundings and with their care givers. This view sees the child and the process of inclusion in a positive way, seeing all aspects of development as equally important and asking questions that focus on the child's strengths rather than their areas of weakness. The work of Laevers and his colleagues is influential beyond Belgium, currently those working in early years in the UK will recognise the influences of his work with the 'Curriculum Guidance for the Early Years Foundation Stage' (2007) and beyond into current assessment frameworks for the youngest children in our school.

Shared ethos

Our colleagues from Lithuania have explored the category of 'ethos'. In this section they consider the need for inclusive practice to be developed from a value-based commitment by teachers. The Profile of Inclusive Teachers (EADSNE 2012) highlights the essential core values and areas of competence necessary for preparing teachers to work in inclusive education considering all forms of diversity. Written from a cultural diversity perspective, this section explores the essential values that create an ethos that ensures all learners have access to an inclusive education

Adjustments

Our Turkish colleagues considered the notion of adjustments and the range of forms these can take. These adjustments are designed to lessen the impact of the child's special educational need and thus promote their successful integration into mainstream school. Adaptations to the learning environment, the use of specific aids, changes to teaching approaches or instructional materials as well as the consideration of how scaffolding can be used are all considered within this section. In the UK government policy and guidance such as Removing Barriers to Achievement (DfES 2004) have supported the drive to make adjustments at a classroom and school level that can have a positive impact on children's inclusion and achievement. In many cases the adjustment has been in the form of additional adult support in the classroom. There is a particular focus on shifting the emphasis for removing barriers to ensuring barriers are not unintentionally constructed. In doing so the principles of Universal Design for Early Childhood Education (UDECE), are explored, this approach addresses and redresses the primary barrier to making expert learners of all students: inflexible, one-size-fits-all curricula that raise barriers to learning.

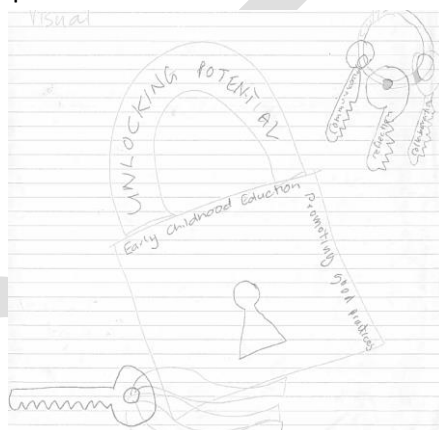
Communication

The concept of communication was explored by our colleague from the Netherlands. In this section the complex nature of the process of communication is highlighted as well as models which aim to shed light on the nature of effective communication. Leary's Rose (1957) demonstrates the impact of the interplay between the behaviour and the perspective of participants in conversation and can be used as a frame for analysing and influencing the positive outcome of conversations. Likewise the model of Emotional Intelligence (Goleman 1996) draws attention to the need to understand ourselves and

our behaviours as well as the motives and motivations of others. The skills needed for effective communication with parents, children and other professionals are all explored.

Choosing a metaphor for our findings

The next stage of our projects is to develop materials that can be used to support teacher educators when working to develop the knowledge and understanding of trainee teachers and social pedagogues about inclusion. During our meeting in Newcastle we also realised that we needed some kind of metaphor to bring some coherence to the development of the next part of our project. Our logo was designed by a colleague with the ribbons representing the inter-twinning of needs, skills, services and perspectives that contribute to inclusive education and we wondered how this could be built upon for our metaphor. Our efforts didn't manage to come up with a strong enough image, so moved away from this image and let our thoughts run. After much creative thought and debate we settled on the notion of inclusion as a means to **unlock children's potential**, with collaboration, reflective practice, a holistic view, shared ethos, adjustments and communication being some of the important **the keys** which would help to unlock that potential. The doodle below was made by one participant in meeting



as we explored the possibilities.

The notion of unlocking potential is central to inclusive practice. Throughout the materials that we develop in the next part of our project we will refer to **'the keys'** both collectively and individually, our materials will consist of case studies from all of the participating countries which demonstrate aspects of good inclusive practice, within each of these there will be a focus on the contribution the each of **the keys** has made to a successful outcome for the child or children involved. We will also consider the significance of each of **the keys** from the perspective of the children, their parents, the educational setting they attend and the different professionals involved in their education.

We hope you will enjoy looking at the overviews of **the keys** and that you will find our materials, when they are produced towards the end of 2016, informative and supportive in reflecting upon and developing your inclusive practice.

Appendix A

PT Collaboration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Partnership with other teachers and technician's • School level listen to the needs of the teachers • Parent – child – management team <p style="text-align: center;">↓</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Peer – school – teacher</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Partnership with other professionals • Partnership with parents • Teachers are always looking for opportunities instead of problems • Uniform word for parents / care takers • Involve communication with parents • Context community • Cooperation, cooperative learning is the key • Teamwork learn skills from the others • Triangle: child teacher / parent • Common consent
DK Reflective practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tool for reflection, (not as a checklist) • Is able to mutual • Skills professional • To be honest with yourself • Model for reflection for lifelong learning • Self-reflection teachers • Feed up - back and forward
BE Holistic view	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop cognitive skills • Development • Child • Social emotional • Language and cognitive • Motorial and moral • Sensorial • Well-being • Follow the initiative of a child • "the helicopter principle" and "AI : Appreciative Inquiry " • Self-steering • Capability
LT Shared ethos	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engagement • Expectations • Children's right <p style="text-align: center;">↓</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Democracy</p> <p style="text-align: center;">↓</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Participation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trust • No excuses • Respect • Passion, trust and expectations • Positive looking to children and others • Acceptation

TK Adjustments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dynamic assessment • Adjustment and adaptation • Adapting “things” • Attitudes skills and knowledge • Academic and social skills • Strategies for teacher training • Different ways of looking (signs) • Differentiation • Differences • Participation • Scaffolding • Enrichment • Triangle of Cognitive / Psychology and Socially • More than only the class, classroom centred. To read more about • Build on the strength of the child • Early intervention • Also strength parents
NL Communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dialogue • Communication • Strategies to communicate • Triangle: child teacher / parent • Parent – child – management team ↓ Peer – school – teacher • Involve communication with parents

Key 1 - Collaboration

Nowadays collaboration is seen as an organizational solution to rapid change and the need for greater responsiveness of organizations, including schools, since collaborative decision-making and problem-solving is faced as “a cornerstone of postmodern organizations” (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 1). In the education field, collaboration is also seen as a legal mandate, best practice in teacher practice, and necessary for the inclusion of children with special educational needs (SEN) (Hernandez, 2013). In fact, the Salamanca Statement (UNESCO, 1994) stresses the importance of effective co-operation between class teachers, special education professionals and support staff, as well as the involvement of resource personnel such as advisory teachers, educational psychologists, speech and occupational therapists. It also states that the education of children with SEN is a shared task of parents and professionals, and thus recommends the development of a co-operative partnership between school administrators, teachers and parents, the last ones being regarded as active partners in decision-making.

Definition

The term collaboration is often considered ambiguous and depending on the context it is used, and it has been argued that few clear definitions of it have been presented despite its current discussion. Nevertheless most authors seem to agree that collaboration includes working together in supportive and mutually beneficial relationships.

The models of collaboration between teachers, parents and other professionals in the schools, which have been implemented to meet diversity, are nowadays recognized as powerful and successful strategies to every educational context (Wood, 1998). In particular, the collaboration between professionals of Special and Regular Education has been seen as an alternative to meet the challenges of inclusive education, decrease the isolation traditionally associated with teachers work and enhance the return of children with special educational needs to the regular school which entails simultaneously the return of the special educators to the core professional life of the school.

Models of Collaboration

The way teachers, other professionals and parents collaboratively relate to one another in educational settings are commonly called models of collaboration and consist of the multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary, and transdisciplinary approaches (Briggs, 1991, 1997; Hernandez, 2013). Each model present different underlying principles and differences in the amount of communication and collaboration with other team members depend on the team approach being used.

Multidisciplinary Approach

In the multidisciplinary approach, services are delivered by a variety of different disciplines acting separately. Teachers and/or other professionals work independently, although they recognize and value contributions of other team members (Briggs, 1997). They provide separate evaluations, set goals for the child that are specific to their discipline, and implement individual intervention plans. In this approach, the role of each team member is strictly defined, since this model presumes that only those trained in the specific field are capable of assessing and serving the child in need of their

expertises (Kritikos, LeDosquent, & Melton, 2012 as cited by Hernandez, 2013). The team members may communicate with each other on a less frequent and less formal basis than with other approaches and the level of active involvement by each discipline was found to be limited within the framework of the multidisciplinary approach, despite the presence of multiple disciplines (Hernandez, 2013).

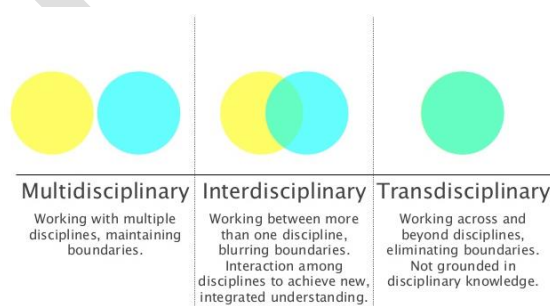
Interdisciplinary Approach

This model involves a team of professionals that may conduct their own assessments and develop discipline-specific goals, but meet regularly to coordinate service planning. An interdisciplinary team requires interaction among the team members for the evaluation, assessment, and development of the intervention plan. Actual service delivery is still done by the professionals separately, but as part of an overall plan. Role definitions are relaxed and there is an emphasis on communication among team members, attempting to create an atmosphere of collaboration (Hernandez, 2013). This form of teamwork reduces some of the potential for providing families or even teachers with conflicting advice, but does not completely eliminate these problems. While this approach engenders an enhanced exchange of information, boundaries remain between team members that constrict the flow of information, dialogue, and effective implementation (Carpenter et al., 1998, Stepanis et al., 2002 as cited in Hernandez, 2013).

Transdisciplinary Approach

In the transdisciplinary approach, team members provide joint evaluations and work together to carry out interventions, sharing their roles across disciplinary boundaries. In this approach professionals from two or more disciplines teach, learn and work together across traditional disciplinary or professional boundaries so that communication, interaction, and cooperation are maximized among team members (Briggs, 1997, Davies, 2007). Commonly in this approach one team member (primary provider or case manager) implements the intervention plan and receives consultation from other providers. Parents are viewed as their children's best advocate and key to the development of a mutual vision or "shared meaning" among the team (Davies, 2007).

Figure 1 – Models of collaboration.



Source: <http://www.slideshare.net/elenajurado/workshop-interdisciplinar-23oct4nov-2014-ciedi>

The transdisciplinary approach has been promoted as an example of outstanding collaborative practice (Hernandez, 20013). King et al. (2009), based on Foley's work (1990), propose 3 essential features of the transdisciplinary approach.

The first is related with **assessment**, where professionals from multiple disciplines assess the child simultaneously, but only one or two assume the role of facilitator and interact with the child while members of other disciplines give support and where appropriate observe.

The second essential feature concerns the intensive, ongoing interaction among team members from different disciplines, enabling them to pool and exchange information, knowledge, and skills, and work together cooperatively. This feature clarifies the role of collaborative interprofessional teamwork and includes the notion of **role expansion** (Foley, 1990, Briggs, 1991), which relates with the increasing by each team member of knowledge and skills in his/her own area of expertise.

The third defining feature of transdisciplinary approach is **role release**, regarded as the most crucial and challenging component in transdisciplinary team development. “The team becomes truly transdisciplinary *in practice* when members give up or ‘release’ intervention strategies from their disciplines, under the supervision and support of team members whose disciplines are accountable for those practices” (King et al., 2009, p. 213). The role release process is thus considered a core element of transdisciplinary approach, entailing sharing of expertise, valuing the perspectives, knowledge, and skills of those from other disciplines; and trust—being able to ‘let go’ of one’s specific role when appropriate. Role release also occurs with respect to the family (eg, parents can be educated about appropriate activities to incorporate into daily routines). Intervention is viewed as a shared event and no individual is solely responsible for it. “To assure the collective store of knowledge, skill, and perspectives is tapped, every team member, including staff, students, and family members, assumes the role of teacher, learner, and implementer” (Rainforth & England, 1997, p. 91 as cited by Hernandez, 2013, p. 486), which requires interpersonal skills, professional collaboration and especially open and well-established ways of communication.

In comparison to the multi- and inter- disciplinary approaches, there is evidence about transdisciplinary approach better effectiveness, especially with regard to the creation of an integrated team structure and service delivery, deliberate and regular cross discipline communications, knowledge exchange across disciplines and its strong student focus (Downing & Baily, 1990, Carpenter et al., 1998, Stepan et al., 2002, York et al., 1990 as cited in Hernandez, 2013).

Collaborative teaching approach

Co-teaching, cooperative teaching, or a collaborative teaching approach is seen as a more recent development in the evolution of the collaborative models described above (Hernandez, 2013). Identified as one of the most promising factors in favor of inclusion, the collaborative approach to teaching results in the teaming of regular and special educators in an inclusionary classroom setting but can also apply to teaming other professionals, such as speech/language pathologists, occupational therapists, and counselors (Rainforth & England, 1997 as cited in Hernandez, 2013). These authors noted that the multiple co-teaching models typically require joint academic intervention by at least two professionals in a classroom with students of typical ability as well as students with special needs. Many of the characteristics identified as necessary for successful implementation of a co-teaching model are similar to the key elements of the other collaborative models, especially the transdisciplinary approach, namely open communication, parity, role release, and consistent collaborative intervention (Sileo, 2011 as cited in Hernandez, 2013).

Co-teaching of regular education and special needs education teachers

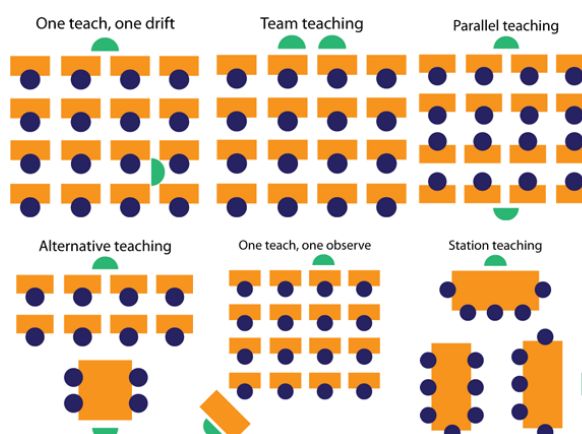
Cooperative teaching of regular and special education teachers implies that they work together in the same classroom most of the day. To be an effective team they will work together as equal partners in interactive relationships, both being involved in all aspects of planning, teaching, and assessment. Areas for this collaboration will include curricula and instruction, assessment and evaluation, and

classroom management and behavior. The primary responsibility of regular education teachers is usually to use their skills to instruct students in curricula dictated by the school system, whereas the primary responsibility of special education teachers is to provide instruction by adapting and developing materials to match the learning styles, strengths, and special needs of each of their students. Thus, both bring training and experience in teaching techniques and learning processes, but regular teachers mainly bring content specialization, while special education teachers bring assessment and adaptation specializations. "Their collaborative goal is that all students in their class are provided with appropriate classroom and homework assignments so that each is learning, is challenged, and is participating in the classroom process" (Ripley, 1997, para.9).

There are several established models of co-teaching that can be useful for the collaboration of regular and special needs teachers. Friend and Cook (1996) have developed six approaches to co-teaching that are widely used and have proven to be successful to guide teachers who work together in co-teaching partnerships. These approaches are also useful to collaborative practices in preschool settings, where they can be used as reference models and adapted to early childhood curriculum and pedagogies. These models have been synthesized as follows (adapted from <http://marylandlearninglinks.org>):

1. One Teaching, One Observing - One teacher leads instruction while the other teacher gathers data by observing. It is used when data needs to be collected.
2. Station Teaching - Students are broken into three or more heterogeneous or homogeneous groups. Teachers can provide direct instruction at a station or monitor multiple stations. The small groups rotate around the stations. Its purpose is to decrease student teacher ratio, present targeted instructional content and/or cooperative learning.
3. Parallel Teaching - Students are divided into two homogeneous groups and each group is led by a co-teacher, receiving the same content but through differentiated instruction. The purpose of parallel teaching is to decrease student teacher ratio and target students' instructional needs.
4. Alternative Teaching - Based on previous assessments, both teachers may decide which students are at-risk. One teacher works with the at-risk group while the other continues to provide accelerated instruction. The purpose of alternative teaching is to re-teach the at-risk students while providing accelerated content to the remaining students.
5. Teaming - While team teaching, co-teachers should act as "one brain in two bodies" (Friend, 2008, p. 75). For example, both teachers may facilitate a discussion while performing different roles such as writing on the board emphasizing key points. The purpose of teaming is to share the role of lead teacher in delivering instruction and providing student support.
6. One Teaching, One Assisting - As one teacher leads the whole class, the other teacher provides supports, answers questions, monitors student behavior, etc. The purpose of one teaching, one assisting is to deliver instruction and monitor student progress.

Figure 2 – Models of co-teaching.



Source: Friend, M. & Cook, L. (2010). *Interactions: Collaboration skills for school professionals* (6th ed.). Boston: Pearson.

Collaborative learning

Finally, collaboration must also be acknowledged from a pedagogical perspective, namely in terms of collaboration among children. Collaborative (or cooperative) learning allows students scaffold each other in order to find solutions to problems, either academics or for instance behavioral. This type of learning allows students of varying ability levels to contribute to the group as a whole, encouraging different approaches and diverse ideas to problem solving (Ncube, 2011). Although teachers are generally positive about cooperative learning's efficacy for students with special needs, research shows that they acknowledge that it works better for some students than others (Jenkins, Antil, Wayne & Vadasy, 2003).

Nevertheless it has been argued that cooperative classrooms represent a shift from traditional lecture-style classrooms to more brain-friendly environments that benefit all learners (Emerson, 2003). According to Stevens and Slavin (1995 as cited in Emerson, 2003), students with disabilities are more likely to be at instructional level and have positive learning outcomes when explanations and models are provided by their peers. In inclusive classes that use cooperative learning, students articulate their thoughts more freely, receive confirming and constructive feedback, engage in questioning techniques, receive additional practice on skills, and have increased opportunities to respond. Further, when students are thinking aloud while discussing, teachers are better able to assess student and group needs and intervene if needed, redirect groups toward learning tasks, achieving a level of dialogue that accelerates the comprehension process (Bucalos & Lingo, 2005 as cited in Emerson, 2003).

Key 2 - Reflection

The term “reflection” has lately become one of the most used terms in the area of education and learning, and there are different and partly overlapping definitions of what “reflecting” really is about. As an example Jack Mezirow focuses on changes in an individual’s “meaning perspective” and “meaning schemes” and especially emphasizes the intellectual and contextual side of reflection. The same applies to Stephen Brookfield who, with the term ‘critical reflection’, adds an ethical-political dimension (Illeris 2013).

In other cases, far more attention is directed at what is action oriented. Here, focus lies on reflections and decisions about what, in the given situation or context, could be done to go further. Donald Schön has studied “the reflective practitioner” as he calls it. He developed this term around “reflection in action” where especially reflecting intuitively - and without conscious and systematic reflections – will lead to making appropriate and actionable decisions (Illeris 2013).

Reflecting as a tool for change

Among others, Lawrence Stenhouse (1975) attaches great importance to the teacher’s and social educator’s thinking. It is the cornerstone of all school and kindergarten development. Without a reflecting teacher or social educator, no development would take place in our schools and in our pedagogical institutions.

Stenhouse is inspired by Dewey’s view of development and one could argue that Stenhouse is – for the teachers and the social educators – what Dewey is for children and students.

The ideal thought of the reflecting teacher and social educator has, ever since then, had a central place in the education of teachers and social educators in the western world. Reflecting must be recognized as an investigation of impressions and experiences where new possibilities appear.

Stenhouse mentions a set of tools, which can contribute to the development of our schools and institutions. Using these tools, you can focus on the subject “inclusion” for a group or for a single child

- To question your own teaching and pedagogical practice in a systematical manner as a base for developing
- To hold the skills necessary to study the way you practice teaching and learning
- To be focused on and able to question and test theory using these skills

Furthermore, the individual teacher and the social educator must be willing to let others observe the teaching or the pedagogical course with the intention of discussing it afterwards. Beside you have to reflect on what you want to assess, how you want to assess and why you want to assess.

In the context of inclusion, it is necessary that employees have an appropriate understanding of what inclusion is and what methods that will promote inclusion.

As a social educator and teacher you cannot automatically follow a regulatory system or recipe. It is important to relate to the foundation of your work and interpret it in a way you can vouch for in terms of personal and professional assessments of the task. You have to relate independently and interpretively to act responsible and therefore childcare workers and teachers own theoretical

reflections are necessary.

In all development and learning, reflecting is a key word, and especially transformative learning implies reflecting. The term reflection has become such a matter of course that we see it being used automatically and superficially – and therefore it can easily get in its own way of a deeper analysis and understanding of what happens and what is at stake.

This term has to be qualified, partly linguistically by using more precise terms as self-reflecting and critical reflecting, and partly in practice by close inspection of what reflecting means in each case. It is not enough to reflect on how or why you have experienced, thought, felt or acted in specific contexts. The essence is to think about how you should act in new and similar situations, based on your experiences and understanding. If your actions are based upon these reflections, you can speak of critical reflecting.

The didactical relationship model

Teaching and learning is complex and several didactical categories are connected and affected at the same time. Therefore, it makes good sense to use didactical models – not as a checklist but more as tools for reflecting, and this is why it is important a didactical model is dynamic. It requires academic and theoretical skills to apply models in a professional manner.

The didactical relationship model was first formulated by Bjørndal and Lieberg (1978) in the book “Nye veier I didaktikken” (New approaches to didactics). The model is based on the idea that there is an interrelationship between the different elements that exist in teaching. Hiim and Hippe later elaborated the didactical model of relations and to them it is a model for critical analysis and understanding of teaching and learning. As mentioned previously, there is in some understandings of reflection an orientation towards action. Here, focus lies on reflections and decisions about what, in the given situation or context, could be done to go further. It is in this way the model is to be understood.

The didactical model of relations is well known everywhere in the educational system in Scandinavia but especially applied by childcare workers, social educators and teachers in an action oriented and analytical perspective. One of the reasons that the model has gained such popularity could be because the elements are quite generic and thus enable the user to define and add sub elements depending on own needs and purpose. The model can be used for planning but also as a model for reflection.

The model can be used for planning an inclusive setting for example, by having an attention on the child's living conditions. Do the living conditions have an influence on the child's ability to concentrate; does the child have any friends in the institution?

Using the model for reflection the social educator or teacher could point out “friends” as the goal for the inclusive setting and make the plan from that focus.

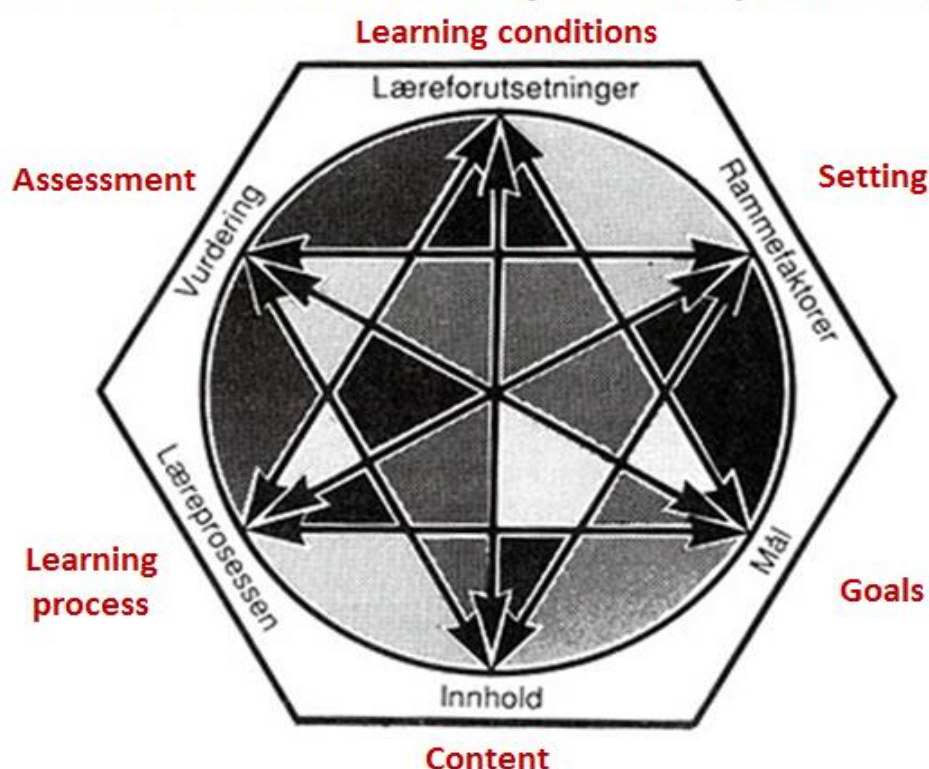
To embrace the complexity in teaching- and learning situations as a whole, it is key to focus on these issues:

- The students'/the children's social, cultural, psychological and physical conditions of learning
- Cultural, social and physical framework (including the teacher's conditions)

- Learning goals
- Content
- Learning process
- Assessment

All these issues will be used to adjust the didactic. If one e.g. wishes to include a child, inclusion must be incorporated in all categories.

The Didactical Relationship Model by Hiim & Hippe



All the categories are connected and interrelated, and to illustrate this, they are put in a holistic system to reflect the interdependence. When changes occur in one of the categories it will affect all other categories in various ways and to various degrees.

At first glance people are absent in the model, but in fact the people involved must be considered to be the most influential elements.

Below are examples of content in the different categories:

The students'/the children's conditions of learning: the student's/the children's learning and development conditions do not represent something absolute or unchangeable. It means the teacher/the social educator and the student/the child have to be conscious of the students'/ the child's current starting point.

Framework: e.g. disabled students may require a certain organization of the teaching and pedagogical activities.

Goals: The level of precision in the goals must be adapted to each individual situation and it is

important to question why those exact goals have been set. Not all study and learning patterns will be appropriate for every type of goal.

Content: Who decides what the content will be and what set of values does it intended to represent? Will students and children have an active influence on the content? Those are questions to ask regarding 'content'.

Learning process: Influence, cooperation and active participation are all linked to democratic values. The learning process is connected closely to the student's and children's conditions of learning.

Assessment: This will show what the teaching and the learning did, and it will say something about the outcome of the teaching or the pedagogical course.

Some childcare workers and teachers will reflect carefully upon their relations to specific children and the problems of those. Others will reflect upon their own role as a teacher, and how they relate to dilemmas and issues connected to the conditions of the school and general meaning in society in relation to the key problems of pedagogy.

Key 3 - The well-being, linkedness and involvement in relation with a holistic view on development

Introduction

In inclusive education we are invited not to focus on 'how do we know which children are at risk in their development'. In the traditional way of thinking the mainly focus is on children's achievements. Children are showing some lag in development and will be labelled as 'at risk' and will be subject to additional interventions. In the traditional way of thinking we mainly focus on the product.

In inclusive education the key questions are different. We do not focus on what the children have learned or not. Here we focus on the **process within the child** and on the level of the child. We focus on how the children experience their stay in the setting. You try to find out 'how the children are doing'. In fact we ask ourselves:

- How the children are feeling (= well-being);
- How engaged they are in their activities (= involvement).

When these two conditions are fulfilled, we know that both the social-emotional and cognitive development of the child is secured. Next to this development, we also see other levels of development who benefits from the well-being and involvement.

The level of development are not the first indicators. For 'a lag in development' 'an excellent development' does not necessarily imply that the child is not getting what it needs to develop.

First we have a look at the well-being and the involvement and linkedness of the child. Secondly we focus on the competences of the child.

In attach 1 you find a schedule of the summary of the way of thinking.

1. How is the child doing in the setting ? Look at the well-being and the involvement of the child

The answer is to be found in two topics : 'how is the involvement of the child and what is the well-being of the child ?' (Laevers, Moons and Declercq, 2012) This is the first indicator for every child in the need of care and the grade of participation.. First we explain what well-being is, then involvement and then we relate this with a holistic view on the development of the young child.

1.1. Well-being

Well-being is telling to what extent the interaction between child and setting lead to the fulfilment of its basic needs. The child feels like a '**fish in the water**'. That is how we describe a child who feels alright. The child express his feelings in various ways. This is about the physical needs, the need for affection, the need for safety, the need for recognition, the need to feel competent, the need for a meaning to life and moral values. Dissatisfaction of one or more basic needs affects the entire functioning of a person. The most obvious signal of well-being is **enjoyment**, having fun, taking

pleasure in interacting with others and in activities. The children look happy, smile or laugh easily, engage spontaneously in chatting or even singing. Children who feel good give a **relaxed impression**. They do not feel threatened in any way. Their facial expression is open, there is no sign of tension or restlessness. Their muscles are relaxed. We see a kind of **inner peace**. Another signal of well-being is energy, **vitality**. This can often be read from children's faces: the look is lively and expressive. They radiate. Their posture also gives a lot away: not shrunk or with hanging shoulders but upright, not afraid to take the space they are entitled to. When children feel o.k., they have an **open attitude towards the world around**. Whatever comes in, they are ready to experience it. They are also accessible, approachable to others. They are happy with the attention they receive: a hug, a compliment, a word of comfort, an encouragement or help. There are more chances for well-being to occur when one feels strong. Self-assurance, **selfconfidence**, a sense of self-value make one less anxious or stressed. This can be noticed in a posture expressing a certain pride, literally feeling 'big'. That positive self-image is the foundation of resilience. Children then do not allow others to walk all over them, they are assertive.

When a child does not suppress feelings but remains in touch with its emotions, it is not only able to enjoy. It will also recover more easily from difficult experiences.

Well-being indicates one is doing well emotionally, is feeling comfortable with oneself as a person. A low level of well-being signals that a child does not succeed in **fulfilling his/her basic needs**. We have different basic needs. 1. Physical needs (need to eat, drink, move, sleep, etc.); 2. The need for affection, warmth and tenderness (being hugged, physical contact and vicinity, receiving and giving love and warmth); 3. The need for safety, clarity and continuity (need for a more or less predictable environment, need to know where you stand, what is allowed and what is not allowed and being able to count on others); 4. The need for recognition and affirmation (feeling accepted and appreciated by others, meaning something to others, being part of a group and belong); 5. The need to experience oneself as capable (feeling that you can do something yourself, master something, experience how to push the limits of your capabilities, experience success); 6. The need for meaning and (moral) values (feeling a 'good' person and feeling connected with others and the world).

Of course, not every form of discomfort is automatically a problem. Frustrations are inevitable. But a low level of well-being in the long-term often causes psychological problems. A child loses contact with him/herself and with his/her feelings. The child can behave extremely listless, anxious or aggressive or seems to take a step back in his/her development. Because the foundation of a personality is laid during the first stages of life one cannot pay enough attention to signals indicating a low level of well-being. Also in older children these signals tell us that their social-emotional development is threatened.

In short, well-being is about the 'quality of life'. It refers to an optimal relation between the child and its environment.

Improving the level of well-being is not equal to spoiling children and simply giving them everything they want. Children play an active role in getting to real satisfaction in life. Adults can help children by nurturing their self-confidence, by helping them to express what they feel, by learning them to deal with other children, by letting them experience success, by developing their talents and entrepreneurship, etc. Well-being generates energy and ensures that the child remains in touch with

him/herself and gains inner strength. That is why we should invest in well-being - for the present child and the future adult.

There are different levels of well-being to observe

Level	Well-being	Signals
1-2	Low = NO	The child clearly shows signals of discomfort : is angry, cries, screams, looks sad or frightened, hurts him/herself or others, doesn't respond to the environment and avoids contact. The posture, facial expression and actions indicate that the child does not feel at ease . However, the signals are less explicit than under level 1 or the sense of discomfort is not expressed the whole time.
3	Moderate = ?	The child has a neutral posture . Facial expression and posture show little or no emotion. There are no signals indicating sadness or pleasure, comfort or discomfort
4-5	High = YES	The child shows obvious signs of satisfaction (as listed under level 5). However, these signals are not constantly present with the same intensity. During the observation episode, the child enjoys, in fact it feels great : looks happy and smiles, is spontaneous and expressive, talks to him/herself and sings, is relaxed and open, engaging with the environment and is lively and expresses self-confidence and self-assurance.

1.2. Linkedness and well-being : the context

Next to this it is important to look how the well-being is imbedded in the interactions between the child and its environment?

We call this linkedness. We talk about linkedness when children have the attitude of 'connectedness' with everything that lives, the sense that we are part of history, the world. The feeling of unity encourages people to look after themselves, others, the environment, the world. Laevers, Moons and Declerq (2012) distinguish four 'relational fields'.

1. Well-being of the child's relationship with the adult - Two questions need to be asked : how does the child feel in relation with the adult and how does the adult feel in relation to the child. The more positive the answer is, the better the well-being.

2. Well-being of the child with the other children of the group - How does the child relate to other children ? How do the other children relate to the child ?

3. Well-being of the child related to the setting - What is the influence of the contextual aspects (the environment of development and learning, the way things are organised in the group and in the setting as a whole). First it is important to focus on space and daily life routine. Here the room the child stays in is important. Next to this we have the daily routine and the question of expected and unexpected events. Secondly we can also focus on the child's interactions with the learning environment and play. Thirdly is the broader context of the setting. What about the experience of

breaks, lunch time, excursions, outdoor activities. Here you can also read more in the key ADAPTATION

4. the relation to family members/people who take care of the child. - The quality of the relationship with family members plays a very important role in his/her life. The main question is 'what is the quality of the relation between the child and his/her parent(s) and other family members of people who take care of the child.

1.3. Involvement

Involvement is what we observe when children are intensely engaged in an activity. Characteristics of involvement are concentration, motivation, intense mental activity, deep satisfaction, being near the 'zone of proximal development'.

Well-being is important, but does not guarantee development. A lack of involvement is a cause of concern. It flags us that the development is slowing down or is coming to a standstill, at least in the area of competence which is no longer addressed. It is therefore a matter for intervention to restore involvement. If you are involved, you feel appealed by the activity, you are truly interested and driven to engage in it. You cannot achieve a high level of involvement if you do things only because others ask or force you to. The **motivation** must come from within. Involvement means that you are completely open to experiences, you have an **intense mental activity**: the impressions you get are very strong. Bodily sensations and movements, colors and sounds, smells and tastes have a certain range and depth that is not there otherwise. You fully address your fantasy and mental capabilities. When involvement is low the sensations are not really lived through and remain superficial. Involvement is a wonderful state: it really takes you away. What you experience is energy running through your body. Children spontaneously take initiatives to get into this particular state. Play is the place par excellence where this satisfaction can be found. If involvement is lacking, you become bored and get a feeling of emptiness and frustration. The child feels **satisfaction**. The source of involvement is the urge to discover or explore, the urge to experience the world, to use one's senses, to get a grip on reality. Initially, this 'getting a grip' should be taken literally: touching and grabbing everything that comes within range. Gradually, 'grasping' means 'understanding' and gets less concrete. This we call **exploratory drive**.

Involvement is only possible when an activity challenges you, when it is not too easy and not too difficult. Children with a high level of involvement operate at the very limits of their capabilities. They fully address their skills, they give the best of themselves – whether they are babies or adults, children who are slow in their development or highly gifted children.

There are different levels of involvement to observe

Level	involvement	Examples
1 – 2	Low = NO	The child hardly shows any activity: no concentration, daydreams, has an absent/passive attitude, displays no signs of exploration or interests, doesn't partake in goal-oriented activity and doesn't seem to be taking anything in. The child shows some degree of activity but which is often interrupted: limited concentration, often looking away during activities and dreaming, is easily distracted and action only leads to limited results.
3	Moderate = ?	The child is busy the whole time, but without real concentration: attention is superficial, doesn't become absorbed in activities and these activities are short lived, limited motivation, does not feel challenged and the child does not use his/her capabilities or imagination to the full extent
4 - 5	High = YES	There are clear signs of involvement, but these are not always present to their full extent: engaged in activities without interruption, displays real concentration although sometimes the attention can be more superficial, the child feels challenged and motivated, the activities engage the child's capabilities and imagination to a certain extent. During the episode of observation the child is continuously engaged in the activity and completely absorbed in it: completely focused and concentrating on the activity without interruption, highly motivated and perseveres, is alert and shows precision and intense mental activity, not easily distracted, even by strong stimuli, the child addresses his/her full capabilities/imagination and enjoys being engrossed in the activity.

2. Developmental domains

What about the levels of development ? For 'a lag in development' does not necessarily imply that the child is not getting what it needs to develop, while being 'ahead in development' equally does not imply that the child's development is not endangered.

It is very important to see the child in total from a holistic perspective. In experiential learning we address 9 areas of development that process orientated learning see as essential when it comes to defining the kind of outcome education should strive for). Competences are not taken separately in a set of isolated skills. It considers them as a complex entity and therefore offers educators, teachers, parents a framework to identify talents in children and support deep-level learning.

The 9 areas are emotional health, gross motor development, fine motor development, language and communication, artistic expression, understanding of the physical world, understanding of the social world, logical and mathematical thinking and self-organization and entrepreneurship. Important to this areas is that the development can be different from child to child. It is important to look at the level of the child and stimulate well-being and involvement related to the level of development. We used to focus on subjects, we are daily challenged to focus on the child like the child is and who it is related to his culture and background. This approach is less in line with a 'curriculum' perspective and more holistic in nature. It is good to distinguish basic competences when you observe children. In this way you recognise talents of the children.

1. **Emotional health : being well in your skin** - Here confidence and assertiveness, self-image and self-esteem are very important. Next to his energy and mood are part of the emotional health. To have self-confidence, to stand up for yourself, to be relaxed and able to enjoy life (a cuddle, a compliment, the company of others), to get easily over painful experiences, to be able to cope with new situations are important.
2. **Gross motor skills** - Competence in this area deals with the way in which one can use and steer one's body in all kinds of situations where the movement is required and the awareness of body.
3. **Fine motor skills** - Fine motor development concerns the way in which one can display dexterity in handling all sorts of tools and objects which require meticulous co-ordination. In extension to his manual skill and the eye-hand co-ordination it requires, we can focus on the control of other parts of the body like eyes (blinking), tongue and facial expression.
4. **Language/Communication** - In an active sense, this domain is about mastering language as an 'instrument' to express an accurate and powerful way (orally or in writing) something one experiences, feels or thinks. Through this, the original experience or thought becomes sharper (for oneself) and at the same time accessible to others. In a passive sense, linguistic competence is the skill to easily understand and access what other people express in all sorts of forms and through all kinds of media.
5. **Artistic expression** - Artistic expression is about the capability to use all kinds of means/media to articulate an experience, a sensation, a feeling, a thought, a fantasy... The 'result' of this expression is original, rich and shows imagination. Artistic expression also includes the ability to comprehend, flavour and enjoy the (artistic) expressions of others. You can talk about 4 domains of artistic expression : visual art, language art, movement and musical expression. For this artistic expressions you use different kind of media.
6. **Exploration of the world** - Exploration and understanding the physical world implies grasping characteristics of materials, being able to conceive how objects 'behave' in all kinds of situations and in relation to each other, being able to predict effects of certain actions on objects. It is about time, place, nature, technology.
7. **Social competence** - Social competences means you are able to express your feelings and you can feel these from others. The basic emotions are glad, sad, angry and anxious. Social competences means also you are related with others in different ways : together, against each other or alone.
8. **Logical and mathematical thinking** - This domain refers to the power of abstraction, the capability to transcend the concrete. This implies categorising objects and phenomena, sorting and numbering them, positioning the objects in space and in time, discovering partners and linking cause/consequence and drawing conclusions on the basis of logical reasoning.
9. **Self-organisation/entrepreneurship** - This domain is about the position to organise oneself effectively by making adequate use of opportunities available in the surroundings and in oneself. This rests on different aspects. The 'will' to do things, the ability to make choices and set goals, the power to make scenarios to solve problems and to look at the result and learn from it.

In a traditional way of following the development of the child educators, parents and teachers are still eager to focus on a part of the development. The focus is most of the time on logical and mathematical thinking (cognitive thinking), the emotional health and motorial skills (psycho-motorial development) and social competences (socio-dynamic skills).

ATTACH 1 : summary

CONTEXT

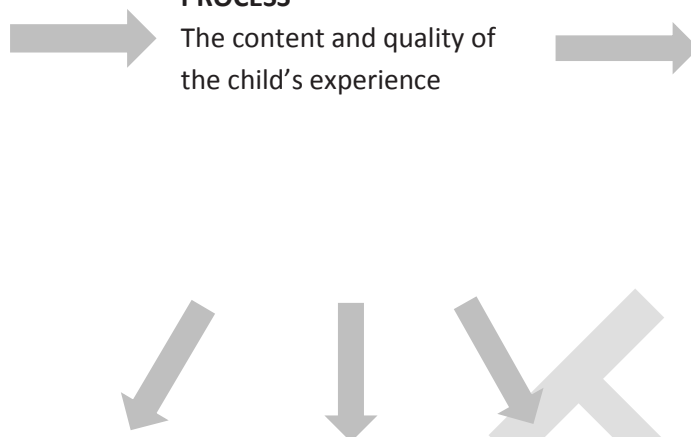
The learning environment
(space, materials,
activities,
interaction,
organisation,
safety,...)

PROCESS

The content and quality of
the child's experience

OUTCOME

The 'growth' in
**competences,
dispositions and
attitudes/talents**



Well-being

Linkedness

Involvement

Source: Laevers F, Moons J, Declercq B, A process-Oriented Monitoring System for the Early Years, revised edition, Cego publishers, 2012, p. 5

Key 4 - Ethos in Inclusive Education

The role of Teachers in Inclusive Education

Inclusive education by definition strives to provide *equal educational opportunities* for every child. The terms 'inclusion' or 'inclusive education' have largely replaced 'integration' and are intended to represent a different concept: 'integration' may be seen as a child adapting to a host educational setting while 'inclusion' may refer to the educational setting adapting in order to meet the needs of a child. The change in terminology reflects a shift from a needs-based to a rights-based agenda (Pirrie, Head, & Brna, 2006). Consequently, the inclusive education is defined as a multifaceted practice, built upon foundations grounded in a belief that children with SEN or any kind of developmental or learning difficulties require appropriate education, which optimizes their life chances as individuals to become full members of society. The proposition that this should largely if not entirely be facilitated by education in mainstream schools should be recognized as a values-based position.

It has been wide admitted that the role of teachers in developing inclusion is central to its effectiveness. Consequently, teachers' attitudes, as well as their behaviors, play a crucial role in successful implementation of inclusive education, the key factors of which are the positive ethos, with a values-based teachers' commitment to inclusion (Lindsay, 2007).

In 2012 the European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education issued a Profile of Inclusive Teachers. The Profile aimed to highlight the essential core values and areas of competence necessary for preparing teachers to work in inclusive education considering all forms of diversity. The Profile admits that the failure to take the cultural dimension and all possible cultural and social variables and differences into account by a teacher leads to the failure to adapt teaching methods and behavior according to individual needs of a child, i.e. to the pedagogical failure and, consequently, to a failure of inclusive education.

The Profile developed the framework of core values and areas of competence of an inclusive teacher (p. 7). This includes:

- Valuing Learner Diversity – learner difference is considered as a resource and an asset to education.
- Supporting All Learners – teachers have high expectations for all learners' achievements; promote the academic, practical, social and emotional learning of all learners; apply effective teaching approaches in heterogeneous classes.
- Working With Others – collaboration and teamwork are essential approaches, including working with parents and families and with a range of other educational professionals.
- Personal Professional Development – teaching is a learning activity and teachers take responsibility for their lifelong learning; teachers are reflective practitioners.

The first core value of an inclusive teacher - Valuing Learner Diversity – implies the development of teacher's intercultural competence which builds fundamental grounds for ethos in inclusive education.

Valuing Learner Diversity

Diversity refers to any mixture of items characterized by differences and similarities. In the sociopolitical and economic realms cultural diversity can be found in the context of ethnicity, culture, gender mainstreaming, plurality of languages and religions, age, social class, sexual orientation, professional function, educational background, mental and physical capabilities, health, etc. (Wood 2003).

In order to be able to recognize cultural variables within a group of children, teachers need to develop **cultural sensitivity, cultural awareness** or so called **cultural critical consciousness** that involves **self-reflection**, the ability of standing back from themselves and critically reflect on their own cultural values, norms, beliefs and attitudes. Self-reflection and cultural critical consciousness also involve thoroughly analyzing and carefully monitoring both personal beliefs and instructional behaviors about the value of cultural diversity, and the best ways to teach culturally different students for maximum positive effects. Corresponding behaviors have to be changed to incorporate more positive knowledge and perceptions of cultural diversity. To engage in these continuous critiques and efforts to make teaching more relevant to diverse students, teachers need to have a thorough understanding of their own cultures and the cultures of different sociocultural groups, as well as how this affects teaching and learning behaviors. Thus, a teacher admits that the pedagogical problems shouldn't be studied and approached in isolation from sociocultural environment of a child and cultural self-reflection (Gay, Kirkland, 2003).

Shortage of self-reflection and cultural critical consciousness lead to neglectfulness, lack of understanding, categorization and labelling of children that consequently can have a negative impact upon their development and learning opportunities, also create other intentional and unintentional attitudinal barriers (Pivik, McComas, Laflamme, 2002).

Inclusive teacher respects cultural differences and is aware of millstones of ethnocentric attitudes. Within the value attitude of ethnocentrism, individuals judge other groups in relation to their own particular culture, which is perceived as a standard especially with concern to values, social norms, beliefs, behavior, customs, and religion. The opposite value attitude is called cultural relativism which is based on the idea that all norms, beliefs, and values are dependent on their cultural context, and should be treated as such. Thus, an inclusive teacher can be described as a person who deeply believes that being different means being "normal", who respects, values and understands diversity as a resource that enhances learning opportunities and adds value to schools and other educational institutions, local communities and society (Profile of Inclusive Teachers, 2012).

Avoiding falling into the culturist trap

Another obstacle to inclusive education is the tendency to essentialize cultural differences and develop patronizing attitude towards children from minority groups. Essentialist notion of culture leads to the usual mistake that everyone in a certain culture is the same. It explains the behavior of people in terms of their culture, allowing "culture" to become greater than the people themselves. This is the way of othering and reducing children from minority groups to a prescribed image based mostly on stereotypes. Overestimating cultural differences and encouraging the belief that cultural

categorizations are permanent and “natural” rather than being social and changeable, essentialism puts a child from any minority group in a deficit position labelling her or him as less capable than other students. This way even the notion of “special needs” is an issue which affects the inclusion of children from diverse backgrounds and abilities within education system (Holliday, Hyde, Kullman, 2010: 34-35).

Therefore for an inclusive teacher it is important to **avoid falling into the culturist trap of reducing children to less than they are**, in the same way as it is necessary to avoid racist and sexist traps. Using Zygmunt Bauman’s notion of “defamiliarization”, it could be suggested that every teacher must go through the process which “takes as away from our comfortable, limited, commonly accepted and often unconsidered opinions about what everybody and everything is like and makes us more sensitive to the way that those opinions are formed and maintained” (Bauman 1990: 15-16).

In relation to essentialism, the policy of multicultural education have been criticized for reinforcing and politicizing cultural differences, for stressing the importance of a particular culture and its claims to superiority (Kuper 2000: 242). The possible response to this critique can be deessentialization of the culture concept in inclusive education which could be viewed as an admirable alternative to the previous strategy of multiculturalism. In inclusive education the main concern has been shifted from the preoccupation with culture to a child and her/his needs, thus putting in focus and challenging established societal power relationships and dominant cultural prejudices.

Being aware of social inequalities

Cultural critical consciousness alone is not enough for implementation of culturally responsive education and development of teacher’s intercultural competence, as the latter implies not merely awareness of cultural differences, but also **awareness of social inequalities** that often correspond with cultural diversity. On the society level diversity turns into inequality. Nowadays the problem of compensating social inequality in education is acknowledged to be the main issue of inclusive education in most of the EU countries (Intercultural Education in Schools: VI). Treating children with different from their own social, cultural, ethnic background unfairly, teachers and educational system in general can unwillingly serve as the means of social exclusion, legitimizing social inequalities by converting them into inequalities at school.

Inclusive teacher understands the problems connected with social inequality and is aware of the key role education and a teacher plays in establishing democracy and social justice in society. She/he takes responsibility for promoting education equity in the classroom, **treating every child as equally important and valued individuals. Seeing parents as equals**, an inclusive teacher strives to create and maintain positive relationships with them.

The lack of such attitude may lead to dysfunctions in the contact with children as well as with parents from so called “vulnerable groups”, caused by the differences in communication codes. Minority students and parents, whether they are social or ethnic, in general are often perceived as dysfunctional due to their cultural orientations different from those of the teachers (Garza, Crawford, 2005: 601; Posey-Maddox 2013). Therefore a teacher needs to **model respect in social relationships** and use appropriate language with all learners and stakeholders in education. Both, **children’s and parents’**

voices should be heard, respected and valued. The teacher is a key influence on a learners' self-esteem and, as a consequence, their learning potential. Numerous studies have shown how parents feel about their position in the parent-teacher relationship becomes an important factor in their children's academic success (Freeman 2010).

Being empathic to the diverse needs of learners

Facilitation of inclusive educational environment requires ensuring the opportunity for optimal learning and social experiences, and providing a nurturing climate. Emotions play a key role in that and therefore have been called "fundamental to learning" (Hinton, et al.2008: 90). Since children's emotions affect the way and how much they develop and learn, an inclusive teacher is supposed to be able **to connect to, and understand their students** in order to best serve children's needs. In other words, a teacher must be emphatic and focused on "nurturing learning rather than judging performance" (Hinton, et al.2008: 91).

Empathy has been long-regarded as an important aspect of teacher's professional preparation to teach in diverse school settings (Warren, 2013: 396). Practicing positive behavior and classroom management approaches, inclusive teachers not only themselves have empathy for their students in order to best teach them, they must develop this skill in their students as well. Expressing care for another is a skill that can be taught and nurtured through a supportive educational environment (McLennan, 2008: 454).

The term "empathy" is generally defined as the ability to sense other people's emotions, coupled with the ability to imagine what someone else might be thinking or feeling. The emotional domain of empathy is widely referred to as empathic concern, or sympathy. The intellectual domain of empathy is termed "perspective taking". Perspective taking includes two modalities: imagining how another person is experiencing his or her condition (imagine other), and imagining how one's own self would personally experience another person's condition (imagine self). 'Imagine other' modality requires that the observer possess the capacity to surrender his or her own personal opinion, beliefs, and points of view to embrace those of the target (Warren, 2013). In other words, empathic concern is a product of perspective taking. Teachers have to imagine how children are feeling to determine the appropriate emotional, caring, or sympathetic response in their interactions with children. Caring is not just worrying about the academic success but worrying about children's personal success, caring about their home life, being involved in who they are and who they become.

Thus, the application of empathy is a professional disposition teachers engage to adopt students' social and cultural perspectives for the purposes of better connecting learning experiences to students' home culture and the various forms of the individual cultural expression. Perspective taking and empathic concern are at the core of empathy's application to child-teacher interactions (Warren, 2013).

Empathic interactions promote more nurturing classroom environments and the development of strong, positive children-teacher relationships. Empathy resists labels, overcomes stereotypes and breaks through the social construction of the other. Therefore it is an essential part of culturally responsive pedagogy

Key 5 - Adaptations

Definition

Young children with significant disabilities can have developmental and social gains when they are in inclusive settings. One of the key elements that lead to successful inclusion of young children is “adaptation”. Adaptation can be defined as the process of adjusting or modifying materials, environment, interactions, or teaching methods to support the individual child.

Adaptation, modification and accommodation are the terms being used interchangeably. However there are differences between these terms when they are considered in inclusive education. Adaptation is the umbrella term that includes both accommodation and modification. Adaptations allow children with disabilities to participate in inclusive environments by compensating for their weaknesses. Accommodations accomplish this objective without modifying the curriculum. Accommodations are changes that make it easier to learn for the child. It makes the change in how the child is learning, not what the child is learning. Accommodations don't lower the expectations for what children are learning. Accommodations may involve in presentation, response, setting or timing and scheduling of the given content. Some examples of accommodations for young learners may be picture schedules, directions with pictures, hearing aids or sign language, special or adapted seating, using Braille, communication devices, sitting near the teacher or paraeducator, noise buffers, such as tennis balls on chair legs to reduce noise, additional time to complete an activity, frequent breaks. In contrast, modifications refer to adaptations which change or lower expectations or standards. Modifications may include changes in instructional level, content/curriculum, performance criteria or assignment structure-paper/pencil work. For example, think of a five-year-old child with a disability is in a preschool classroom and there is a modification in content/curriculum. In the assessment of letter knowledge at the end of the year, he is required to know the letters in his name, whereas the rest of his class is required to know the entire alphabet.

Modifications and accommodations for a child with special needs is a continuous process which are decided by each child's collaborative team. Each teacher, each child, each classroom is unique and adaptations are specific to each situation. The first step is to assess the child's abilities and the environment where the child will be spending time. Once the goals and objectives are identified and expectations for the child's participation in that environment are established, the team selects or creates modifications and accommodations that address those needs and put them in the individual education plan. Once implemented, their effectiveness should be assessed on an ongoing basis and revised, as needed.

Purposes of adaptation in inclusive settings

Adaptations are essential elements of the practices that support young children in inclusive settings due to some reasons. Cross (2004) lists the purposes as

- Functional adaptations, which are related to children's most basic needs for health and safety, communication, positioning, and mobility, increase independence and reduce the need for one-on-one assistance.
- Adaptations to promote play, learning, and accomplish individual goals and outcomes are carried out to help children engage with the learning environment through play

activities and more formal teacher-directed learning activities. The most frequent adaptations are the use of hand-over-hand to physically guide or support movement, and verbal prompts to encourage children's verbal or motor responses. Adults can also encourage peers to help children with hand-overhand assistance.

- Adaptations may also promote socialization. The development of social skills and friendships is an important part of early learning experiences. For example, adaptations ensuring interaction with other children during play, learning activities, and daily routines may encourage membership by positioning child within the circle on the floor with supports rather than outside the circle in the wheelchair.

Applications in educational settings

Young children have many different physical and learning needs in educational settings. A large number of these children are spending their days in classes including children having different abilities, interests, disadvantages or disabilities. For example, Jake has socio-emotional problems, Kate has hearing loss, Jamal has a speech delay, Asaam is just learning English, and Andy is growing up in poverty. These five children are only a few of the children in the classroom. Each child has strengths and challenges. Some of these children have individual education plans including modifications and accommodations according to their special needs. So there is a question that a teachers asks to herself:

“How can I meet the needs of all these children?”

The answer is not so easy. In the last two decades, the goal for educators has been to design educational settings that meet the needs of all learners within a common setting. So there is a need for educational practice that provides flexibility in the ways: information is presented, children are engaged, and children respond or demonstrate knowledge and skills; and reduces barriers in instruction, provides appropriate accommodations, supports, and challenges, and maintains high achievement expectations for all children, including the ones with disabilities and children who are limited English proficient (Higher Education Opportunity Act, 2008). These are the main ideas behind *Universal Design for Learning (UDL)*. The origin of the term UDL is generally attributed to David Rose, Anne Meyer, and colleagues at the Center for Applied Special Technology (CAST). Rose and Meyer (2002) reveal the basis of UDL is grounded in emerging insights about brain development, learning, and digital media. They observed the disconnect between an increasingly diverse children population and a “one-size-fitsall” curriculum would not produce the academic achievement gains that were being sought. Drawing on the historical application of universal design in architectural (e.g., curb cuts), CAST developed the concept of universal design for learning as a means of focusing research, development, and educational practice on understanding diversity and applying technology to facilitate learning. They explain there are three guiding principles of UDL which are:

- **Providing Multiple Means of Representation (the “what” of learning)**
Learners differ in the ways that they perceive and comprehend information that is presented to them. For example, those with sensory disabilities (e.g., blindness or deafness); learning disabilities (e.g., dyslexia); language or cultural differences, and so forth may all require different ways of approaching content. Others may simply grasp information quicker or more efficiently through visual or auditory means rather than

printed text. Also learning, and transfer of learning, occurs when multiple representations are used, because it allows children to make connections within, as well as between, concepts. In short, there is not one means of representation that will be optimal for all learners; providing options for representation is essential.

- **Providing Multiple Means of Action and Expression (the “how” of learning)**

Learners differ in the ways that they can navigate a learning environment and express what they know. For example, individuals with significant movement impairments (e.g., cerebral palsy), those who struggle with strategic and organizational abilities (executive function disorders), those who have language barriers, and so forth approach learning tasks very differently. Some may be able to express themselves well in written text but not speech, and vice versa. It should also be recognized that action and expression require a great deal of strategy, practice, and organization, and this is another area in which learners can differ. In reality, there is not one means of action and expression that will be optimal for all learners; providing options for action and expression is essential.

- **Providing Multiple Means of Engagement (the “why” of learning)**

Affect represents a crucial element to learning, and learners differ markedly in the ways in which they can be engaged or motivated to learn. There are a variety of sources that can influence individual variation in affect including neurology, culture, personal relevance, subjectivity, and background knowledge, along with a variety of other factors presented in these guidelines. Some learners are highly engaged by spontaneity and novelty while other are disengaged, even frightened, by those aspects, preferring strict routine. Some learners might like to work alone, while others prefer to work with their peers. In reality, there is not one means of engagement that will be optimal for all learners in all contexts; providing multiple options for engagement is essential.

As explained, UDL applies the principles of universal design into education, resulting design of instructional materials and activities that allows the learning goals to be achievable by individuals having different abilities. Mason, Orkwis and Scott (2005) proposed the seven educational applications of UDL. These are:

- Equitable curriculum, which is designed to engage all children.
- Flexible curriculum, which accomodates a range of individual abilities and preferences.
- Simple and intuitive instruction, which provides instruction straightforward in the mode most accessible to children.
- Multiple means of presentation, which provides presentation to meet recognition patterns of individual children.
- Success-oriented curriculum, which is providing a supportive learning environment through ongoing assistance, applying principles of effective curriculum design by the teachers.
- Appropriate level of child effort, which means that by accomodating different responses, ease of access to curricular materials, comfort, motivation and children engagement should be provided.

- Appropriate environment for learning which means curricular materials, instructional methods, groupings, classroom spaces should be varied according to the needs of the children.

In 2006, the term Universal Design for Early Childhood Education (UDECE), which was adaptation of the principles of Universal Design and Universal Design for Learning to the field of early childhood education, was explained (Conn-Powers, Cross, Traub and Hutter-Pishgahi, 2006). It provides a framework for synthesizing the fields of early childhood and special education. It designs early education settings so all children, as equal and valued members of the program, may access and engage in all learning opportunities, learn from a common curriculum according to their individual strengths and abilities, and demonstrate their learning in multiple ways (Conn-Powers et al, 2006).

Three major principles of universal design for learning have been adapted by Pisha and Coyne (2001) to reflect an early childhood focus: 1. Learning differences occur at all levels so it is better to represent them as a continuum instead of in categories (e.g., children with disabilities, English as a Second Language, and typical development). 2. Anticipate learning differences and design curriculum to meet all learners' needs—rather than modifying a curriculum for some children. 3. Choose diverse and varied curriculum materials. Implement an open-ended curriculum—there should be more than one way to learn something, more than one way to show what has been learned, and more than one thing to learn.

Universal Design for Learning (UDL) is an approach that addresses and redresses the primary barrier to making expert learners of all children: **inflexible, one-size-fits-all curricula** that raise unintentional barriers to learning. Learners with disabilities are most vulnerable to such barriers, but many children without disabilities also find that curricula are poorly designed to meet their learning needs.

Diversity is the norm, not the exception, wherever individuals are gathered, including schools. When curricula are designed to meet the needs of the broad middle-at the exclusion of those with different abilities, learning styles, backgrounds, and even preferences, they fail to provide all individuals with fair and equal opportunities to learn. Universal Design for Learning helps meet the challenge of diversity by suggesting flexible instructional materials, techniques, and strategies that empower educators to meet these varied needs. A universally designed curriculum is designed from the outset to meet the needs of the greatest number of users, making costly, time-consuming, and after-the-fact changes to curriculum unnecessary.

Conclusion

Meeting the developmental and academic learning needs of all the children in a classroom is not an easy task. For early childhood teachers it is a challenge how to make sure that everyone benefits from a high-quality early childhood curriculum when they are given the wide developmental variations among typically developing children as well as the specialized intervention that children who speak other languages or who have identified delays and disabilities. Principles of universal design for learning help all educators to construct learning experiences that are meaningful for all young children, including those with diverse abilities. Using these principles, early childhood educators can design learning environments that are responsive to all young children's abilities, needs, and interests. By creating learning experiences that reflect a belief in multiple styles of learning, early childhood

educators can effectively differentiate instruction and offer a variety of ways for children to represent their learning by also accomodating and modifying according to their needs. This child-centered approach to learning promotes the inclusion of all young children in the early childhood classroom.

DRAFT

Key 6 - Communication

In the world of the school, open and clear communication is of the utmost importance; for the teacher, the parents and the child. School and parents need each other for successful education. Furthermore, personal contact between teachers and parents is important and contributes to the school culture.

This chapter will first describe the communication process, then the competencies a teacher needs to communicate in a professional way with children and parents is touched upon. Next, the communication with children is discussed and the last part is concerned with the communication with parents.

1. The process of communication

A constructive communication is vital when teachers, parents and children want to work together in a cooperative manner (Bolks, 2011).

In the cooperation between school and parents (children) messages are constantly transferred and received. There is always an interaction between two or more persons, in this case between a teacher and (a) parent (child).

Communication is influenced by many factors; by the relationship of the participants, by the mood of the participants, by the particular person who is speaking, or by the time of the day. It involves a direct interaction between people, where fast feedback is possible. The receiver sends a message back, the transmitter is recipient, and then responds, and so on. Sometimes the teacher is transmitter, other times the parent (child). The different aspects of the communication process are shown in Figure 1.1.

The model highlights the complexity of the process.

Figure 1.1: The communication process



source: www.bayridgecounsellingcentres.ca

1.1. How does a teacher ensure constructive communication?

She¹ needs to be aware of her reaction in all kind of situations, but especially in situations that involves parents and children.

American psychologist Timothy Leary observed interactions between people and he discovered all kinds of patterns. He developed a rose, "Leary's Rose" (Figure 1.2). This model can be used to make

¹ She can also be a he.

professionals more aware of their attitudes and communication styles when negotiating and provide them with a tool to improve communication by modifying their natural responses. (Susilo et al, 2013) The assumption behind this tool is that the default reaction we intuitively choose is not always the most effective. Becoming aware of this default reaction makes it possible to choose to behave differently, in a more effective way. This model can be used in all kind of interactions and ways of communication.

Using this model it is always possible to determine where a teacher is exactly in relation to the parent or child.

Figure 1.2: Leary's Rose



Source: <http://www.go4it-po.nl/joomla/de-producten/persoonlijkheidstesten/de-roos-van-leary/21-de-roos-van-leary>

The behaviour characterized by power is shown in the upper half of the circle, whereas the lower half represents powerlessness or frustration. On the horizontal axis, the right side relates to affinity and sympathy, while the left side is characterised by behaviour lacking affinity and sympathy.

The model contains 8 segments. Clockwise they are the following:

1. Above-Together (AT): power and cooperation (leading). This is sympathetic leadership with charisma.
2. Together-Above (TA): cooperation and power (helping). This is the informal leadership, with a lot of care for participation.
3. Together-Below (TB): cooperation and weakness / incapability. This is the real team-spirit: making sure together that the job is done.
4. Below-Together (BT): helplessness and cooperation (dependent). This is the behaviour of following instructions and being constructive.
5. Below-Against (BA): helplessness and obstructionism (distrust). This is wait-and-see, withdrawn and apathetic behaviour.
6. Against-Below (AB): obstructionism and helplessness (insurrectional). This is behaviour characterised by dissatisfaction, resistance and opposition.
7. Against-Above (AgA): obstructionism and power (aggressive). This is aggressive and

overpowering behaviour.

8. Above-Against (AAG): power and obstructionism (competitive). This is leading, business-like and confident behaviour, but lacks the sympathetic side of AT

A good interlocutor will be able to recognise this process and may use several of the segments during conversation. Whereas people may prefer certain segments of the circle it is not a personality typology.

You may be able to predict what the behaviour of someone will be when confronted with certain behaviour:

Together will provoke Together
Against will provoke Against
Above will provoke Below
Below will provoke Above

By making use of the Rose of Leary, it is possible to influence the communication. If the teacher is stuck in communicating with a parent (or child) he can take various actions to make changes.

1.2. Emotional Intelligence

Another way to come to constructive communication is by the five components of Emotional Intelligence (Goleman, 1996).

Coleman delineates five components of "Emotional Intelligence", crucial skills by which he shows how they determine our success in relationships, work, and even our physical well-being.

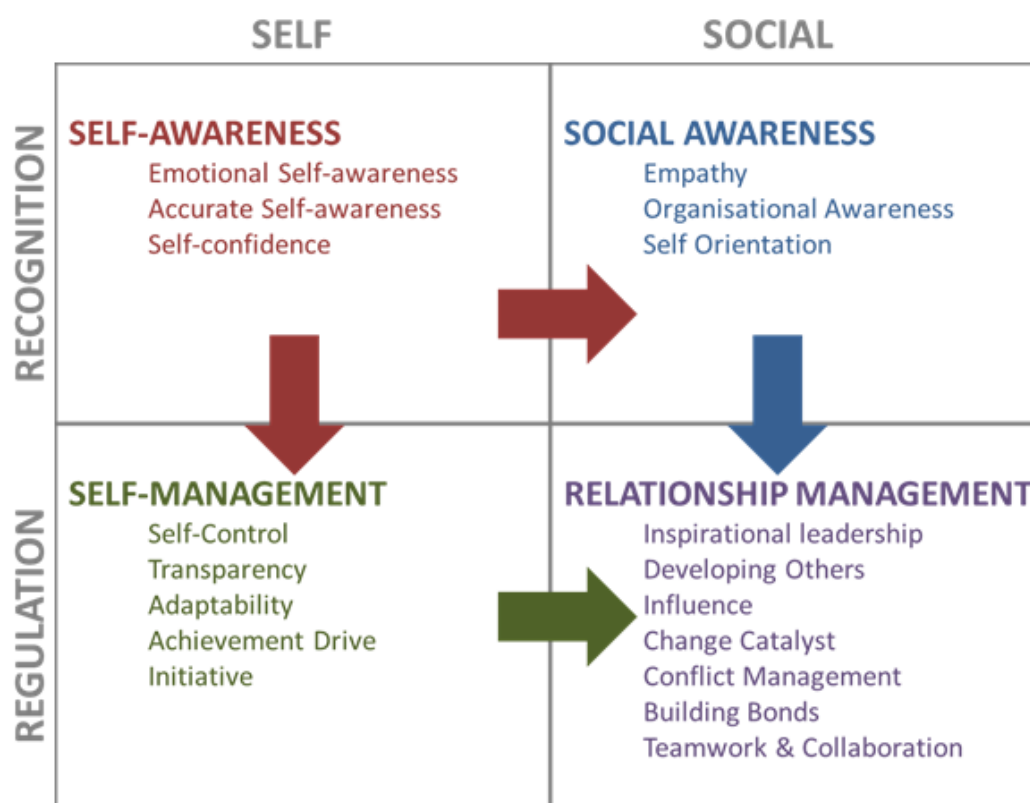
"Emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth."

The five components are:

- Self-awareness. The ability to recognize and understand personal moods and emotions and drives, as well as their effect on others.
- Self-regulation. The ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods, and the propensity to suspend judgment and to think before acting.
- Internal motivation. A passion to work for internal reasons that go beyond money and status -which are external rewards, - such as an inner vision of what is important in life, a joy in doing something, curiosity in learning, a flow that comes with being immersed in an activity.
- Empathy. The ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people. A skill in treating people according to their emotional reactions. In an educational context, empathy is often thought to include, or lead to, sympathy, which implies concern, or care or a wish to soften negative emotions or experiences in others.
- Social skills. Proficiency in managing relationships and building networks, and an ability to find common ground and build rapport.

In figure 1.3 there is an overview of the five components of this compelling vision of human possibility to make communication and relationship insightful.

Figure 1.3: Communication and relationship



Source: based on Goleman (1996)

2. The teacher and competencies

A primary school teacher has to know, and be able to do, a lot of things. Also, a certain aptitude or education is required.

This aptitude, knowledge and skills lie in the field of competencies. In the interpersonal, pedagogical, professionally and organizationally field she must have certain qualities.

For example, she should be able to make good contact with the children in her class and communicate in a proper way with them. Offer them a safe learning environment and be able to facilitate good intrinsic activities or lessons, in order to help children develop fully. She should be able to work in a cooperative way with peers and in the environment of the school. This competence includes communicating with parents.

Reflection and development are competencies needed to express her views about her profession, which will be a continuous, developing process; she will continue to reflect and continuously develop.

Working and communicating with children and parents is another important skill for teachers to develop continuously.

A teacher must know where she stands, where she goes in her teaching profession, what her values, standards and educational principles are based on (Jutten, 2015).

Jutten (2015) describes eight basic skills for communication:

a. Contact for contract

If the teacher starts with a conversation, it is important that there is an atmosphere of safety and trust. She makes real contact with the other person before she moves on to the content: sets the other at ease, lets them know that she's there for them. This can be for example briefly asking "How are you?" Often, a look or a welcoming attitude is enough.

For *example*: You have a parent meeting. One parent comes in for an interview and she/he has come by bike is all wet with the rain. If you then start immediately talking about her son Pete and how he is currently doing at school, you do not adhere to this important principle.

Make her/ him feel comfortable.

b. Authenticity

In a good conversation the teacher should acknowledge interest in the other person. She has to try to understand the other, have real interest in the other(s) and allows the other to notice it in a verbal and non-verbal way.

c. Shift in perception

In a conversation, a teacher constantly shifts her concentration. She makes a shift in her perception: sometimes she is at the other, then back to herself, at other times she steps 'in conversation' and looks at it from both points of view (thought processes during the conversation), what happens here between us? Why isn't this talk going on? How do we get out of here together?

In practice, the teacher often uses this moment, in which the other is speaking, to think about what she is going to say.

d. Active listening

Listening to someone is not something passive, but an activity. It has everything to do with the swing of perceptions: are we able to stay with the other? Do we really try to understand the other? Active listening requires empathy, patience, calm, properly handle pauses in conversation.

The point is to decipher the message that is conveyed, to discover its meaning and to check if that what you understood is correct without involving a judgment, opinion or recommendation to pronounce.

To decipher the message correctly, prejudices and personal interpretations need to be suppressed as much as possible, however difficult that may be. Additionally, you have to look closely to the signals given. Dijk (2009) states that there are at least two channels of communication; the verbal and non-verbal channel. The non-verbal channel is everything we convey with body language – gestures, eye contact, touch, facial expression etc., - and the sound, the melody of the words. In many conversations, interviews the non-verbal communication aspect will play an important role. It must be congruent with the content of the verbal message. If it doesn't then confusion will arise at the relational level. The non-verbal signals need to correspond with the verbal signals. Communication benefits from congruent message. Without congruence there will be confusion.

Active listening helps to make a good atmosphere during the interview and also helps to discover feelings. By asking questions, the other person can analyse and solve problems by himself. The simplest and most important rule in listening is to: stop talking!

e. Asking questions

Asking good questions has a double meaning in an interview:

For the questioner it delivers more information, to understand the other person better, what the problem is, and how they experience things.

By asking good questions, however, you not only help yourself, but also the other: he is forced to think, to reflect, to organize thoughts and feelings.

Various types of questions are distinguished:

Closed questions: here few answers are possible, e.g. 'Yes or no'.

Open questions: these provide the interviewer and the other with the most information.

Chain questions: ask several questions in sequence; they often arise from impatience.

Suggestive questions: the answer is as it were 'hidden' in the question

Choice questions: these questions must be selected from some alternatives you offer.

Open questions generate a lot. Asking open questions and then pausing for a moment, ensures so that the other person feels invited to speak. A single open question is thereby not enough, ask multiple questions and respond to what the other says. If you are unsure whether the other wants to say something, ask them and also respect any refusal to talk.

Good questions often include a large part of the solution.

You can also pay attention to the content of the question. Several distinct types of questions you can ask: ask for facts, ask for opinions, ask about feelings and ask about values.

f. Reluctance with solutions

In education we are used to helping others, to advise them and to solve problems (for others). In an interview we often have the tendency to give others advice and what they should do. Even without the request of the other person. In many cases this is not the most appropriate approach; the other does not feel taken seriously, or the 'solutions' are appropriate for you, but not for the other person. If you are not sure if the other would like suggestions for a solution, ask him: what do you expect in this conversation with me?

g. Various conversation interventions

The way the interview is conducted, among other things depends on the accents that are put into the interview but above all on the atmosphere. The accents are determined by the emphasis they wish to impose on the content, the process, the interaction between the people involved or the feelings of those involved. An action, which is grafted on one from the foregoing aspects, is called a conversation intervention.

We distinguish the following four types of interview interventions:

1. Content intervention. This is most common intervention. Here we often remain suspended.
Some examples of questions:
 - How is it going with the new approach?
 - Where are the bottlenecks?
 - I will explain to you how this could happen.
2. Procedure intervention. Something about the procedure has to be told. Some examples:
 - We now have little time. Shall we meet again and calmly talk about it?
 - Shouldn't the parents be present at this meeting?

- Are there any other issues to be addressed?
- 3. Interaction intervention. Expressing what is going on between the interlocutors. Some examples:
 - You aren't saying anything? Why's that?
 - I have the impression that we are talking past one another?
- 4. Feelings intervention. Feelings of the interlocutors may be expressed during the interview. Some examples:
 - I notice that you are concerned?
 - What is it that makes you so irritated?
 - I'm disappointed with your view.

An interview will effectively expire when all four possibilities of response are involved in the conversation.

3. Communication with children

The teacher provides appropriate education and thus provides a crucial contribution to the positive development of children. She is the linchpin in appropriate education. Inside the school she is the most important factor which influences the children. She can adapt to differences between pupils and teaches accordingly. She may increase the wellbeing of children in school significantly. A strong teacher is effective for all pupils, whatever their characteristics. With an effective teacher, the school performance of its students is much more forward than with an ineffective teacher. When combining the quality of schools with the qualities of teachers Marzano (2007) observed a big difference in school performance over a period of two years. This difference is measured with points, with 50 points being the average. A student at the least effective school with the least effective teacher only improves 3 points. While a student at the most effective school with the most effective teacher improves 96 points (Marzano, 2007 in Jones & Jones 2013). The impact of a teacher is thus relevant.

Communication with children should be an integral part of the speaking opportunities of a teacher; conversations at both group and the individual level.

General.

Communication with children is an integral part of a teacher's day. In conversations with groups or with individual children, the teacher tries to get insight into how children are learning, what they have already mastered and what is needed, what strategies they use to apply and which helps them during instruction and independent (collaborate) work and play.

By conducting interviews with children and involving them actively in their own development, they learn to think critically, they experience playing and learning at school as meaningful and their well-being will increase.

Many children appear to be able to identify their own educational needs well.

They can indicate how they experience a difficult situation, how it is, according to them and how to solve it. It is their perception, opinion and ideas.

This information is valuable for an understanding of a problem or situation, and then come up together with what might be an effective approach.

Specific.

Giving children a voice and allowing children's views will be beneficial for the teacher. They can provide valuable feedback to the teacher; what the teacher is doing well and what could she have done better?

A child will be also more committed to his own idea than the idea of another (teacher). There is increased involvement because the child feels responsible and has ownership

To find out the child's thoughts and ideas a personal conversation is necessary.

This requires a few things from a child; he can look at himself, can devise explanations and solutions and is motivated to do something about the situation.

Children have to have, to a greater or lesser extent, these skills.

Children prefer teachers who help create clear behaviour standards, use humour and calm responses when responding to classroom disruptions, and when appropriate, allow children an opportunity to explain their side of the story (Jones & Jones, 2013).

The teacher needs to listen and respond appropriately to a personal request for a conversation from a child. It requires the teacher's verbal skills: active listening, connecting to the language level, summarizing, questioning and taking into account the needs of the child.

The attitude of the teacher is also important. Warmth, patience, respect, authenticity, empathy and interest are necessary for a constructive conversation with a child.

Jones & Jones (2013) noted that empathic, non-evaluative listening involves providing the speaker with a sense that she has been clearly heard and that feelings expressed are acceptable.

Glaser (1988) noted that there are three levels at which children can satisfy their need for power of involvement in the school environment. First, children simply need to believe that someone whom they respect will listen to them. At the second level, someone listens and accepts the validity of the child's statement or concerns. The third and highest level involves an adult stating that the child's idea may be worth implementing (in Jones & Jones, 2013).

Conversations between teacher and child (ren) strengthen their relationship. It may be clear that active listening is one of the most important skills a teacher needs in communication with children. Next to listening the teacher should also match the way young children learn; which can often mean through play.

Delfos (2008) says talking with children from four to six years and interviewing them should take place while playing, which combines play and talk. The teacher should try to join the activity in which the child is doing or initiating a new activity, the teacher needs to hold short conversations of ten to fifteen minutes verbally alternating with play to make the interview in total longer. The teacher should use nonverbal forms of play, stories and making phrases. They should not sit still too long, as it can create tension. Exercise and movement reduces the stress element involved

Also Baarda (2012) says that conversations with young children are often unnatural. A child will not (often) ask for an interview. If the teacher suspects that a child has problems he should be extra alert to carry on a conversation in a fun, child-friendly and creative way.

Being creative by deploying tools; drawing pictures and doing something together is to communicate in a natural way that is appropriate for young children.

The termination or completion of a conversation deserves care.

At the end of a conversation, attention must be paid to questions and emotions that provoked the

interview. It is intended that the child closes the conversation with a positive feeling. If this is not adhered to, it will seem as if the talk is not finished (Delfos, 2008).

4. Communication with parents

The importance of good communication with parents is because of the fact that school and parents are inseparable. They belong together; a school cannot live without parents and parents not without a school. Parents and school “work” both with children and have a common interest: to create optimal conditions for the development and learning of children (Pameijer et al. 2009).

School and parents need each other for successful education.

Good communication between school and parents increases social-emotional functioning, and the academic performance of children.

Children learn better and feel happy at school when their parents feel involved in the school.

Personal contact between the teacher and the parents is crucial.

Good communication also contributes to a school culture in which teachers and parents stand side by side. This is beneficial for the job satisfaction of teachers and the confidence of parents in the school.

Also in the context of appropriate education, parental involvement is relevant. One of the goals of this policy is to strengthen the position of parents in shaping the education and care arrangement for their child.

Parent involvement ensures a collective responsibility and therefore suitable education can be realized

A teacher who has mastered communication skills of the Rose of Leary, Emotional Intelligent or the basic skills of Jutten, can make parents feel themselves taken seriously and make sure there won't be any misunderstanding.

A short summary:

- A positive attitude is very important. The teacher sees parents not as a threat but as a partner who can make a valuable contribution.
- The teacher tries to put herself in the position of parents.
- The teacher indicates that she is sincerely interested in the parents.
- The teacher shows appreciation for the efforts of parents.
- It is important that a teacher dares to ask and has difficult conversations sometimes, because it provides clarity for school and the parents.
- The teacher expresses her expectations of the parents and asks about their expectations of school.
- The teacher must be reliable and transparent. That means, among other things, that she fulfills agreements and that she admits honestly if something went wrong.

In addition, openness in the team is important. The teacher must be open and honest with their colleagues in the things that go well and not go well. Parents feel it when there is mistrust and unrest in the team (Pamijer, Beukering and Lange, 2009).

If the teacher applies interview techniques described above, the chances of a good communication are high, yet it does not mean that all communication with parents will take place in a pleasant and constructive way. The teacher will also conduct difficult conversations. These discussions provide pre-tension. For this there could be many reasons: one reason might be that she feels insecure about her expertise in relation to the problem of the child. The tension then has mainly to do with the content level of the communication. It may also be that she looks up to the parent with whom she enters into the conversation. The tension then has especially to do with the relation level of the communication. And thus there are more reasons why the teacher fears the conversation. If there is a conflict, that really cannot be avoided, she should do something with it.

In all cases, the basis of trust will be decisive. The established relationship will have a great influence on the course of the conversation. Together you have a common interest, which is to promote the development of the child. The teacher should assist where possible. Teacher and parent have their own role and responsibility and are both involved (Bolks, 2011).

In every instance, the established relationship will have a great influence on the course of the conversation. Parent and teacher have a common interest which is to enhance the development of the child. It is for this reason that the teacher and parent should communicate effectively and both parties be responsible and involved. It is the teacher's responsibility however, to use and develop skills and techniques to ensure the most effective communication for all.

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