Vilma Žydžiūnaitė

Teacher Leadership in School for Student Learning

Experiences of Lithuanian Teachers

k linkhardt

Žydžiūnaitė

Teacher Leadership in School for Student Learning

Reviewers

Prof. Dr. Vidmantas Tūtlys (Social sciences, Education science, Educational research Institute & Department of Education Management and Policy, Education Academy, Vytautas Magnus University, Kaunas, Lithuania)

Prof. Dr. Aušra Rutkienė (Social sciences, Education science, Department of Education Management and Policy, Education Academy, Vytautas Magnus University, Kaunas, Lithuania)

Prof. Dr. Rita Vaičekauskaitė (Social sciences, Education science, Department of Social Work, Faculty of Health Sciences, Klaipėda University, Klaipėda, Lithuania)

Prof. Dr. Jolanta Urbanovič (Social sciences, Public Administration science, Institute of Public Administration, Mykolas Romeris University, Vilnius, Lithuania)

The monograph was recommended for publication by the Council of the Education Academy of Vytautas Magnus University (Resolution 2024-12-04, No. ŠA-TA-PR-09).

Vilma Žydžiūnaitė

Teacher Leadership in School for Student Learning

Experiences of Lithuanian Teachers

Verlag Julius Klinkhardt Bad Heilbrunn • 2025



The publication of the monograph was financially supported by the Educational Research Institute / Academy of Education, Vytautas Magnus University, Kaunas, Lithuania.

Impressum

Dieser Titel wurde in das Programm des Verlages mittels eines Peer-Review-Verfahrens aufgenommen. Für weitere Informationen siehe www.klinkhardt.de.

Bibliografische Information der Deutschen Nationalbibliothek. Die Deutsche Nationalbibliothek verzeichnet diese Publikation in der Deutschen Nationalbibliografie; detaillierte bibliografische Daten sind im Internet abrufbar über http://dnb.d-nb.de.

2025. Verlag Julius Klinkhardt.

Julius Klinkhardt GmbH & Co. KG, Ramsauer Weg 5, 83670 Bad Heilbrunn, vertrieb@klinkhardt.de.

Druck und Bindung: AZ Druck und Datentechnik, Kempten. Printed in Germany 2025. Gedruckt auf chlorfrei gebleichtem alterungsbeständigem Papier.



Das Werk einschließlich aller seiner Teile ist urheberrechtlich geschützt. Die Publikation (mit Ausnahme aller Fotos, Grafiken und Abbildungen) ist veröffentlicht unter der Creative Commons-Lizenz: CC BY-ND 4.0 International https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nd/4.0/

ISBN 978-3-7815-6168-7 digital ISBN 978-3-7815-2708-9 print doi.org/10.35468/6168

Contents

Preface	
Introduction11	
1	Teacher Leadership Experience At School23
2	Teacher Personal Leadership While Cooperating With The School Community
3	Teacher Leadership Within The School Community71
4	Teacher Creative Leadership For Development Of Student Creativity
5	Servant Leadership Of A Teacher Through Caring Support For Students
6	Teacher Leadership In Helping Students To Discover Their Self-Expression Through/In Learning
7	Teacher Leadership In Creating Opportunities For Students To Implement Their Ideas For Better Learning Achievements
8	Teacher Leadership While Supporting Students To Create Meaning Of Learning160
9	Teacher Leadership In Promoting Student Motivation To Learn181

Preface

The phenomenon of teacher leadership is not new, but at the same time it is new because it does not yet have a unified description, definition, or explanation. There are more unifying moments than dividig ones when we compare the leadership experiences of teachers from different countries in an international context, but still the scientific community in the world does not want to limit and adhere to a strict operational definition when describing and studying the experiences of teachers.

Teacher leadership is associated with courage, determination, creativity, initiation, uniqueness, sociability, intelligence, communication, empathy, accountability, understanding, openness, and honesty. Leadership is impossible without the teacher's ability to influence students, colleagues and the school community, the ability to bring students together and lead teaching through their learning, the ability to motivate students to learn, the ability to support students in creating an authentic meaning of learning, revealing the potential of students' creativity. Leadership is limited if the teacher does not implement service through his/her profession, does not feel the pulse of the school community. Hence, the teacher implements leadership by him/herself, through him/herself and without thinking that it is leadership: the teacher just doing his/her job to the best of their ability and being empathetic to seemingly insignificant things, such as students' and personal moods, emotions, feelings, and immediate experience of social environments. It means that the teacher, devoting him/herself to the students, does not forget him/herself. This is important for a leader. Internal harmony is related to the success of students in teaching and learning.

Why do I keep working on the phenomenon of leadership in education? I started the research on leadership with the concept of the 'intellectual leadership' of a scientist. Later, I studied school administration leadership and teacher leadership: this monograph is my second book on teacher leadership, which to me is an interesting phenomenon that does not have a definitive answer. Research data and results (especially qualitative ones) show that teacher leadership does not concentrate on particular types or styles. Non-leadership types or styles are the essence of teacher leadership. Teacher leadership is about professional life in the school and for the school, with students and for students, with fellow teachers and the school community. The endless search is for balance. Teachers play many roles on a daily basis, and each one overlaps, so there are not very clear boundaries between them. It would seem that teachers are performing all the roles at the same time.

Professional passion for what one does, i.e. endless enthusiasm, optimism, dedication to the profession and students, continuous learning, conscious professional action and reflection when raising questions – these aspects are of great importance in a teacher's leadership. For me, a teacher leader is related to maturity of personality, knowing what the teacher wants from him/herself, in the context of students' learning of the subject: i.e. a teacher who realises that his/her educational subject is his/her home, and that students are invited to that home to work, to cooperate together, but not to destroy and form their own rules, which the teacher must follow. For me, a teacher leader is a brave person who has clear values related to teaching and learning, and therefore forms the students' awareness that the school is not a 'concert of wishes'.

In the school, the expert, the key actor, is the teacher, who knows where, why and in what ways he/she guides the students through the labyrinths of the learning subject in order to reach the learning goals and results, so as to achieve them together. To me, a teacher leader is a dignified professional who does not shy away from participating in decision-making and does not give in to popular opinion because the students will all do exactly the same when they see it. You can't hide it. For me, the teacher's leadership is the daily work of Sisyphus – rolling a professional stone up the hill, which does not become more difficult, but becomes easier, because students, while learning consciously, motivated and meaningfully, share the joy of teaching with the teacher, and the target of knowledge is found both in breadth and depth.

The aim of this monograph is not to compile existing ideas, attitudes and results accumulated in the international scientific space. The purpose of this book is to reflect the experience of teacher leadership in the authentic context of Lithuanian education, realising that teacher leadership in school is primarily in the name of student learning. One might ask, 'what's new here'? What is new is that the content of the book was not borne from theory, but from empiricism. Empirical results 'dictated' the content of the book with nine parts, which show the reader the teacher leadership experience in the school and the school community. Teachers share their experiences of individual, creative and servant leadership; leadership in helping students express themselves, creating opportunities for students to implement their ideas in the name of better learning achievements, supporting teacher leadership in creating meaningful learning for students and strengthening students' motivation to learn. This is empirical evidence that the essential vector of teacher leadership is student learning. The book is written in a reader-friendly style, so that there is no overload of scientific citations, and the main focus is on the description and reflections of teachers' experiences. I am fascinated by the most read books of American scientists, which they write based on their research, but provide the text as a pleasant daily reading. Based on the best examples, and not ignoring academic precision, I tried to combine both literary and academic styles in this book. After each chapter, a list of literature is presented, which shows that I did not ignore scientific thought in the international context, and the data was collected and analysed based on a specific research methodology, about which, as well as the entire essence of the research process, I provide information in the introduction of the monograph.

I hope that this monograph will contribute to public understanding, perception and attitudes about the daily leadership of a teacher in a school.

Sincerely yours,

Vilma Žydžiūnaitė

Introduction

Since the 1980s, teacher leadership has become a topic of growing interest in educational research (Nguyen et al., 2020; Pan et al., 2023; Schott et al., 2020). Teacher leadership refers to a teacher's (self)empowerment to take responsibility in the classroom and beyond; to add value to the professional community of teachers; to influence students, fellow teachers and the school community toward educational practices (Sebastian et al., 2017); and to enhance teaching and learning (Crowther et al., 2009). The influence between teacher and student is reciprocal: it is the teacher who leads in creating the educational interactions with the student as an educational alliance for learning (Lumpkin et al., 2014).

Teacher leadership is connected to professional satisfaction, personal and professional development, student motivation for learning and their academic outcomes (Pan et al., 2023; Schott et al., 2020). Leadership in teaching means a teacher's capability to create an educational relationship with students for their learning, and is interconnected with students' academic motivation to learn (Trigueros et al., 2020), their emotional wellbeing (Furrer & Skinner, 2003), academic success (Pekrun et al., 2017) and exercising virtues (Vander-Weele, 2017).

Teacher leadership once referred to teachers designated as 'manager' in such formal roles as department chair, headteacher, member of advisory board, or union representative (Silva, Gimbert, & Nolan, 2000). Since the 1980s, teacher leadership has become less about sharing managerial responsibilities and more about sharing responsibility for making change. The value of professionalism, collegiality and new opportunities for the exercise of teacher leadership became one of focus on educational practice (Lovett, 2018). This development of teacher leadership in educational practice has led to a proliferation of related research (Shen et al., 2020).

Teacher leadership includes a variety of dimensions: coordination, curriculum work, professional development, participation in school change/improvement, community involvement (Harris & Muijs, 2004; York-Barr & Duke, 2004); engaging in learning about his/her practices, experimenting, sharing ideas and learning, mentoring, coaching other teachers, collaborating and reflecting together on collective work, engaging in collective school-wide improvement, and sharing work outside of school/in professional organisations (Fairman & Mackenzie, 2012). Most of the research on teacher leadership in the world and nationally focuses on leadership styles, personal characteristics, and the relationship with students' learning motivation. However, there is still a lack of research and literature related to the impact of teacher leadership on student learning, detailing the specifics of such a relationship from a content point of view.

However, no researcher studying the phenomenon of teacher leadership doubts that it can play a highly significant – and frequently underestimated – role in improving student learning. Specifically, the available evidence about the size and nature of the effects of successful leadership on student learning justifies two assumptions: teacher leadership contributes to what students learn at school, and its effects are usually largest where and when they are needed most (Leithwood et al., 2004). Even these assumptions, which are based on research results, do not reveal the details of the content of the relationship between teacher leadership and student learning. Therefore, the research presented in this monograph fills this empty research space with research evidence-based content.

The aim of research represented in this monograph was to explore and describe the school teachers' leadership experiences with the focus for students' learning.

Research questions in the study were the following:

- What are teachers' leadership experiences for student learning at school and within the school community?
- What does teacher personal leadership include, and how is teacher leadership related to helping students to discover their self-expression through/ in learning?
- What is the impact of teacher leadership in creating opportunities for students to implement their ideas for higher learning achievements?
- How does teacher leadership influence the students' potential to create the meaning of learning?
- What is the role of teacher leadership in promoting students' motivation to learn?

All findings emerged from semi-structured interviews, which were implemented with a sample of 49 teachers who participated in interviews within the qualitative study.

The author of this book in qualitative study looked for participants who have shared an experience, but vary in characteristics and in their individual experiences (Palinkas et al., 2016). In qualitative study, the researcher is not concerned with the quantitative balance between the characteristics of the study participants (Guetterman, 2015). This means that the study did not aim to include an equal number of teachers according to their work in primary or secondary school(s). The researchers did not aim to classify teachers according to whether they work with primary school, secondary school, or gymnasium students. This study aimed to describe teacher leadership for student learning. Teacher leadership and student learning in this study are not related to school type or other characteristics. An essential criterion for participation in the study was to work as a schoolteacher for at least 3 years.

A total of 49 teachers were interviewed. Characteristics of research participants were as follows: age (24–62 years), gender (15 men, 34 women), work experience (1–48 years (average 21.8 years)),

education (tertiary level: 26 university graduates with bachelor's degrees; 17 graduates of pedagogical studies; 6 graduates of studies in other fields (law, ethno-culture, theology, history, physics); and subject (each teacher taught several subjects at school).

The following subjects were taught: foreign languages (4), history (5), Lithuanian language and literature (6), primary education (6), physics (4), mathematics (5), IT (4), philosophy (3), basics of citizenship (2), biology (3), physical education (2), geography (3) and economics (2).

In-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted in the present study. Thus, the researcher had no predetermined set of questions. The research participants were encouraged to talk about areas of particular interest to the researcher and the study. These were very general, or even quite vague at the outset. I let the participants speak freely and responded to what was said to continue the interview. This research also entailed asking the participants to set aside their experiences about teacher leadership for student learning at school, and to share their reflections on the *value* of being a teacher leader for students' learning. Data collection was conducted by directing the research participants to describe their experience using their own authentic language, free from pre-existing intellectual and societal conditions.

In this study, I used the following approaches to plan for and conduct the semi-structured interviews (Jamshed, 2014):

- 1. Preparing for the interview: I wrote down what information I wished to obtain. I did this by reviewing past observations and identifying gaps in the information. I reflected on the areas I needed the participants to elaborate upon.
- 2. Writing a guide: once I had an idea of what questions I needed to be answered, I wrote a guide that included key topics and questions. Since the interviews were not formal, I knew that they did not have to rigidly adhere

to the guide. I decided to approach specific research participants according to a unified list of topics and questions.

- 3. Introducing the self and building a rapport: once the interviewee had joined the interview, I introduced myself, became comfortable with the participant, and explained the purpose of the interview. This included presenting topics they planned to cover during the interview.
- 4. Starting with simple questions and transitioning to specific questions: the specific questions arose when research participants were discussing their experiences.
- 5. Being mindful of interview questions: asking the right types of questions was vital to facilitate the success of the interviews. I ensured that their questions were open-ended, and they avoided leading questions.
- 6. Recording and transcribing the interviews: this involved listening to the audio files and typing out the spoken words. I used a text editor to transcribe the interviews manually. This required strong listening skills, a rapid typing speed, and attention to details.

All interviews were conducted in an online format. The specific date and time of the interviews with each study participant were agreed upon individually. The duration of the interviews varied, from a minimum of 64 min to a maximum of 203 min. All interviews were recorded. Each interview was transcribed and analysed consistently one after the other so that new details were not missed and to ensure the implementation of the principle of theoretical saturation in a transparent manner. A total of 49 interviews were conducted, with no new details emerging in the last interview.

Data analysis was performed by using latent qualitative content analysis. Content analysis rests on the assumption that texts are a rich data source with great potential to reveal valuable information about particular phenomena (Kondracki et al., 2002). It is the process of considering both the participant and context when sorting text into groups of related categories to identify similarities and differences, patterns, and associations, both on the surface and implied within (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Julien, 2008; Graneheim et al., 2017). Latent content analysis is defined as interpreting what is hidden deep within the text. In this method, the role of the researcher is to discover the implied meaning in participants' experiences (Kondracki et al., 2002; Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). Latent content analysis acknowledges that the researcher is intimately involved in the analytical process and that their role is to actively use mental schema, theories, and lenses to interpret and understand the data (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Latent analysis underscores the importance of the researcher co-creating meaning with the text. Latent content analysis seeks to establish characteristics in the text itself (Kleinheksel et al., 2020). In this study, latent content analysis was applied. Latent content analysis leverages the researcher's own interpretations of the meaning of the text. This methodological approach relies on codes that emerge from the content using the researcher's own perspectives and mental schema, the distinction between these two types of analyses being in their foci (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999). Categories and subcategories are the currency of latent content analysis (Kleinheksel et al., 2020). So, I used the categories to organise and understand the data. Through developing the structure of categories with their content of subcategories process, the data were systematically and rigorously categorised and interpreted. Categories themselves were descriptive labels that symbolically assigned a summative/salient attribute to more than one unit of meaning identified in the text (Saldana, 2009).

The process of qualitative latent content analysis consisted of three phases (Elo et al., 2014):

- Preparation phase (choosing the data collection method, deciding on sampling method and research participants, selecting the unit of analysis).
- Organisation phase (categorisation and abstraction of the data, interpreting the results, checking for representativeness and trustworthiness).
- Reporting phase (reporting results and analysis process).

The result of the research represented in this monograph offers an understanding of teacher leadership from the teacher's point of view. For teachers, their leadership experience at school means understanding the impact of the school environment and to be able to adapt and manage the processes, remaining professional and being able to manage students and classes with behavioural difficulties, understanding the organisational context of the school community in which the teacher has to work and be able to remain dignified in that environment, taking responsibility for the students' learning results, contributing to the development of students' autonomy and self-reliance through conscious and meaningful learning, cultivating students' creativity with non-traditional tasks, reflecting on one's professional limitations and empowering oneself to reduce them, and finding positivity in professional life and using the own experience for professional and personal growth. These findings reflect that teachers see themselves in the context of the school, and take responsibility for students' growth, development, autonomy, awareness in learning and their academic learning outcomes, as they see their leadership role as essential in imparting to students their learning experiences and positive attitudes towards life, learning, professional and personal growth. Teachers see meaning in students' purposeful learning and learning to be reflective in every learning discipline.

Teachers in the research shared their experiences regarding their personal leadership, which they implement through cooperation with school community, peer support among teachers, learning communion of teachers and students in the classroom, and support of the school administration for the implementation of teacher personal leadership. Findings showed that teachers' cooperation with students and fellow teachers, and support of school administration are key factors for successful and meaningful implementation of teacher leadership at school.

Teachers shared experiences about their creative leadership at school and in a classroom. According to the teachers, there are two directions of teacher leadership based on creativity – one is directed to the students and the other is directed to oneself as continuous improvement. Teachers consider the development of student creativity as one of the goals of teaching, which they promote by applying specific teaching methods and being effective as a result: giving to the students tasks and the time to create projects and present them in a class, focusing students to work in groups or teams, forming practical tasks for students, involving them in extracurricular activities, applying innovative technology tools in the lessons and thereby attracting students to learning, integrating their experiences into the lessons and teaching the subject of the lesson based on them, encouraging students' imagination, regardless of the educational subject or topic. Teachers associate their creativity in leadership with adaptability: though adapting to the student's learning abilities and to the context, and the situation in the classroom promptly, 'here and now'.

Teachers in the research do speak about 'servant' leadership, which they implement in everyday professional practices. In the study, servant leadership for teachers means caring support for students, professional conscientiousness when working with (un)motivated students, collective classroom learning community formation through teacher and student empowerment, teacher self-esteem, responsible student care, and professional commitment. The teacher's caring support is manifested in efforts to inspire students with a positive attitude towards the success of conscious learning and to strengthen self-esteem. The collective formation of a learning community in the classroom occurs when the teacher and students recognise that they are learning from each other, i.e. implementing an equal learning partnership between teacher and students. Teachers experience servant leadership through professional dutifulness when working with unmotivated students, as it is necessary to 'employ' willpower and patience. Meanwhile, when working with motivated students, they experience psychological comfort and professional pleasure. Professional commitment to teachers and the teaching profession is integral to their servant leadership. Professional commitment of teachers is experienced by unconditional sacrifice to the profession. Regardless of the complexity of the professional activity, teachers experience professional satisfaction, which allows them to experience professional dedication. Servant leadership provides opportunities for teachers to experience professional self-esteem related to fellow teachers expressing their opinions and attitudes to each other, focusing on the well-being of students and strengthening student-to-student communication.

Research participants – teachers – recognise their leadership in helping students to discover their self-expression through/in learning. 'Discovering' students' self-expression is action-based, by encouraging them to cooperate for development of their empathy through helping each other and their abilities to solve problems, and discuss; having multifaceted dialogue in a classroom with students by raising questions, searching for common solutions; supporting the implementation of reciprocal feedback about lessons, teaching and learning, and encouraging students to express their opinions openly; applying a diversity of teaching methods integrating technology in developing students' creativity and encouraging students to speak by asking questions; keeping the line of teacher-student partnership in a classroom by making it possible for the students to propose ideas and implement them in the classroom, and creating an atmosphere of equal relations in the classroom; using shared leadership with students and implementing the learning quality through promoting the competition of students' learning and adapting to their abilities.

Teachers in this study reported about their leadership in creating opportunities for students to implement their ideas for better learning achievements. This leadership is related to the following aspects: i) teacher expertise by inspiring students to help teach other, distributing tasks in the classroom in a differentiated manner and applying inclusive teaching/learning methods in organising classroom activities; ii) encouraging students' creativity by being open to their input, encouraging students to take responsibility for learning through developing their independence and creating opportunities for students to reveal their talents; iii) creating an atmosphere of openness, a culture of reflection and of equal discussion, and communication in the classroom.

Teachers discuss their leadership while supporting students to create meaning out of learning. This process they implement through teaching/learning co-creation, personalised student learning, teacher creativity and teachers' didactic accuracy. Teachers are not inclined to provide students with template examples nor insist on one correct solution. They are more inclined to encourage students to try and learn from mistakes, and discover for themselves what is important in a specific part of training, a specific topic, a specific task, etc. Teachers believe that personalised learning can be applied to any subject area and any language, and it works regardless of whether you are teaching children or adults. Teachers motivate students to learn through individualised assignments and help them to make/create sense of learning by working with students on personalised learning goals. Together with targeted knowledge and abilities, teachers develop students' general social abilities, thus contributing to the meaningfulness of students' learning. Teachers use contextual learning for students to help them experience and make sense of learning. Students are exposed to attractive learning tools and materials that are presented in an attractive way.

Teacher-participants in this study experience their leadership in promoting students' motivation to learn. Here encouragement plays an important role. Teachers need to encourage students' creativity as they learn to listen to each other's ideas, while providing them with opportunities to conduct experiments based on simulating realistic situations. Teachers should encourage students' learning to learn through self-selected tools for decision-making when performing tasks; students' courage in learning; students' curiosity to learn through the questions they ask the teacher and each other; while encouraging students to reflect on personal learning. The other important characteristic of teacher leadership is their capability to create an atmosphere in which students experience the joy of learning, as well as an atmosphere of experimentation in learning, open dialogue and safety, and the freedom of learning.

The research results showed that teacher leadership manifests itself in the relationship with the school community through organising events and targeted meetings, making daily efforts to create the strongest possible connection with the school community, being a leadership example, and thereby motivating the community. In teacher-student interaction, teacher leadership means cooperation and communication with students to create a culture of open, direct and respectful communication in the classroom, supporting students' initiatives and helping them to solve social and psychological problems. Teacher leadership for research participants is experienced through interactions with students' parents by involving them in the development of perceiving the meaning of learning through communication. Also, interactions between the teacher and fellow teachers manifest their leadership as teachers report that leadership from each teacher in the relationship with fellow teachers in the school is relevant when initiating agreements with colleagues. Teacher leadership is also manifested in mutual support and encouragement with fellow teachers.

The chapters of the book are in response to the raised research questions, so I do not present a separate section dedicated to the conclusions. Summaries are in each chapter, as the reader will find. I aimed to present the book in a reader-friendly style, so that the scientific academic text would be easy to read, engaging and motivating to read the book from beginning to the end.

There are not many publications in the world that emphasise teacher leadership for student learning. Therefore, the content of the monograph, based on the evidence of empirical research, helps to understand the uniqueness, innovativeness, contextuality, sensitivity, and authenticity of this connection. The book is valuable for teachers who are expert leaders in their daily practice, but who do not emphasise this to themselves, saying that they are doing ordinary practical work. Such an attitude will spread after reading the monograph, which contains plenty of evidence that the 'ordinary' work of teachers is multifaceted, complex and worthy of great public attention and respect. The book is useful for school leaders, who in their daily activities have to communicate and cooperate with teachers, support them, understand problems and solutions related to teaching, learning, professional development, activities in and outside the school, school representation, psychosocial well-being, professional training, image of the profession and prestige. The content of the book provides opportunities for students, their parents, and the public to understand the essence, mission, complexities, professional dedication, dignity and sacrifice of the teaching profession. Therefore, it is likely that the monograph will contribute to the change of public attitudes about the role of leadership in the teaching profession.

References

- Crowther, F., Ferguson, M., & Hann, L. (2009). Developing Teacher Leaders: How Teacher Leadership Enhances School Success. Thousand Oaks, California: Corwin Press.
- Elo, S., Kääriäinen, M., Kanste, O., Pölkki, T., Utriainen, K., & Kyngäs, H. (2014). Qualitative content analysis: a focus on trustworthiness. SAGE Open, January–March, 1–10. https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/2158244014522633 doi: 10.1177/2158244014522633
- Fairman, J. C., & Mackenzie, S. V. (2012). Spheres of teacher leadership action for learning. Professional Development in Education, 38(2), 229–246. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2012 .657865
- Furrer, C., & Skinner, E. (2003). Sense of relatedness as a factor in children's academic engagement and performance. Journal of Educational Psychology, 95(1), 148–162. https://doi. org/10.1037/0022-0663.95.1.148
- Graneheim, U. H., & Lundman, B. (2004). Qualitative content analysis in nursing research: concepts, procedures, and measures to achieve trustworthiness. Nurse Education Today, 24(2), 105–112. doi: 10.1016/j.nedt.2003.10.001
- Guetterman, T. (2015). Descriptions of sampling practices within five approaches to qualitative research in education and the health sciences. Educational Psychology Papers and Publications. No. 263. St, Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Lincoln.
- Harris, A., & Muijs, D. (2004). Improving Schools Through Teacher Leadership. Open University Press.
- Hsieh, H. F., & Shannon, S. E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. Qualitative Health Research, 15(9), 1277-1288. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732305276687

- Jalali, R. (2013). Qualitative research sampling. Journal of Qualitative Research in Health Sciences, 1, 310–320. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-5366-3.ch002
- Jamshed, S. (2014). Qualitative research method-interviewing and observation. Journal of Basic and Clinical Pharmacy, 5(4), 87–88. doi: 10.4103/0976-0105.141942.
- Julien, H. (2008). Content analysis. In: Given L. M., ed. The SAGE Encyclopedia of Qualitative Research Methods. Vol. 2. (pp. 121-123). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Kleinheksel, A. J., Rockich-Winston, N., Tawfik, H., & Wyatt, T. R. (2020). Demystifying content analysis. American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education, 84(1), 7113. doi: 10.5688/ajpe7113.
- Kleinheksel, A. J., Rockich-Winston, N., Tawfik, H., & Wyatt, T. R. (2020). Qualitative research in pharmacy education: demystifying content analysis. American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education, 84(1). Article 7113. doi: 10.5688/ajpe7113
- Kondracki, N. L., Wellman, N. S., & Amundson, D. R. (2002). Content analysis: review of methods and their applications in nutrition education. Journal of Nutrition Education and Behavior, 34(4), 224–230. doi: 10.1016/s1499-4046(06)60097-3
- Kvale, S., Marshall, C., Moustakas, C., Moustakas, C. E., Wronka, J., & Brinkmann, S. (2010). Designing Qualitative Research. London: Sage Publications.
- Leithwood, K., Seashore Louis, K., Anderson, S., & Wahlstrom, K. (2004). Review of research How leadership influences student learning. The Wallace Foundation, University of Minnesota, University of Toronto. https://wallacefoundation.org/sites/default/files/2023-07/How-Leadership-Influences-Student-Learning.pdf
- Lumpkin, A., Claxton, H., & Wilson, A. (2014). Key characteristics of teacher leaders in schools. Administrative Issues Journal, 4(2), 59-67. https://doi.org/10.5929/2014.4.2.8
- Nguyen, D., Harris, A., & Ng, D. (2020). A review of the empirical research on teacher leadership (2003–2017): Evidence, patterns and implications. Journal of Educational Administration, 58(1), 60–80. https://doi.org/10.1108/JEA-02-2018-0023
- Palinkas, L. A., Horwitz, S. M., Green, C. A., Wisdom, J. P., Duan, N., & Hoagwood, K. (2016). Purposeful sampling for qualitative data collection and analysis in mixed method implementation research. Administration and Policy in Mental Health, 42, 533–544. doi: 10.1007/s10488-013-0528-y
- Pan, H. L. W., Wiens, P. D., & Moyal, A. (2023). A bibliometric analysis of the teacher leadership scholarship. Teaching and Teacher Education, 121, 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. tate.2022.103936
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Pekrun, R., Elliot, A. J., & Maier, M. A. (2017). Achievement goals and achievement emotions: Testing a model of their joint relations with academic performance. Journal of Educational Psychology, 109(3), 326-339. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0013383
- Potter, W. J, & Levine-Donnerstein D. (1999). Rethinking validity and reliability in content analysis. Journal of Applied Communication Research, 27(3), 258–284. https://doi. org/10.1080/00909889909365539
- Saldana, J. (2009). The Coding Manual for Qualitative Researchers. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Schott, C., van Roekel, H., & Tummers, L. G. (2020). Teacher leadership: A systematic review, methodological quality assessment and conceptual framework. Educational Research Review, 31, 1–24. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2020.100352
- Sebastian, J., Huang, H., & Allensworth, E. (2017). Examining integrated leadership systems in high schools: Connecting principal and teacher leadership to organizational processes and student outcomes. School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 28(3), 463–488. https://doi. org/10.1080/09243453.2017.1319392
- Shen, J., Wu, h., Reeves, P., Zheng, Y., Ryan, L., & Anderson, D. (2020). The association between teacher leadership and student achievement: A meta-analysis. Educational Research Review, 31. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2020.100357

- Trigueros, R., Padilla, A., Aguilar-Parra, J. M., Mercader, I., López-Liria, R., & Rocamora, P. (2020). The influence of transformational teacher leadership on academic motivation and resilience, burnout and academic performance. International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 17(20), 7687. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17207687
- VanderWeele, T. (2017). On the promotion of human flourishing. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 114(31), 8148–8156. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1702996114
- York-Barr, J., & Duke, K. (2004). What do we know about teacher leadership? Findings from two decades of scholarship. Review of Educational Research, 74(3), 255–316. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543074003255

1 Teacher Leadership Experience At School

Family, social environment, education and cultural background inject values and impact teacher leadership behaviour at school. Collective early-life experiences affect teacher leadership development. With diversity and inclusion being an important metric for sustainability and growth, this area of focus assumes a great relevance. Childhood experiences impact the choices teachers make and the kind of people they become as adults. The way a teacher responds to pressure, her/his tolerance for ambiguity, the ability to nurture close or distant relationships with others, the ability to empower or micromanage, the way of communicating (directly or indirectly), the technique of decision-making (participative or authoritative) – all of these are influenced by early family life (Fernandes, 2022).

Schools today are coloured by a growing number of diverse teachers from different socio-cultural and ethnic backgrounds, each coming in with their own early life experiences that have deeply shaped their values and beliefs and, therefore, their personalities. An appreciation of how these experiences speak to their leadership goes a long way in shaping healthy, functional cultures at the organisational and the team level, required to attain work results and engagement (Boerma et al., 2017).

A teacher's personal history (such as family influences or early life challenges) and key trigger events (like dramatic life episodes), play a crucial role in shaping qualities such as drive, resilience and determination. A teacher's values and behaviour develop depending on how s/he internalises or processes these formative experiences (Joseph, 1998). Did the teacher grow up in a nuclear or a joint family? Was the family open or guarded in their inter- and intrapersonal communication styles? Was expressing of emotions encouraged or discouraged in conversations? Was conflict addressed by confronting the issue or avoiding it altogether? Were the parents nurturing or uninvolved? Did the death of a parent, the birth of a differently-abled sibling, or a reversal of fortune, make the family stronger, or did it cause rifts and recrimination? The ideas, beliefs and behavioural patterns teachers absorb as a result of conditioning and upbringing in their early years impact the effectiveness of teacher leadership in later years (Bennis, 2009; Li et al., 2012).

Transference can occur when a teacher subconsciously redirects feelings from their childhood on to students, colleagues, school administration in the workplace. A teacher, for instance, may recreate functional or dysfunctional early family experiences in the classroom, depending on childhood experiences, thereby influencing students (who have their own early family dynamics as a backdrop) (Li et al., 2012). So, if a teacher reminds students of their angry father when dealing with conflict, students will cower and withdraw just as they did when they avoid confrontation in order to feel safe. These are reactive tendencies; teachers are not consciously aware of them, yet their impact is real (Ericsson et al., 1993).

All human beings develop emotional and unconscious processes during childhood, and these processes eventually help in the development of emotions, personalities and behaviours of a person. Most people are not even aware that these processes and dynamics are largely subconscious, even though they become powerful influences that hover on the fringes of our consciousness (Jolles et al., 2014). It is important to understand the background of teachers to make sense of their relevant emergent behaviours in their leadership roles. Knowing the self, reflecting on own life experiences, drawing knowledge from them, and then applying the lessons learnt to the work can be really powerful for teacher leadership development in a classroom and the school (Fernandes, 2022).

The most valuable experiences push the teacher out of her/his comfort zone, stretch her/his skills, and challenge her/his abilities. Though nobody wants to spend their entire career in a constant state of discomfort, the most worth-while leadership development usually comes with a dose of discomfort. Making worthwhile changes is rarely easy, and requires intentional effort. It means the the experience matters, because teacher leadership is made (Ericsson et al., 1993).

Different teachers have different leadership experiences. And different experiences teach different things. The quality, quantity, and diversity of a teacher's experiences are important. The benefits of leadership experience go beyond what is on a teacher's résumé. Family experiences, volunteer roles, hardships and her/his personal life and other non-work experiences can also strengthen her/his leadership skills. So leadership experience is variable, and not all experiences are the same (Boerma et al., 2017).

A leadership experience is not a one-time phenomenon. The teacher can relive past experiences, reflect on them, and discover new insights. Her/his past experiences can help navigate the present experiences, and a teacher's current experiences may prompt her/him to re-examine past experiences for new lessons. Future experiences don't merely happen to a teacher. The teacher can shape them, consciously seeking out opportunities to grow as a leader. It means that the experience is the past, present, and future, all at once (Li et al., 2012). The experience of teacher leadership in the school environment is associated with specific challenges:

Understanding the impact of the school environment and being able to adapt and manage the processes

Savickas (1997) developed career adaptability construction theory by considering the salient gualities of business life, such as unexpected changes, uncertainty, complexity and flexibility. In the past, career adaptability was usually defined as upward mobility within a single organisation. However, this conceptualisation is insufficient to fully define the career adaptability of teachers, because job and organisational changes, transitions between occupations and upward as well as downward movements have been widely witnessed in working life (Porfeli & Savickas, 2012). Further, professional identities of individuals constantly change as they interact with their constantly changing external work environment (Bozak & Fidan, 2019). The three main pillars of career adaptability construction can be pinpointed as vocational personality, life themes, and career. Vocational personality is ascribed to the skills, needs, values, and interests of individuals related to their careers. Life themes, on the other hand, are patterns that guide individuals to make meaningful choices and adapt to their roles in work life. Career adaptability is attributed to how individuals build their careers (Bozak & Fidan, 2019). Savickas (1997) uses the concept of adaptation to put together the components of career adaptability construction in a meaningful fashion. Adaptation is based on the ability to learn or understand in a relatively short time. That is, it refers to teachers' having the flexibility to react to the changes in their work environment, such as sudden transition to distance education, in a short time in this context (Maggiori et al., 2013). Career adaptability emphasises the interaction between teachers and their environment. Thereby, teachers adapt by interacting with the historical and cultural characteristics of their work environment with the difficulties and advantages it poses and constantly rebuild their professional personalities and create their careers (Arastaman, 2019). Career adaptability covers the dimensions of concern, control, curiosity, and self-confidence, according to Savickas (1997). The concern here is teachers' prioritising their professional future and willingness to prepare for potential future obstacles. Teachers with high(er) career concern possess the ability to plan, and are aware of the obstacles and opportunities they may encounter. Indifference to the professional future increases as the level of concern decreases. Control is teachers' having control over their professional future and ability to make independent decisions about their choices. Teachers who have control over their

careers are determined individuals who own the ability to make their own decisions without being influenced by others. They are willing and disciplined to overcome the obstacles they face. The level of indecision increases as the level of control decreases (Koç, 2019). Curiosity is teachers' willingness to learn about the tasks they want to undertake and the opportunities they want to take advantage of. Teachers who are curious about their careers are inquisitive in nature, and like to explore opportunities. They do not hesitate to try new things and take risks while overcoming the obstacles they come across. The likelihood of unrealistic expectations and goals increases as the level of curiosity decreases. Self-confidence is teachers' belief that they can prevail over the difficulties and obstacles they confront. Teachers with self-confidence have problem-solving skills, and the capacity to easily influence other people. They are persistent in overcoming obstacles. The level of inactivity increases as self-confidence decreases (Porfeli & Savickas, 2012).

It is definitely not for the teacher here, to be alone with your community, with students and create a separate culture is possible, but then it is very difficult. You have to be [a] very strong, bright personality so that you can overcome that surrounding influence and that you can, as an authority, pull those children out of all the other environments from that influence that they get around. The role of the community is very important here. R34

In their 2012 tripartite model, Martin et al. (2012) establish that adaptability comprises three dimensions: the cognitive, the behavioural, and the emotional. When faced with a challenging, novel, or uncertain situation, cognitive adaptability involves thinking about the situation in different ways or changing one's thoughts about the situation or circumstance. Behavioural adaptability involves adjusting one's actions in order to manage the change in situation or circumstance. Emotional adaptability involves adjusting one's emotions to reduce less helpful emotions (e.g. anxiety) or increase positive emotions (e.g. hope) in the face of novelty, change, or uncertainty (Granziera et al., 2019).

For qualified teachers entering their own classroom, cognitive adaptability may involve shifting their perceptions of self and identity from that of a teacher to that of qualified practitioner. Behavioural adaptability may involve seeking out new resources when presented with a situation that was not experienced in practicum. Emotional adaptability may involve regulating anxiety in the face of the new expectations and procedures that are likely in a new school (Granziera et al., 2019).

Adaptability among practising teachers has been linked with a range of positive teacher and student outcomes. For example, in a study of Australian secondary teachers, Collie and Martin (2017) showed that when teachers were more adaptable, they also tended to report greater wellbeing and organisational commitment. In addition, teacher adaptability was linked with students' numeracy achievement via the boost it provided to teachers' wellbeing. More recently, Collie et al. (2018) demonstrated that more adaptable teachers tended to be less disengaged at work. Loughland and Alonzo (2019) found that more adaptable teachers tend to use teaching practices in the classroom that adjust to the needs of the students. Most recently, Martin et al. (2019) found that adaptability among teacher assistants working with students with disabilities was associated with greater workplace motivation and occupational self-concept. Taken together, there is clear evidence of the importance of adaptability for thriving and effective teachers.

Being able to manage students and classes with behavioural difficulties with the focus on their autonomy

Behaviour problems in a classroom increase the stress levels for both the teacher and students, disrupt the flow of lessons and conflict with both learning objectives and the processes of learning.

I had such a class that was really bright in its achievements at school. But I was fine with her. In any case, I'm very proud of it now, because many students then join from what was also the Student Council, and I don't know such beautiful ones, I won't go into detail here. R33

They change the classroom dynamic as the focus of attention shifts from the academic tasks at hand to the distractions provided by disruptive behaviours. Typically, one or two students are identifiable as 'problems', sometimes they act in ways that compound management difficulties by inciting each other and, possibly, others in the class into disruptive activities. The usual response to problematic behaviour is to identify the students involved as 'the problem', to focus on them as a source of 'trouble' and to devise strategies specifically to deal with their inappropriate behaviour (Parsonson, 2012).

The ability of teachers to organise classrooms and manage the behaviour of their students is critical to achieving positive educational outcomes. Although sound behaviour management does not guarantee effective instruction, it establish the environmental context that makes good instruction possible. Highly effective instruction reduces, but does not eliminate classroom behaviour problems (Emmer & Stough, 2001).

The inability of teachers to effectively manage classroom behaviour often contributes to low achievement for at-risk students, and to their excessive referrals for special education (Harrel et al., 2004). These effects are exacerbated by the current pattern of teacher distribution, which reveals a disproportionate assignment of less qualified and less experienced teachers to classrooms with economically disadvantaged children (Clotfelter et al., 2007).

Many children enter school without the social and emotional skills to be successful (Whitted, 2011). Studies have been conducted to explain the effects of disruptive behaviour on peers, teachers' perceptions of disruptive behaviour, and theories regarding causes of externalising behaviour (van den Berg & Stoltz, 2018). Children are being suspended for disruptive behaviours as early as preschool (Bulotsky-Shearer et al., 2012). The research shows that a positive classroom environment is a strong predictor of academic success, and social/emotional well-being affects the development of student-teacher and student-student relationships (Abry et al., 2017; Gottfried & Harven, 2015).

The effect of disruptive behaviours may explain why some teachers struggle with students who exhibit such behaviours (Nelson & Roberts, 2000). Nash et al. (2016) found that there is a negative impact from disruptive students on their peers, and their behaviour causes stress for other students and teachers. Studies have confirmed that a child's classroom behaviour is one of the strongest predictors of relationships that are formed with teachers (Buyse et al., 2008).

Teacher and peer relationships are negatively affected by disruptive behaviours (Gottfried & Harven, 2015). Dishion and Tipsord (2011), and Thomas et al. (2011), suggest that limiting the number of children who exhibit aggressive and disruptive behaviour in each classroom can help establish more positive teacher student interactions. Strategies, such as seating arrangements, can improve peer relations and help moderate aggressive behaviours (van den Berg & Stoltz, 2018).

Buyse et al. (2008) examined how young learners with behavioural problems have a more difficult time forming positive relationships with their teacher than children without behaviour problems. The researchers hypothesised that a classroom with a large percentage of students with serious behavioural issues would be damaging for the children who already exhibited high levels of negative behaviour. In these cases, the teachers would have a difficult time forming positive relationships with their students because their classrooms would have multiple students with behavioural problems. The researchers found that a teacher's rating of a child's behaviour in class is a significant predictor of the relational closeness of that student with the teacher. Classrooms that had several students exhibiting external behaviours had the highest rate of relational conflict between the teacher and student. While aggression may encourage more aggression, especially in younger children, aggressive behaviours can be reduced with positive and supportive teacher-student interactions and positive student-to-student interactions (Noeth-Abele, 2020).

Parents and teachers agree that students need to exhibit appropriate social behaviours to achieve academic goals (Smith et al., 2022). Challenging behaviours at school can manifest under many conditions and in various locations within a school (Flower et al., 2014). Challenging student behaviours can include a range of acts that may (a) interfere with social and academic functioning and (b) harm a child, his or her peers, or adults within the school. Researchers have identified a number of challenging behaviours at school including defiance, disrespect, harassment, verbal and physical aggression (Kaufman et al., 2010), violating classroom rules, talking without permission, getting out of one's seat (Walter et al., 2006), and general distractibility and issues following directions (Harrison et al., 2012). Challenging student behaviours are harmful to everyone in schools - including students who exhibit the behaviours, and their peers and teachers. Students who exhibit challenging behaviours are frequently removed from class, which interrupts instruction, exacerbates academic difficulties, and increases the likelihood of school failure and dropout (Nelson et al., 2004).

The importance of effective classroom organisation and behaviour management is widely acknowledged by educators; many teachers report inadequate training and little assistance from colleagues in establishing positive and productive classroom environments (Baker, 2005). Teacher educators insist that their training programmes teach classroom organisation and management skills, but the indication is that such skills are not taught thoroughly or with adequate supervision in a real classroom context (Siebert, 2005). The absence of supervised experience and professional development in the critical competencies of classroom organisation and behaviour management significantly reduces the effectiveness of teachers, especially new teachers (Espin & Yell, 1994).

Improving the ability of teachers effectively to manage classroom behaviour requires a systematic approach, teacher preparation, and ongoing professional development. Experienced teachers have fewer concerns regarding classroom management, and they learn over time how to manage classrooms effectively; teachers who did not learn classroom management skills have left the profession (Baker, 2005).

A classroom is an environment with its own ecology, including teacher, students and their interrelationships, the equipment, books and a range of activities which all interact to influence the behaviour of the room's inhabitants. To complicate things further, both teacher and students bring into class experiences and issues from the wider ecological systems in which they live and function, e.g. the rest of the school community, home, family, community and the wider world. Simply targeting interventions at individual children in the classroom may not actually solve a classroom behaviour problem. Indeed, focusing on individuals may lead one to ignore examination of systemic problems in teacher-student relations, the management and teaching styles of the teacher, the curriculum and the skills required by students to access it, the order in which activities are scheduled, and a whole host of other aspects of the classroom and wider school ecology. It also has to be remembered that students bring to school all sorts of concerns, distresses, reactions and patterns of behaviour established, permitted and supported outside of the classroom itself. Thus, targeting a student as 'the problem' may divert one's attention from a careful examination of the classroom ecology or that of the wider school and the family and community environments within which the school is embedded (Parsonson, 2012).

Understanding the organisational context of the school community in which the teacher has to work and be able to remain dignified in that environment

Organisational context (climate, culture, resources) can impede or enhance implementation of evidence-based practices in schools. In teaching, where professionals perform their work in organisational contexts, productivity is shaped by both individual and organisational factors (Johnson, 1990).

Yes, it is very important in which organisation you work. If your colleague is screaming from behind the wall, you will have a hard time talking to the class that experiences this type of work, because when those students come, they will also expect you. It must be achieved only in this way. And then maybe it becomes very difficult for such a peaceful, quiet, democratic teacher. R34

Organisational contexts in schools are both teachers' working conditions and students' learning environments. Furthermore, organisational factors largely dictate the success of policies designed to increase individual teachers' effectiveness by shaping how these policies are implemented and perceived within schools (Honig, 2006). To maximise teachers' efforts and students' achievement outcomes, researchers and policymakers must complement the extensive teacher effectiveness literature with a commensurate body of work measuring schools' organisational contexts and examining their relationships with important student and teacher outcomes.

Organisational theory and recent evidence suggest that school contexts affect student achievement through a variety of indirect and direct channels. Indirect effects are likely to operate through the influence of organisational contexts on teachers' career decisions and interactions with students. Studies consistently find chronic teacher turnover in schools with dysfunctional contexts and a lack of organisational supports (Birkeland & Curtis, 2006). High rates of teacher turnover impose large financial costs on schools (Milanowski & Odden, 2007) and reduce student achievement (Ronfeldt et al., 2013) by, in part, undercutting efforts to build capacity and coordinate instruction among a staff. Studies also repeatedly find that novice teachers are less effective, on average, than the more experienced teachers they often replace (Papay & Kraft, 2013).

Schools with supportive professional environments are not only more likely to retain their teachers, evidence suggests they also maximise teachers' and students' learning opportunities. Teachers improve their ability to raise student achievement more over time when they work in schools environments characterised by meaningful opportunities for feedback, productive peer collaboration, responsive administrators, and an orderly and disciplined environment (Kraft & Papay, 2014). The strong association between measures of school safety and average student achievement suggests that students are unable to concentrate on academics when they fear for their physical well-being (Steinberg et al., 2011). Students' motivation, effort, perseverance, and beliefs about their potential for academic success are also shaped directly by the academic expectations schools set for all students (Jussim & Harber, 2005).

Research has illuminated the important and complex ways in which schools' organisational contexts affect teachers' motivation, job satisfaction, and sense of success (Johnson & Birkeland, 2003). Johnson and Birkeland's (2003) longitudinal study revealed that the most important factor influencing teachers' career decisions was whether they felt they could be effective with their students. Teachers described how a variety of working conditions in schools, such as the nature of collegial interactions, the support of administrators, and school-wide approaches to discipline, either supported or undercut their own efforts.

While the relationship between school organisational contexts and teacher turnover is presented in the literature, there is less knowledge about how these contexts relate to student achievement. Only a limited number of studies have examined the relationship between the school context and students' academic outcomes. Ladd (2009) demonstrated that both teachers' perceptions of school leadership and the amount of common planning time predicted a school's value-added in mathematics. Johnson et al. (2012) found that teachers' perceptions of their schools' working conditions were strong predictors of the median student growth percentile in their school in the following two years, after controlling for various student-, teacher-, and school-level characteristics.

The first studies on organisational climate were done in the 1930s by Kurt Lewin (1933). He attempted to link the human behaviour of nurses and envi-

ronment through the following model: $B = f\{P, E\}$, i.e. the behaviour of nurses (B) is dependent upon their personal characteristics $\{P\}$ and the environment (E). In his research Lewin took into account goals, stimuli, needs, social relation, and atmosphere.

Likert (1961) referred to organisational climate in terms of physical environment, cultural environment, and technological environment. In discussing the characteristics of the authoritative and participative systems of management, Likert referred to aspects of organisational climate inherent in each system. Under the Exploitive Authoritative system the employees have subservient attitudes towards superiors coupled with hostility toward peers and contempt for subordinates; distrust is widespread. Under the Participative Group almost the opposite environment prevails in that favourable, cooperative attitudes exist throughout the organisation, with mutual trust and confidence.

Tagiuri (1968) offers the following definition: Organisational climate is the relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organisation that – (1) is experienced by its members, (2) influences their behaviour, and (3) can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (or attitudes) of the organisation.

Miles (1969) maintains that climate, a diffuse concept in educational literature, can be replaced by the well defined, social-psychological concept of group norm, which specifies organisational conditions. The necessary elements of a norm are a group, interaction time among the group, specific ideas of desirable or undesirable behaviour, and sanction.

Halpin and Croft (1963) have suggested that, just as individuals can be classified as open or closed, so might organisations. The personality of an individual is likened to the climate of an organisation. They define an open climate as one in which there is attention to both task achievement and social needs. The closed climate is defined as one which marks a situation in which the group members obtain little satisfaction in respect to either task achievement or social needs. In short, it is a situation where the administrator is ineffective in directing the activities of the staff, and at the same time he or she is not inclined to look out for their welfare. The operational definition given to open climate emphasises that this is a situation in which organisational members derive high levels of satisfaction both from their interpersonal relations with fellow workers and from accomplishment of the tasks assigned to them by the organisation. Six climates are identified in a continuum from open to closed, based on the Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) which Halpin and Croft (1963) developed. The six climates are: open, autonomous, controlled, familiar, paternal, and closed. To classify a school in an organisational climate they found it necessary to get scores for a school on eight dimensions, four for the teachers as a group, and four for the principal as leader. For teachers the dimensions are: disengagement, hindrance, esprit, and intimacy. For principals, the dimensions are: aloofness, production emphasis, thrust, and consideration. Halpin and Croft (1963) found that a school possessing an open climate, which they deemed as most effective, was a lively organisation, moving toward its goals while at the same time providing satisfaction to the members of the organisation. An important aspect in the effective leadership of an organisation is the perceptions of the leader held by the group with which he is working, as well as the perceptions of the group which the leader holds.

One of the guiding assumptions of the work of both Halpin and Croft (1963) and Argyris (1962) is that an organisational climate which will be most effective will be one in which it is possible for acts of leadership to emerge easily from whatever source. One essential determination of a school's effectiveness noted by Halpin and Croft (1963) was the ascribed leader's ability, or lack thereof, to create a climate in which she/he and the other group members could initiate and consummate acts of leadership.

The results of research by Miner (2015) show that managers who work in an open organisational climate show better jobs than managers who work in a closed organisational climate. Organisational climate also affects, motivation, performance, and job satisfaction. Whereas motivation, performance and job satisfaction are part of the effectiveness components for the organisation. Therefore, it can be concluded that organisational climate has a direct effect on organisational effectiveness.

Organisations that work with an open climate show a higher level of trust and effectiveness than those that use a closed climate (Hoy and Miskel, 2005). Heck and Marcoulides (1993) found that school (organisational) achievement was influenced by the type of leadership developed and the strong school climate. Thus, organisational effectiveness is influenced by organisational climate and leadership behaviour. Organisational climate is also influenced by the organisational culture that develops in it. This is in line with DeRoche's (2011) view, which states that organisational culture has a relationship with organisational climate.

Organisational culture is an organisational personality that affects how individuals act in organisations (Gibson, et al., 1996). Owens and Valesky (2015) suggest that organisational culture has a strong influence on climate development. It is further explained that organisational culture affects the attitudes and feelings of organisational members. Kanter (1999) in his research found that in successful organisations, a culture of pride in the organisation is related to the climate of success in the organisation. A culture of pride is defined as an emotional commitment and value commitment between individuals and organisations, people feel they belong to a meaningful organisational entity

(Kanter, 2004). Several research findings made by experts further strengthen that organisational culture affects organisational climate.

Owens and Valesky (2015) suggest that organisational culture has a strong influence on climate development. It is further explained that organisational culture affects organisational attitudes and feelings. This view is reinforced by Kanter (1999) who in his research found that in successful organisations, a culture of pride in the organisation is related to the climate of success in the organisation. A culture of pride is defined as emotional commitment and people's commitment between individuals and organisations, people feel they belong to a meaningful organisational entity, while the climate of success is characterised by openness between organisational members in carrying out their duties.

Based on some of the views that have been presented, it can be concluded that organisational culture is influenced by leadership behaviour, while organisational culture affects organisational climate and organisational effectiveness. A strong organisational culture is followed by an increasingly open organisational climate, which in turn will increase organisational effectiveness (Prastiawan et al., 2020).

Organisational climate is a quality of the organisation's internal environment experienced by its members, influencing their behaviour, and can be described by the values of the characteristics of the organisation. The organisational climate is influenced by the organisational culture that develops in it, the organisational climate is also influenced by the leadership style applied by the manager or administrator. Organisational culture has a strong influence on climate development. Organisational culture influences organisational attitudes and feelings (Prastiawan et al., 2020).

The wealth of literature accumulated over time, underpinned by different theoretical and methodological paradigms, reveals the extent to which the issue of organisational culture brings together differing perspectives, focuses and concepts, contributing to its globalising and, at times, all-encompassing, nature. Globalising, because to understand culture we must delve into the deepest realms of social behaviour (values, ideologies, beliefs). It is therefore necessary to bring together several perspectives, in order to encompass and interpret the multiple dimensions that make up the culture of an organisation. All-encompassing, because in its efforts to represent the 'pluralistic whole', its extensible and elastic nature can become an omnipresent formula when studying any aspect of school life. While this elasticity stimulates new theoretical insights, it also gives rise to hybrid approaches, emerging from the constant shifting between perspectives and scales of analysis.

European and market-led approaches focusing on the production of results - external inspection of schools, an increase in nationwide examinations, dig-
ital monitoring, implementation of frameworks for excellence, publication of rankings, the growth of the private tutoring market – have reignited interest in cultural dimensions, by placing the impact of the school on academic achievement at the centre of the debate. Though a shift toward uniformisation in terms of curriculums, assessment and pedagogy tends to erase cultural diversity, recent sociological research demonstrates the extent to which the organisation of a school can make a difference to the learning processes and academic trajectory of young students (Torres, 2022). But, four key components remain important in a school's organisational culture: strong parent-community ties, student-centred learning climate, coherent institutional guidance system and norms, values and practices of the work environment (Giedraitis & Ispyrian, 2019)

Taking responsibility for students' learning results

Teachers' formal accountability and duties have been the focus of high-stakes educational reforms, for instance in the context of national accountability systems. Yet, teachers' sense of personal (rather than formal) responsibility and willingness to assume responsibility for their teaching and students remains an understudied area.

... there is a direct dependence on the academic achievements of the students' class and the teacher's reputation. This is where very interesting thoughts arise when you work for one audience. And then she changed. As in our case, we now have such exemplary students. My class at school is now the best student. Well, we just ended the trimester, and I can see that the teacher's position has completely changed. R33

Schoolteachers who feel responsibility for their teaching and students report higher levels of work engagement and job satisfaction than less responsible teachers, are more likely to endorse mastery-oriented instructional practices that emphasise student effort, task mastery, and individual growth. Teachers' perceptions of their school's social climate (teachers' evaluations of their relationships with students), their sense of teaching self-efficacy, and incremental beliefs of intelligence emerge as positive predictors of teacher responsibility. Teacher responsibility partially mediates the positive effects of these predictors on teachers' wellbeing and mastery-oriented instructional practices. Both contextual (school climate) and person-specific (self-efficacy) factors can contribute to teachers' sense of personal responsibility, and that responsibility, in turn, can have positive implications for teachers' wellbeing and instructional practices (Matteucci et al., 2017).

Teachers' responsibility derives from their total, direct and personal responsibility for their students (Guskey, 1982), which makes every teacher action a morally motivated action (Jussim et al., 1996). While in that respect, the teacher's role does not markedly differ from that of the parents, the teacher's responsibility is, at least theoretically, limited in time and restricted to specific spheres of action that teachers share with their students (Lauermann, 2014). In these interactions, teachers' own sense of responsibility is shaped by their perception of the school context, their evaluation of learning contents, and their view of desirable student outcomes: knowledge and skills for when the latter finish school. Of course, what teachers feel and what they are held responsible for might differ. The reason for this is that, unlike other professions, the teaching profession lacks a clear description of the norms of conduct, which are known to, and applied by, all members of this professional group (Lauermann et al., 2013). Some work has focused on caring as the primary responsibility that results from relations with other people and affects the individual as well as others. Caring is taken to be closely related to the responsibility of all educators, teachers and parents alike, namely, to take responsibility/care for adolescents until they are able to take responsibility/care for themselves and their own lives (Matteucci, 2017). These considerations also suggest that educators' responsibility changes with the age of the student and also from one school grade to the next, as teaching is more than simply planning and conducting lessons and school outcomes are much more than about student grades. Teachers feel more responsible for their students' success than failure (Zimmerman et al., 2005). One further study has found that teachers who were

merman et al., 2005). One further study has found that teachers who were willing to hold themselves responsible for their students' results, deemed themselves also more able to influence the causes or antecedents of student failure, compared to less responsible teachers (April et al., 2012). Four dimensions of teacher responsibility are the following: responsibility for teaching, student motivation, student achievement and teachers' relationships with students (Ballard et al., 2008). Highly responsible teachers report higher levels of work engagement and job satisfaction than less responsible teachers, and teacher responsibility is related to mastery-oriented instructional practices (Helker et al., 2014).

Contributing to the development of students' autonomy and self-reliance through conscious and meaningful learning

Today, learner autonomy is considered as a desirable goal in language education. One of the main goals in education is assisting individuals to view learning as a life long process and to learn in a self-directed way (Jimenez Raya, 2009). The movement towards a learner-centred approach has resulted in more emphasis on the benefits of learner autonomy in the success of language learning. It is rare to find independent and autonomous learners in a teacher-centred learning environment (Weimer, 2002). Being autonomous learners is important because the most competent learners are those who have developed a high degree of autonomy (Little, 1991).

A longer road, but we somehow want that result. It's not that I say everything and that's all, whether I did it or not, but I want them to understand and what will remain as theirs. It seems to me that when they act on their own, they would be well, somehow a higher result, but it doesn't always work out. This part is really difficult. R10

As a significant social agent who shapes the quality of students' intellectual and social experiences (Davis, 2003), the teacher has a critical role to play in helping students to exert autonomy both inside and outside classroom (Lazaro, 2009; Little, 2004; Toffoli & Sockett, 2015). Consequently, teachers should clearly know the strategies how to play their roles in developing learner autonomy while teaching or guiding in-class and out-of-class. A major part of implementing autonomy in-class and out-of-class is to instruct various strategies, and assist students in finding the most suitable methods for them. Meanwhile, little attention has been paid to how teachers fulfil their roles strategically in developing learners' autonomy inside and outside the classroom.

There exists a wide range of discussion or literature about the definition of learner autonomy from different perspectives by different experts or scholars. Some scholars define autonomy as a kind of ability, some define it as a process of learning, some others define it as teaching practice, and still others define it as a kind of political concept.

The concept of autonomous learning can be traced back more than 50 years, to the 1960s, when there were debates about the development of independent thinkers and the development of life-long learning skills. By 1981, the definition of autonomy was first introduced into the educational field by Holec (1981), considered a father of autonomous learning, who described it as the ability to take charge of one's own learning. He also mentioned that this ability is not inborn, but must be acquired by 'natural' means or (as most often happens) by formal learning, i.e. in a systematic, deliberate way, and pointed out that to take charge of one's own learning is to have responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of learning.

With the increasing application of the concept of learner autonomy into practice, teachers' roles or involvement in autonomous learning are confronted with new considerations or challenges. Learner autonomy serves both as a means and an end of teaching, which places much emphasis on developing learner autonomy as one of educational goals. The teacher's role is both necessary and significant to guarantee and enhance or promote learner autonomy, and for that reason can never or forever be neglected. Teachers' in-class autonomy support behaviours can boost students' willingness to engage in autonomous learning outside the classroom (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2012). Without a teacher's guidance and supervision, the total autonomous learning process will lead to low efficiency, and even fall into disorder. All truly effective learning entails the growth of autonomy in the learner as regards both the process and the content of learning; but I also believe that for most learners the growth of autonomy requires the stimulus, insight and guidance of a good teacher (Little, 2000). Autonomous learning is not necessarily learning alone, nor is it necessarily learning without a teacher.

With the more communicatively learner-centred teaching mode becoming the major teaching trend, teachers are transforming their traditional unidirectional role as knowledge purveyor into that of active participants, monitors, consultants and guides. They transform themselves into helpers and facilitators (Wenden, 1981). In general, teachers are supposed to play the following 11 roles in promoting learner autonomy in-class and out-of-class:

(1) A facilitator, to develop students' self-confidence, arouse students' interest, keep students' enthusiasm in autonomous learning.

(2) A trainer/guide, to teach students various strategies of learner autonomy and guide students to do autonomous learning.

(3) A counsellor/advisor, to offer reasonable and feasible suggestions to help students find most suitable learning strategies and help students seek for best solution to their problems.

(4) An instructor, to state explicitly to students the teaching plan, teaching requirements, teaching contents and even teaching focus and difficulties, so as to ensure students know the teacher's expectations clearly at all times.

(5) A resource provider, to provide ample knowledge, information, and materials to satisfy students' needs, and to promote and improve students.

(6) A coordinator/organiser, to build up a kind of relaxing and harmonious atmosphere and create a lot of opportunities for students to try them out in diverse circumstances.

(7) A cooperator/peer learner, to to establish a close collaboration and constructive interaction with students so as to learn from each other.

(8) An assessor, to give punctual and appropriate praise, feedback and guidance to students' finished project and progress.

(9) A monitor, to monitor students' whole learning process like learning methods, learning contents, learning progress, and such, and try to find their strong and weak points.

(10) A researcher, to conduct deep research into the techniques of teaching, autonomous learning strategies, and students, so as to implement effective and efficient autonomy during teaching.

(11) A developer of teaching materials, to develop sustainable and suitable teaching materials with different difficulties and contents in accordance with students' English proficiency and individual needs.

Frustrations arise among teachers dealing with unmotivated students, but they experience the pressure to help all students to reach learning standards in schools. Teachers are practitioners, thus they may not know about the connection is between student motivation and self-determination. Motivation is related to students' autonomy and to their possibilities to make academic choices. Having choices allows students feel empowered that they control their learning. This helps them develop personal responsibility and self-motivation (McCombs, 2007).

Teachers can focus on creating responsible and autonomous students through the use of their learning choices. Having the possibility to choose topics of interest stimulates students' curiosity in learning. Providing choices is effective in contexts where students are individually supported by the teacher and fellow students through caring and within the challenging learning environments. In such a culture of learning, students develop variety of competencies needed to be successful learners (Furrer & Skinner, 2003). Students' learning in groups or teams fosters their curiosity for learning, because they are encouraged to work collaboratively with teachers and peers in finding answers to questions in inquiry-based learning environments (Narciss, 2004).

Teachers fear that presenting more choices to students will lead to losing control over the classroom. But the opposite happens. When students understand their role as agent over their own feeling, thinking and learning behaviours, they are more likely to take responsibility for their learning. To be autonomous learners, however, students need to have some actual choice and control (Reeve et al., 2003). That is why teachers need to learn how to help students develop the ability to make choices and take responsibility over their learning. Although teaching and reaching students of different ages, backgrounds, interests and experiences may seem overwhelming, the resources in this module can assist teachers in effectively guiding student choices (Lodewyk & Winne, 2005).

When students experience their ownership of learning, they are motivated to engage in learning tasks and outcomes. To help students develop the capacity to make choices for themselves, teachers need to help students understand their learning interests, their disposition to be active and autonomous learners, and their capacities or strengths in various content or skill areas (O'Mara et al., 2006).

The learner-centred practices include teachers showing students how to make learning choices and monitor the consequences of their choices. This is a trial-and-error process that requires teacher support and encouragement. For example, if a student expresses interest in reading a particular novel as an English assignment, but then finds that s/he is having trouble understanding it because of unfamiliar words, the teacher can recommend a similar novel that has lower level vocabulary. The teacher can have the student make a list of the unfamiliar words and look up their meanings (McComb & Miller, 2007). With increasing technology use in school classrooms and schools, the importance of student control in blended learning environments becomes important. That is, combining more individualised and technology-supported options can provide the possibility to engage students into learning. When new technologies and technology-based programmes for creating blended classrooms are added, teachers can feel overwhelmed unless they have sufficient knowledge and training to understand which programmes are best for students' learning (Murdock et al., 2004). Teachers should help students develop a sense of ownership over their personal learning (Pietsch et al., 2003). For example, teachers can provide students with choices about how they may demonstrate mastery of a concept, approach particular assignments, work independently or with peers, and achieve at their competency levels. When students have the opportunity to be involved in making these choices, they take more responsibility for their own learning.

A key to motivating students is helping them recognise and understand that they can take responsibility for their own learning is recognising students' personal learning interests. Teachers need to give students the opportunity to work together with classmates in order to meet their learning goals and have a voice in their own learning. Teaching that fosters motivation to learn is a thoughtful process of aligning student choices so that students see the value of these choices as tools for meeting their learning needs and goals (Pintrich, 2003).

Teachers must set learning goals and help students understand that the choices they can make are within the context of the learning goals set by the teacher. Students learn that they can be successful if they meet learning as performance requirements. When students see first-hand that they can be successful, teachers have an opportunity to talk with them about how the learning goals and expectations are related to their personal interests and skills they will need to succeed in life (Walls & Little, 2005). So, teachers need to set clear learning standards from the start and to inform students about them. Students need to know what is expected of them, how they will be graded, and what support will be available to them. When teachers communicate learning expectations, they must consider the diverse backgrounds and experiences of each student. Learning outcomes that focus on each student's abilities and strengths lead to more positive student development and engaged learning. Teachers must provide feedback to students that gives them precise information about the particular skills they have acquired and/or need to improve in order to be successful in their class. Students learn to use feedback from their teacher and peers to change their conception of how competent they are in different subjects or learning activities (Zins et al., 2004).

Teachers may encourage students to assess their own learning progress by using charts or keeping journals, so they can evaluate the progress they are making as they acquire relevant knowledge and skills. When students learn to monitor their own progress, they become more motivated by their learning successes and begin to acquire a sense of responsibility for their learning outcomes (Otis et al., 2005).

Cultivating students' creativity with non-traditional tasks

We depend on our creative abilities to help us adapt and thrive in increasingly complex and uncertain times. Researchers also believe that a creative life fosters happiness and well-being, and that there is a significant connection between creativity, meaning, and intrinsic motivation. Creativity is at the epicentre of human exploration and discovery, an ability used to generate and communicate original ideas of value. Inspired by our senses of sight, sound, taste, touch, and smell, creativity is a force that nurtures human development, innovation, and an aesthetic appreciation of the world around us.

It is clear that you are trying to divide some visual tasks into groups so that they can work on their own. But this is a difficult thing. For now, let me think about it. R10

Many people associate creativity with those who are gifted and talented. Few would argue that Steve Jobs' creativity helped produce the iPhone and other innovative Apple products. But creativity is not confined to people of extraordinary intellect or talent – or to big inventions. Everyone has creative capacities that evoke originality, like producing a new recipe, conveying a powerful idea through self-expression, or discovering a better way to achieve desired outcomes (Price-Mitchell, 2015).

Achieving creative learning will require the teacher to transform teaching in all subjects. The learning sciences are providing teachers with an increasingly rich knowledge base for how to do that (Sawyer, 2012). Unfortunately, schools today are designed around common-sense assumptions that are opposed to creative learning. The first among these assumptions reduces knowledge to a collection of facts about the world and procedures for how to solve problems. A second assumption is that the goal of schooling is to get these facts and procedures into the students' head. People are considered to be educated when they possess a large collection of these facts and procedures. A third assumption guiding traditional learning environments is that teachers know these facts and procedures, and their job is to transmit them to students. It follows that, fourth, simpler facts and procedures should be learnt first, followed by progressively more complex facts and procedures. The definitions of 'simplicity' and 'complexity' and the proper sequencing of material were determined either by teachers, by textbook authors, or by asking expert adults like mathematicians, scientists, or historians – not by studying how students actually learn. A fifth assumption of non-creative learning environments is that the way to determine the success of schooling is to test students to see how many of these facts and procedures they have acquired.

This vision of schooling is known as transmission and acquisition (Rogoff, 1990), the standard model of schooling (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 2006), or instructionism (Papert, 1993), which emerged in the industrialised economy of the early 20th century. Most schools continue to be largely based on an instructionist model of teaching and learning.

The world today is much more technologically complex and economically competitive, and instructionism is increasingly failing to educate our students to participate in this new kind of society. Economists and organisational theorists have reached a consensus that today we are living in a knowledge economy, an economy which is built on knowledge work (Bereiter, 2002; Drucker, 1993).

In the knowledge economy, memorisation of facts and procedures is not enough for success. Educated graduates need a deep conceptual understanding of complex concepts, and the ability to work with them creatively to generate new ideas, theories, products, and knowledge. They need to be able to critically evaluate what they read, to express themselves clearly both verbally and in writing, and to be able to understand scientific and mathematical thinking. They need to learn integrated and usable knowledge, rather than the sets of compartmentalised and decontextualised facts emphasised by instructionism. They need to take responsibility for their own life-long learning. Instructionism is particularly ill-suited to the education of creative professionals who can develop new knowledge and continually further their own understanding. Instructionism is an anachronism in the modern innovation economy. The teaching paradox faces all educators who hope to design creative learning environments. Whereas instructionist classrooms are almost completely top-down, with no room for emergence or creativity to occur, creative classrooms will be much more bottom-up. The creative schools of the future are strongest in teaching what instructionism cannot: creative learning requires collaborative emergence and creativity on the part of the student.

Creative learning is more effective learning if the process is guided appropriately. The best way to foster creative learning is not – as many might intuitively assume or often advocate – to allow learners complete freedom to improvise their own path through disciplinary knowledge; it is, rather, to guide them in a process of disciplined improvisation. Schools are complex organisations with many structures and constraints. These structures serve important functions and cannot simply be abandoned.

Effective creative learning involves teachers and students improvising together, collaboratively, within the structures provided by the curriculum and the teachers. But this collaborative emergence, a bottom-up group process, must be guided effectively by (at least) four top-down structures: curriculum, assessments, learning goals, and teacher practices. In too many schools today, these top-down structures are overly constraining, and do not provide room for the disciplined improvisation that results in collaborative emergence. Effective learning environments will always need curriculum, assessments, learning goals, and teacher practices (Sawyer, 2003).

To transform schools to foster greater creativity in students, these four topdown structures need to change: the curriculum should provide opportunities for multiple learning trajectories that could result from a creative inquiry process; assessments should incorporate and reward the sort of deeper conceptual understanding that results from creative learning, and they should accommodate potential differences in learning sequence and outcome; learning goals should explicitly incorporate creative learning. Schools and districts should ensure that the expected learning outcomes do not emphasise breadth over depth; and teacher professional development should be based in creativity research, and in research in the content areas – for example, science education research that explores the appropriate role of guiding scaffolds in the unavoidably unpredictable and emergent process of creative learning (Andriessen, 2006).

The creative school is filled with creative learning environments that result in deeper mastery of content knowledge, and the ability to think and act creatively using that knowledge. In those creative schools, students learn content knowledge. But in contrast to the superficial learning that results from instructionism, they learn a deeper conceptual understanding that prepares them to go beyond and build new knowledge. They learn collaboratively, in ways that help them externalise their developing understandings and fosters metacognition. They learn to participate in creative activities based on their developing knowledge – how to identify good problems, how to ask good questions, how to gather relevant information, how to propose new solutions and hypotheses, and how to use domain-specific skills to express those ideas and make them a reality (Mercer, 2000).

All schools want students to learn as much as possible, as effectively as possible. To accomplish this goal, schools should be designed based on learning scientific research. This will provide suggestions for how to foster creativity in the face of the teaching paradox (Sawyer, 2011).

Reflecting on one's professional limitations and empowering oneself to reduce them

Reflection is a process which helps the teacher to gain insight into professional practice by thinking analytically about any element of it. The insights developed, and lessons learnt, can be applied to maintain good practice and can lead to developments and professional improvements.

Yesterday the student led a lesson and when another person leads the lesson and you are an observer, then you can see even more clearly that the teacher takes up most of the air, and I have already noticed that I probably talk a lot myself and the children are listeners. R10

While reflection takes many different forms, it is important to understand that several activities closely linked to reflection are not themselves reflective. Reflecting is not merely the act of talking, meeting with the team, meeting with a supervisor or writing about the working day, but these activities can become reflective if teacher uses them to analytically assess her/his practice and to develop insights.

Different teachers learn in different ways, and while one teacher may learn by reflecting on a positive outcome, another may find it most useful to focus on a situation teachers found challenging. It is important that reflection is done in the way that suits the teacher best to provide the greatest benefit.

Reflection is important for competence development. Reflection-on-action (when the task is already accomplished) and reflection-in-action (while performing the task) are equally important to increasing a teacher's professionalism. However, it is unclear to what extent this approach is effective to promote teachers' reflection-in-action, to increase the quality of a teacher's professional performance, and to establish a long-term attitude to reflect on-action (Fronek et al., 2009). Cattaneo & Motta (2021) asked 15 apprentice chefs to cook a recipe, and video-recorded them. When finished, researchers asked them to complete a report that self-assessed their performance. Nine of them reflected on their practice, the others not. The former group outperformed the latter in the quality of their reflection-in-action. The quality of their performance, according to two experts' assessment, was significantly better. The study represents a good premise to confirm the effectiveness of reflective approach and transfer it to different educational environments.

The relationship between experience and reflection is a complex topic analysed in detail by scholars over the last decades. The terminology includes expressions related to 'reflexion' such as 'reflective attitude', 'reflective learning', 'reflective practice' (Moon, 2004). Mann et al. (2009) highlight how most of the reflective practice models begin from the common premise of 'returning to an experience to examine it, deliberating intending that what is learned may be a guide in future situations, and incorporating it into one's existing knowledge' (p. 597).

Schön (1983) and Boud et al. (1985) in their models pertain to referencing a previous experience, which triggers reflection, producing new understandings that ideally prepare for a change in behaviour when facing future similar experiences. In these cases, it is the iterative process of reflection to be in the spotlight. Mezirow (1991), Hatton and Smith (1995), Moon (1999) emphasise the fact that reflection can assume different levels, from surface levels, more descriptive than analytical, to deeper levels, more analytical, and able to present critical synthesis. Moon (1999) identifies five progressive levels in the reflective process (noticing, making sense, making meaning, working with meaning, and transformative learning). Hatton and Smith (1995) claim that reflection reveals in a composition of four phases: description of experience, descriptive reflection, dialogic reflection, and finally critical reflection.

Researchers recognise reflective practice as an important trigger for sustaining competence development (Hetzner et al. 2011) and for fostering deep learning processes (Leung & Kember 2003), although they 'advocate' further investigations to provide evidence on the relationship between reflective learning and learning outcomes (Roessger 2015). They claim that promoting reflection-on-action should be included as an important part of any curriculum (Bontemps-Hommen et al. 2020; Kember 2001; Moon 2004) as a way to connect the theoretical and practical parts of school curricula (Motta et al. 2013; Berglund et al. 2020; Cowan 2020). These general considerations lead us to design and investigate the effects of several instructional modalities aimed at enabling an effective reflective process in teaching and learning at school (Motta et al. 2014; Cattaneo & Boldrini 2016). However, in general, all the cases report far what Schön (1983) labelled 'reflection-on-action', to distinguish it from 'reflection-in-action'.

The teacher's reflective process does not take place only *a posteriori*, when the task is already accomplished, but it could also be incorporated into the actions, occurring at the beginning of it or during the process. After the accomplishment of a task, 'we reflect on-action, thinking back on what we have done in order to discover how our knowing-in-action may have contributed to an unexpected outcome' (Schön 1983, p. 26). In so doing, students become aware of what they have done, can self-evaluate their action, and make sense of experiences to orient themselves for current and future action. Reflection-on-action is a retrospective contemplation and analysis of previous learning to uncover the development of one's knowledge, used in a specific situation. The reflective teacher or student compares the task accomplished with previous similar ones - analysing how the situation might have been managed differently - and pays attention to what needs to change in the future (Bontemps-Hommen et al. 2020; Burhan-Horasanlı & Ortactepe 2016). Reflection-in-action happens when action and reflection are simultaneous: the learner constantly adjusts and changes the new information assimilated while performing. Reflecting in-action, practitioners can stop during an action, make necessary adjustments, make informed decisions, and, if necessary, change the way of accomplishing the task. 'Distinguished reflection-in-action from other kinds of reflection is its immediate significance for action' (Schön 1987, p. 29). Capturing reflection-on-action is usually easier and more frequent than capturing reflection-in-action, because it is more demanding (Moghaddam et al. 2019; Zhu 2011). This makes 'the need for nurturing reflection-in-action' (Zhu 2011, p. 772) necessary and particularly worthy of investigation. As reflection-in-action takes place while practising, it is difficult to replicate it outside learning itself (Edwards 2017). One way may be to prepare students to reflect in-action 'by anticipating possible scenarios and various options in response' (Bell and Mladenovic 2013, p. 9) and to refer to voiced inner dialogues - a form of reflection-on-action - as a 'means of moving both individuals and the organisation towards reflection-in-action and reflexive engagement' (Holton & Grandy 2016, p. 387).

Cowan (2017) proposes a model based on four types of reflection (he added reflection-for-action – an anticipatory reflection that precedes activity, and composting reflection, a second-order reflection arising from reconsidering previous reflective learning). Although it is not clear which of the two anticipates the other, reflection on-action and in-action are evidently interconnected and reciprocally functional. The researcher illustrated how linking various types of reflection is useful to generate significant learning outcomes, and he argued that complementary (types of) reflection tasks should be structured, and that an electronic portfolio to collect them should be planned when designing learning courses. In a similar vein, in their study on English-as-aforeign-language teachers, Burhan-Horasanlı and Ortaçtepe (2016) showed how 'reflective practice is an embedded process benefiting from the interplay of reflection on, in and for-action working together to lead to positive outcomes in teachers' practices and professional development at large' (p. 379). Without initially distinguishing the two processes, Roessger (2015) stated that

when dealing with learning contexts, any kind of reflection can happen if some prerequisites are already met. In particular, based on a conceptualisation of instrumental learning which foresees the progressive acquisition of 'knows' (declarative knowledge), 'moves' (motor skills), 'knows-how' (procedural knowledge), 'shows-how' (competence) and 'does' (performance). Reflection can happen once some of these elements are internalised and automatised. For reflection-in-action to happen, some basis must already be acquired to be mobilised (in reflection-in-action) and applied across learning situations. For this transfer to happen, however, low complexity tasks and low cognitive load are needed. In this view, reflection-in-action can be considered the explicit expression of learning while also a means to reinforce and reconstruct that learning (Edwards 2017). Roessger (2015), Edwards (2017) and Tigelaar et al. (2017) shared the idea that reflecting on-action is a prerequisite for reflecting in-action, but they also both admit that the notion that undertaking reflection-on-action assignments develops the reflection-in-action skills needed for practice is not demonstrated in the literature.

Finding positivity in professional life and using the own experience for professional and personal growth

Many people don't realise the stress and negativity that surrounds teachers on a daily basis. It comes from parents with complaints about grades and discipline issues. It comes from the news talking about budget cuts to education. Unfortunately, it can also come from fellow teachers, who perhaps should have left the profession a while ago, but are waiting for retirement to come. Stress arises from working long hours and dealing with challenging students and curriculum.

Eleven years in teaching. When you add up that experience, when you've already gone a certain way, you've already experienced burnout, you can already appreciate what's in that job constant. You can recognise some kind of process where sometimes you are just emotionally immature as a teacher. It is already possible to evaluate the process as it has gone – a good part of the road. R31

It is generally known that the teaching profession is one of the most directly impacted by social, economic, and technological changes. Consequently, teachers must regard their career as a continuing learning process in order to keep up with this ever-changing world. This means that the teacher consistently has room for improvement, since there is always some skill to sharpen or some didactic issue to solve. However, the path to self-improvement is not a fixed one, it is different for every one of us. So, this personal journey has to be preceded by deep reflection and careful planning before setting the own professional growth goals. Also, teachers should not stress enough that the road to self-development is not for the faint-hearted, since it demands constant attention and full commitment. Nevertheless, it can be a most satisfying reward to be able to see the positive outcomes of the goals teachers have set for themselves in the classroom. Being positive and optimistic takes a whole lot of effort, and as human beings, teachers are supposed to welcome all of one's own feelings.

There are some specific things teachers can put into practice to cultivate positivity and confidence (Waldman, 2022):

- *Emotions*. A teacher needs to focus on personal emotional state and to remind the self what s/he loves about teaching. These emotions will evoke positive thinking, confidence, and a higher sense of purpose and will affect the way a teacher presents the self to students.
- *Gratitude*. Expressing gratitude increases happiness, optimism, and overall health. Teachers and school administration can focus on recognising one another and showing appreciation for tangible and intangible things. This will boost the teacher's own confidence and positivity, as well as pass it on to others.
- *Celebrating.* It is essential to recognise teachers' own achievements and those of colleague teachers. Whether large or small, it is so impactful to celebrate accomplishments. Bringing teachers together to celebrate is a beneficial approach to boosting morale, positivity, and confidence.
- Optimism. Expressing optimism has a powerful effect on teachers and school administration. Sticking with a 'can-do' attitude will create a positive environment and instil confidence in teachers. Optimism fuels problem-solving solutions, which keep teachers feeling encouraged rather than discouraged. Positivity in teachers creates supportive work conditions where resilience and grit are sure to be exhibited.
- Unity. Focusing on creating unity amongst teachers and school administration. Bringing staff together and creating a place for connection, is an important way to foster positive relationships. When teachers feel a sense of belonging, they grow a greater sense of confidence.
- *Posture*. A teacher's posture indicates how confident s/he feels in their own abilities as a teacher. A strong stance, shoulders back, and eye contact are important in communicating teacher's confidence.
- Self-care. Physical, mental, and emotional health are all important factors for nurturing positive and confident teachers. Getting enough sleep, exercising, eating nutritious meals, and finding healthy ways to deal with stress, are ar-

eas of self-care that will support a teacher's health and well-being. Teachers are taking wonderful care of students, so it's critical to also take great care of the self.

Being a dedicated teacher means going through a lifelong learning process. So, a teacher who has a clear sense of improvement and progress should consider continuous learning a priority. In order to maintain and improve efficiency, teachers should keep themselves up-to-date regarding instructional methods, educational technology, the curriculum, etc.

Furthermore, another powerful reason for never stopping learning is to avoid burnout and demotivation. Undoubtedly, going the extra mile to keep teaching practices fresh and engaging helps foster a successful learning environment.

A teacher's leadership experience includes her/his personality, the school environment, and the students. In the leadership experience of the teacher within the school environment, the personal and professional teacher's 'I' is important, as s/he is able to adapt to the school environment, understanding the organisational climate and culture of school, paying essential attention to the students' learning, giving opportunities for them to express themselves creatively and maintaining their dignity. A teacher's professionalism in leadership experience means professional positivity, personal and professional growth, constant reflection on professional limitations and opportunities, pedagogical talent in shaping creative tasks for students, professional contribution to students' meaningful learning and taking responsibility for students' learning results.

References

- Abry, T., Bryce, C. I., Swanson, J., Bradley, R. H., Fabes, R. A., & Corwyn, R. F. (2017). Classroom-level adversity: Associations with children's internalizing and externalizing behaviors across elementary school. Developmental Psychology, 53(3), 497–510. doi:10.1037/dev0000268
- Andriessen, J. (2006). Arguing to learn. In R. K. Sawyer (Ed.). Cambridge Handbook of the Learning Sciences. (pp. 443–459). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- April, K. A., Dharani, B., & Peters, K. (2012). Impact of locus of control expectancy on level of well-being. Review of European Studies, 4(2), 124–137. doi: 10.5539/res.v4n2p124
- Arastaman, G. (2019). Reconsidering the career construction in modern era. In Fidan, T.(Ed.). Vocational Identity and Career Construction in Education. (pp. 1–15). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-5225-7772-0.ch001
- Argyris, Ch. (1962). Interpersonal Competence and Organisational Effectiveness. Homewood, Il-Ilnois: The Dorsey Press, Inc.
- Baker, P. H. (2005). Managing student behavior: how ready are teachers to meet the challenge? American Secondary Education, 33(3), 51–64. http://www.jstor.org/stable/41064554

Ballard, K., & Bates, A. (2008). Making a Connection between Student Achievement, Teacher

Accountability, and Quality Classroom Instruction. The Qualitative Report, 13(4), 560-580. https://doi.org/ 10.46743/2160-3715/2008.1574 Bell, A., & Mladenovic, R. (2013). How tutors understand and engage with reflective practices. Reflective Practice, 14(1), 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1080/14623943.2012.732949

Bennis W. (2009). On Becoming a Leader. (pp. 33–48). Philadelphia, PA: Perseus Books Group. Bereiter, C. (2002). Education and Mind in the Knowledge Age. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

- Berglund, I., Gustavsson, S., & Andersson, I. (2020). Vocational teacher students' critical reflections in site-based education. International Journal of Training Research, 18(1), 22–36. https://doi.or g/10.1080/14480220.2020.1747784
- Boerma, M., Coyle, E. A., Dietrich, M. A., Dintzner, M. R., Drayton, S. J., Early, J. L., Edginton, A. N., Horlen, C. K., Kirkwood, C. K., Lin, A. Y. F., Rager, M. L., Shah-Manek, B., Welch, A. C., & Williams, N. T. (2017). Point/Counterpoint: Are Outstanding Leaders Born or Made? American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education, 81(3), 58. doi: 10.5688/ajpe81358
- Bontemps-Hommen, M. C. M. M. L., Baart, A. J., & Vosman, F. J. H. (2020). Professional workplace-learning. Can practical wisdom be learned? Vocations and Learning, 13, 479–501. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12186-020-09249-x
- Birkeland, S. E., & Curtis, R. (2006). Ensuring the Support and Development of new Teachers in the Boston Public Schools: A Proposal to Improve Teacher Quality and Retention. Boston, MA: Boston Public Schools.
- Bozak, A., & Fidan, T. (2019). Vocational personalities of school principals: A phenomenological study. In Fidan, T. (Ed.). Vocational Identity and Career Construction in Education. (pp. 178-197). IGI Global. https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-5225-7772-0.ch010
- Bulotsky-Shearer, R. J., Dominguez, X., & Bell, E. R. (2012). Preschool classroom behavioral context and school readiness outcomes for low-income children: A multilevel examination of child and classroom level influences. Journal of Educational Psychology, 104(2), 421–438. doi:10.1037/ a0026301
- Burhan-Horasanlı, E., & Ortaçtepe, D. (2016). Reflective practice-oriented online discussions: A study on EFL teachers' reflection-on, in and for-action. Teaching and Teacher Education, 59, 372–382. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2016.07.002
- Boud, D., Keogh, M., & Walker, D. (1985). Reflection: Turning Experience Into Learning. London: Kogan Page.
- Buyse, E., Verschueren, K., Doumen, S., Van Damme, J., & Maes, F. (2008). Classroom problem behavior and teacher-child relationships in kindergarten: The moderating role of classroom climate. Journal of School Psychology, 46(4), 367–391. doi:10.1016/j.jsp.2007.06.009
- Cattaneo, A. A. P., Motta, E. (2021). "I Reflect, Therefore I Am ... a Good Professional". On the Relationship between Reflection-on-Action, Reflection-in-Action and Professional Performance in Vocational Education. Vocations and Learning, 14, 185–204. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12186-020-09259-9
- Cattaneo, A., & Boldrini, E. (2016). Individual and Collaborative Writing-to-Learn Activities in Vocational Education: An Overview of Different Instructional Strategies. In G. Ortoleva, M. Bétrancourt, & S. Billett (Eds.). Writing for Professional Development. (pp. 188–208). Leiden, The Netherlands: Brill.
- Clotfelter, C. T., Ladd, H. F., Vigdor, J. L., & Wheeler, J. (2007). High-Poverty Schools and the Distribution of Teachers and Principals. Washington, DC: National Center for Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Educational Research. http://www.caldercenter.org/PDF/1001057_High_Poverty.pdf
- Collie, R. J., & Martin, A. J. (2016). Adaptability: An important capacity for effective teachers. Educational Practice and Theory, 38(1), 27–39. doi: 10.7459/ept/38.1.03
- Collie, R. J., & Martin, A. M. (2017). Teachers' sense of adaptability: Examining links with perceived autonomy support, teachers' psychological functioning, and students' numeracy achievement. Learning and Individual Differences, 55, 29–39. doi: 10.1016/j.lindif.2017.03.003
- Cowan, J. (2020). Students' evidenced claims for development of abilities arising from linked reflection-on-action and reflection-for-action. Reflective Practice, 21(2), 159–170. https://doi.or g/10.1080/14623943.2020.1716709.

- Cowan, J. (2017). Linking reflective activities for self-managed development of higher-level abilities. Journal of Perspectives in Applied Academic Practice, 5(1), 67–74. https://doi. org/10.14297/jpaap.v5i1.242
- Davis, H. A. (2003). Conceptualizing the role and influence of student-teacher relationships on children's social and cognitive development. Educational Psychologist, 38, 207–234. https:// doi.org/10.1207/S15326985EP3804_2
- DeRoche, E. F. (2011). Leadership for Character Education Programs. Journal of Humanistic Counseling, Education, and Development, 39, 41–46. doi:10.1002/j.2164-490X.2000.tb00092.x
- Dishion, T. J., & Tipsord, J. M. (2011). Peer contagion in child and adolescent social and emotional development. Annual Review of Psychology, 62, 189–214. doi:10.1146/annurev. psych.093008.100412
- Drucker, P. F. (1993). Post-Capitalist Society. New York: HarperBusiness.
- Edwards, S. (2017). Reflecting differently. New dimensions: Reflection-before-action and reflection-beyond-action. International Practice Development Journal, 7(1). Article 2. https://doi. org/10.19043/ipdj.71.002
- Emmer, E. T., & Stough, L. M. (2001). Classroom management: a critical part of educational psychology with implications for teacher education. Educational Psychologist, 36(2), 103–112. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1207/S15326985EP3602_5
- Ericsson, K. A., Krampe, R. T., & Tesch-Romer, C. (1993). The role of deliberate practice in the acquisition of expert performance. Psychological Review, 100(3), 363–406. https://psycnet.apa. org/doi/10.1037/0033-295X.100.3.363
- Espin, C. A., & Yell, M. L. (1994). Critical indicators of effective teaching for preservice teachers: relationship between teaching behaviours and ratings of effectiveness. Teacher Education and Teacher Education, 17, 154–169. doi: N/A
- Fernandes, M. T. (2022). How early life experiences shape the leader you become. MintLounge. https://lifestyle.livemint.com/news/talking-point/how-early-life-experiences-shape-the-leader-you-become-111662348578453.html
- Flower, A., McKenna, J. W., Bunuan, R. L., Muething, C. S., & Vega Jr, R. (2014). Effects of the good behavior game on challenging behaviors in school settings. Review of Educational Research, 84, 546–571. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.3102/0034654314536781
- Fronek, P., Kendall, M., Ungerer, G., Malt, J. Eugarde, E., & Geraghty, T. (2009). Too hot to handle: reflections on professional boundaries in practice. Reflective Practice, 10(2), 161–171, doi: 10.1080/14623940902786172
- Furrer, C., & Skinner, E. (2003). Sense of relatedness as a factor in children's academic engagement and performance. Journal of Educational Psychology, 95(1), 148–162. https://psycnet.apa.org/ doi/10.1037/0022-0663.95.1.148
- Giedraitis, A., & Ispyrian, A. (2019). Improvement of organizational culture: a case study of Lithuanian educational institution. Regional Formation and Development Studies, 1(27), 15–24. https://doi.org/10.15181/rfds.v27i1.1864
- Gottfried, M. A., & Harven, A. (2015). The effect of having classmates with emotional and behavioral disorders and the protective nature of peer gender. The Journal of Educational Research, 108(1), 45-61. doi:10.1080/00220671.2013.836468
- Granziera, H., Collie, R. J., & Martin, A. J. (2019). Adaptability: An important capacity to cultivate among pre-service teachers in teacher education programmes. Psychology Teaching Review, 25(1), 60–66. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1216443.pdf
- Guskey, T. R. (1982). Differences in teachers' perceptions of personal control of positive versus negative student learning outcomes. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 7(1), 70-80. https://doi.org/10.1016/0361-476X(82)90009-1
- Hagger, M. S., & Chatzisarantis, N.L.D. (2012). Transferring motivation from educational to extramural contexts: A review of the trans-contextual model. European Journal of Psychology and Education, 27, 60-66. doi: 10.1007/s10212-011-0082-5

- Halpin, A. W., & Croft, D. B. (1963). The Organizational Climate of Schools. Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago.
- Harrel, P., Leavell, A., van Tassel, F., & McKee, K. (2004). No teacher left behind: results of a five-year study of teacher attrition. Action in Teacher Education, 26(2), 47–59. doi: 10.1080/01626620.2004.10463323
- Harrison, J. R., Vannest, K., Davis, J., & Reynolds, C. (2012). Common problem behaviors of children and adolescents in general education classrooms in the United States. Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 20(1), 55–64. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1177/1063426611421157
- Hatton, N., & Smith, D. (1995). Reflection in teacher education: Towards definition and implementation. Teaching and Teacher Education, 11(1), 33-49. https://doi.org/10.1016/0742-051X(94)00012-U
- Heck, R. H., & Marcoulides, G. A. (1993). Principal Leadership Behaviors and School Achievement. NASSP Bulletin, 77(553), 20–28. http://www.rowmaneducation.com/Journals/JSL/
- Helker, K., & Wosnitza, M. (2014). Responsibility in the school context-development and validation of a heuristic framework. Frontline Learning Research, 4, 115–139. doi: 10.14786/flr. v2i2.99
- Hetzner, S., Gartmeier, M., Heid, H., & Gruber, H. (2011). Error orientation and reflection at work. Vocations and Learning, 4(1), 25–39. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12186-010-9047-0.
- Holec, H. (1981). Autonomy in Foreign Language Learning. Oxford: OUP.
- Holton, J. A., & Grandy, G. (2016). Voiced inner dialogue as relational reflection-on-action: The case of middle managers in health care. Management Learning, 47(4), 369–390. https://doi. org/10.1177/1350507616629602.
- Honig, M. [Ed.] (2006). New Directions in Education Policy Implementation: Confronting Complexity. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Hoy, W. K., & Miskel, C. G. (2005). Educational Administration: Theory, Research, and Practice. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Johnson, S.M. (1990). Teachers at Work: Achieving Success in Our Schools. New York: Basic Books.
- Johnson, S.M., & Birkeland S.E. (2003). Pursuing a 'sense of success': New teachers explain their career decisions. American Educational Research Journal, 40(3), 581–617.
- Johnson, S. M., Kraft, M. A., & Papay, J. P. (2012). How context matters in high-need schools: The effects of teachers' working conditions on their professional satisfaction and their students' achievement. Teachers College Record, 114(10), 1–39. https://scholar.harvard.edu/mkraft/ publications/how-context-matters-high-need-schools-effects-teachers%E2%80%99-working-conditions-their
- Jolles, J. W., Fleetwood-Wilson, A., Nakayama, S., Stumpe, M. C., Johnstone, R. A., & Manica, A. (2014). The role of previous social experience on risk-taking and leadership in three-spined sticklebacks. Behavioral Ecology, 25(6), 1395–1401. https://doi.org/10.1093/beheco/aru146
- Joseph, J. (1998). The equal environment assumption of the classical twin method: a critical analysis. Journal of Mind and Behavior, 19(3), 325–358. https://www.jstor.org/stable/43854406
- Jussim, L., & Harber, K. D. (2005). Teacher expectations and self-fulfilling prophecies: Knowns and unknowns, resolved and unresolved controversies. Personality and Social Psychology Review, 9, 131–155. http://nwkpsych.rutgers.edu/~kharber/publications/Jussim.&.Harber.2005.%20 Teacher%20Expectations%20and%20Self-Fulfilling%20Prophesies.pdf
- Jussim, L., Eccles, J., & Madon, S. (1996). Social perception, social stereotypes, and teacher expectations: Accuracy and the quest for the powerful self-fulfilling prophecy. Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 28, 281–388. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60240-3
- Kanter, R. M. (1999). The Enduring Skills of Change Leaders. Leader to Leader, 13, 15–22. https:// www.scribd.com/document/122464796/The-Enduring-Skills-of-Change-Leaders-Kanter
- Kaufman, J. S., Jaser, S. S., Vaughan, E. L., Reynolds, J. S., Di Donato, J., Bernard, S. N., & Kember, D. (2001). Reflective Teaching and Learning in the Health Profession. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

- Koç, M. H. (2019). An exploration of career adaptation of teachers: A comparison between public and private school teachers. In Tuncer Fidan (Ed.). Vocational Identity and Career Construction in Education. (pp. 141–159). IGI Global. https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-5225-7772- 0.ch008
- Kraft, M. A., & Papay, J. P. (2014). Can Professional Environments in Schools Promote Teacher Development? Explaining Heterogeneity in Returns to Teaching Experience. Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 36(4), 476–500. https://scholar.harvard.edu/sites/scholar.harvard. edu/files/mkraft/files/kraft_papay__prof_env_teacher_development_eepa_full.pdf
- Ladd, H. (2009). Teachers' perceptions of their working conditions: How predictive of policy-relevant outcome? CALDER Working Paper No. 33. https://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/ publication/33306/1001440-Teachers-Perceptions-of-Their-Working-Conditions-How-Predictive-of-Policy-Relevant-Outcomes-.PDF
- Lauermann, F. (2014). Teacher responsibility from the teacher's perspective. International Journal of Educational Research, 65, 75–89. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2013.09.005
- Lauermann, F., & Karabenick, S. A. (2013). The meaning and measure of teachers' sense of responsibility for educational outcomes. Teaching and Teacher Education, 30(1), 13–26. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2012.10.001
- Lazaro, N., & Reinders, H. (2009). Language Learning and Teaching in the Self-access Center: A Practical Guide for Teachers. Sydney, Australia: NCELTR.
- Leung, D. Y. P., & Kember, D. (2003). The relationship between approaches to learning and reflection upon practice. Educational Psychology Review, 23(1), 61–71. doi: 10.1080/01443410303221
- Lewin, K. (1933). The Conceptual Representation and the Measurement of Psychological Forces. Durham, North Carolina: Duke University Press.
- Li, W.-D., Arvey, R. D., Zhang, Z., & Song, Z. (2012). Do leadership role occupancy and transformational leadership share the same genetic and environmental influences? Leadership Quartertly, 23(2), 233–243. doi: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.08.007
- Likert, R. (1961). New Patterns of Management. (pp. 222–236). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Little, D. (2004). Constructing a Theory of Learner Autonomy: Some Steps Along the Way. Oulu: Publications of the Faculty of Education in Oulu University.
- Little, D. (2000). Why focus on learning rather than teaching? The International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language.
- Little, D. (1991). Learner Autonomy: Definitions, Issues and Problems. Dublin: Authentik.
- Lodewyk, K. R. & Winne, P. H. (2005). Relations among the structure of learning tasks, achievement, and changes in self-efficacy in secondary students. Journal of Educational Psychology, 97(1), 3–12. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.97.1.3
- Maggiori, C., Johnston, C. S., Krings, F., Massoudi, K., & Rossier, J. (2013). The role of career adaptability and work conditions on general and professional well-being. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 83(3), 437-449. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2013.07.001
- Mann, K., Gordon, J., & MacLeod, A. (2009). Reflection and reflective practice in health professions education: A systematic review. Advances in Health Sciences Education, 14(4), 595–621. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10459-007-9090-2
- Martin, A., Strnadová, I., Hajkova, V., Němec, Z., & Květoňová, L. (2019). Teaching assistants working with students who have a disability: The role of adaptability in enhancing their workplace outcomes. International Journal of Inclusive Education, 25(5), 565–587. https://doi.org/10.108 0/13603116.2018.1563646
- Martin, A.J., Nejad, H., Colmar, S. & Liem, G.A.D. (2012). Adaptability: Conceptual and empirical perspectives on responses to change, novelty and uncertainty. Australian Journal of Guidance and Counselling, 22(1), 58–81. doi: 10.1017/ jgc.2012.8.
- Matteucci, M.C., Guglielmi, D. & Lauermann, F. (2017). Teachers' sense of responsibility for educational outcomes and its associations with teachers' instructional approaches and professional

wellbeing. Social Psychology Education, 20, 275–298. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-017-9369-y

- Matteucci, M. C. (2017). Attributional retraining and achievement goals: An exploratory study on theoretical and empirical relationship. European Review of Applied Psychology, 67(5), 279–289. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.erap.2017.08.004
- McCombs, B. L. (2007). Strategies for generating positive affect in high school students. In R. J. Seidel & A. L. Kett (Eds.). Workbook Companion for: Principles of Learning to Strategies for Instruction: A Needs-Based Focus on High School Adolescents. (pp. 323–337). Norwell, MA: Springer.
- McCombs, B. L., & Miller, L. (2007). Learner-Centered Classroom Practices and assessments: Maximizing Student Motivation, Learning, and Achievement. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Mercer, N. (2000). Words and Minds: How We use Language to Think Together. London: Routledge.
- Mezirow, J. (1991). Transformative Dimensions of Adult Learning. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Milanowski, A. T., & Odden, A. R. (2007). A New Approach to the Cost of Teacher Turnover. Working Paper 13. Seattle, WA, USA: School Finance Redesign Project, Center on Reinventing Public Education.
- Miles, M. B. (1969). The Development of Innovative Climates in Educational Organisations. USA: Educational Resources Informational Center. ERIC Document ED 039 971.
- Miner, J. B. (2015). Organizational Behavior 4: From Theory to Practice. New York: Routledge.
- Moghaddam, R. G., Davoudi, M., Adel, S. M. R., & Amirian, S. M. R. (2019). Reflective teaching through journal writing: A study on EFL teachers' reflection-for-action, reflection-in-action, and reflection-on-action. English Teaching & Learning, 44, 277–296. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s42321-019-00041-2
- Moon, J. A. (1999a). Reflection in Learning and Professional Development. London: Kogan Page.
- Moon, J. A. (1999b). Learning Journals: A Handbook for Academics, Students and Professional Development. London: Kogan Page.
- Moon, J. A. (2004). A Handbook of Reflective and Experiential Learning. New York: Routledge Falmer.
- Motta, E., Cattaneo, A., & Gurtner, J.-L. (2014). Mobile devices to bridge the gap in VET: ease of use and usefulness as indicators for their acceptance. Journal of Education and Training, Studies, 2(1), 165–179. doi: 10.11114/jets.v2i1.184
- Motta, E., Cattaneo, A., & Gurtner, J.-L. (2017). Co-regulations of Learning in small groups of chef apprentices. When do they appear and what influences them? Empirical Research in Vocational Education and Training, 9, 15. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40461-017-0059-y
- Murdock, T. B., Miller, A., & Kohlhardt, J. (2004). Effects of classroom context variables on high school students' judgments of the acceptability and likelihood of cheating. Journal of Educational Psychology, 96(4), 765–777. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0022-0663.96.4.765
- Narciss, S. (2004). The impact of informative tutoring feedback and self-efficacy on motivation and achievement in concept learning. Experimental Psychology, 51(3), 214–228. doi: 10.1027/1618-3169.51.3.214
- Nelson, J., Benner, G. J., Lane, K., & Smith, B. W. (2004). Academic achievement of K-12 students with emotional and behavioral disorders. Council for Exceptional Children, 71(1), 59–73. https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/213400935.pdf
- Noeth-Abele, Ch. (2020). Disruptive Student Behavior: The Effects on Various Constituent Groups in Large Suburban School Communities. Education Doctoral Paper No. 456. https://fisherpub. sjf.edu/education_etd/456
- O'Mara, A. J., Marsh, H. W., Craven, R. G., & Debus, R. L. (2006). Do self-concept interventions make a difference? A synergistic blend of construct validation and meta-analysis. Educational Psychologist, 41(3), 181–206. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep4103_4

- Otis, N., Grouzet, F. M. E., & Pelletier, L. G. (2005). Latent motivational change in an academic setting: A 3-year longitudinal study. Journal of Educational Psychology, 97(2), 170–183. https:// psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0022-0663.97.2.170
- Owens, R. E., & Valesky, T. C. (2015). Organizational Behavior in Education: Leadership and School Reform. New York: Pearson.
- Papay, J.P. & Kraft, M.A. (2013). Productivity returns to experience in the teacher labor market: Methodological challenges and new evidence on long-term career growth. Unpublished manuscript. http://scholar.harvard.edu/mkraft/publications/productivity-returns-experience-teacher-labor-market-methodological-challenges-a
- Papert, S. (1993). The Children's Machine: Rethinking School in the Age of the Computer. New York: Basic Books.
- Parsonson, B. S. (2012). Evidence-based classroom behaviour management strategies. Kairaranga, 13(1), 16–23. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ976654.pdf
- Pietsch, J., Walker, R., & Chapman, E. (2003). The relationship among self-concept, self-efficacy, and performance in mathematics during secondary school. Journal of Educational Psychology, 95(3), 589–603. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.95.3.589
- Pintrich, P. R. (2003). A motivational science perspective on the role of student motivation in learning and teaching contexts. Journal of Educational Psychology, 95(4), 667–686. https://psycnet. apa.org/doi/10.1037/0022-0663.95.4.667
- Porfeli, E. J., & Savickas, M. L. (2012). Career Adapt-Abilities Scale-USA Form: Psychometric properties and relation to vocational identity. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 80(3), 748-753. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2012.01.009
- Prastiawan, A., Gunawan, I., Purnama Putra, A., Dewantoro, D. A., Selfi Cholifah, P., Sakinah Nuraini, N. L., Angga Rini, T., Pradipta, F. A., Raharjo, K. M., Prestiadi, D., & Surahman, E. (2020). Organizational climate in school organizations: a literature review. 1st International Conference On Information Technology And Education (ICITE 2020). Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research, 508, 725–728. doi: 10.2991/assehr.k.201214.327
- Price-Mitchell, M. (2015). Cultivating creativity in standards-based classrooms. Edutopia, August 14. https://www.edutopia.org/blog/cultivating-creativity-standards-based-classrooms-mari-lyn-price-mitchell
- Raya, J. M. (2009). Teacher education for learner autonomy: An analysis of the EuroPAL contribution to a knowledge base. Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 3(3), 221–238. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501220903404459
- Reeve, J., Nix, G., & Hamm, D. (2003). Testing models of the experience of self-determination in intrinsic motivation and the conundrum of choice. Journal of Educational Psychology, 95(2), 375–392. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0022-0663.95.4.667
- Roessger, K. M. (2015). But does it work? Reflective activities, learning outcomes and instrumental learning in continuing professional development. Journal of Education and Work, 28(1), 83–105. https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080.2013.805186.
- Rogoff, B. (1990). Apprenticeship in Thinking: Cognitive Development in Social Context. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Ronfeldt, M., Loeb, S., & Wyckoff, J. (2013). How teacher turnover harms student achievement. American Educational Research Journal, 50(1), 4–36. https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831212463813
- Savickas, M. L. (1997). Career adaptability: An integrative construct for life- span, life-space theory. The Career Development Quarterly, 45(3), 247–259. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-0045.1997. tb00469.x
- Sawyer, R. K. (2012). Explaining Creativity: The Science of Human Innovation. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Sawyer, R. K. (2011). What makes good teachers great? The artful balance of structure and improvisation. In R. K. Sawyer (Ed.). Structure and improvisation in creative teaching. (pp. 1–24). New York: Cambridge University Press.

- Sawyer, R. K. (2003). Emergence in creativity and development. In R. K. Sawyer, V. John-Steiner, S. Moran, R. Sternberg, D. H., Feldman, M. Csikszentmihalyi & J. Nakamura (Eds.). Creativity and Development. (pp. 12–60). New York: Oxford.
- Scardamalia, M., & Bereiter, C. (2006). Knowledge building. In R. K. Sawyer (Ed.). Cambridge handbook of the learning sciences. (pp. 97–115). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Schön, D. A. (1983). The reflective practitioner. How Professionals Think in Action. New York: Basic Books.
- Schön, D. A. (1987). Educating Reflective Practitioners. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Siebert, C. J. (2005). Promoting preservice teachers success in classroom management by leveraging a local unions resources: a professional development school initiative. Education, 125, 385–392. http://journals825.home.mindspring.com/csj/html
- Smith, T. E., Thompson, A. M., & Maynard, B. R. (2022). Self-management interventions for reducing challenging behaviors among school-age students: a systematic review. Campbell Systematic Reviews, 18, e1223. wileyonlinelibrary.com/journal/https://doi.org/10.1002/cl2.1223
- Steinberg, M. P., Allensworth, E., & Johnson, D.W. (2011). Student and teacher safety in Chicago Public Schools: The Roles of Community Context and School Social organization. Consortium on Chicago School Research. https://consortium.uchicago.edu/publication-tags/school-climate?page=10
- Tagiuri, R. (1968). The Concept of Organizational Climate. Organizational Climate. R. Tagiuri and G. Litwin (Eds.). (pp. 11–32). Boston: Harvard university Press.
- Toffoli, D., & Sockett, G. (2015). University teachers' perceptions of online informal learning of English (OILE). Computer Assisted Language Learning, 28(1), 7–21. doi: 10.1080/09588221.2013.776970
- Tigelaar, D., Sins, P., & van Driel, J. (2017). Fostering students' reflection: Examining relations between elements of teachers' knowledge. Research Papers in Education, 32(3), 353–375. https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2016.1225790
- Torres, L. L. (2022). School Organizational Culture and Leadership: Theoretical Trends and New Analytical Proposals. Education Sciences, 12(4), 254. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci12040254
- van den Berg, Y. H. M., & Stoltz, S. (2018). Enhancing social inclusion of children with externalizing problems through classroom seating arrangements: A randomized controlled trial. Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 26(1), 31–41. doi: 10.1177/1063426617740561
- Waldman, M. (2022). Nurturing positivity and confidence in our educators. Early Childhood Education Blog. February 25. https://www.himama.com/blog/nurturing-positivity-and-confidence-in-our-educators/
- Walls, T. A., & Little, T. D. (2005). Relations among personal agency, motivation, and school adjustment in early adolescence. Journal of Educational Psychology, 97(1), 23–31. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.97.1.23
- Weimer, M. (2002). Learner-Centred Teaching. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Whitted, K. S. (2011). Understanding how social and emotional skill deficits contribute to school failure. Preventing School Failure, 55(1), 10–16. doi: 10.1080/10459880903286755
- Wenden, A. L. (1991). Learner Strategies for Learner Autonomy: Planning and Implementing Learner Training for Language Learners. Hertfordshire, UK: Prentice-Hall International.
- Zhu, X. (2011). Student teachers' reflection during practicum: Plenty on action, few in action. Reflective Practice, 12(6), 763–775. https://doi.org/10.1080/14623943.2011.601097
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Kitsantas, A. (2005). Homework practices and academic achievement: The mediating role of self-efficacy and perceived responsibility beliefs. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 30(4), 397–417. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2005.05.003
- Zins, J. E., Weissberg, R. P., Wang, M. C., & Walberg, H. J. (Eds.) (2004). Building academic success on social and emotional learning: What does the research say? New York: Teachers College Press.

2 Teacher Personal Leadership While Cooperating With The School Community

Teacher personal leadership is about taking charge of your own life and responsibilities. Part of growing as a leader is to be always ready to expand a teacher's capacities and strengths. It is also about having the courage to speak up even when a teacher is not sure of her/himself. Teacher leaders need to take the courage to push themselves forward and to argue for their point of view. Effective teacher leaders also take the courage to ask for support and make the effort to be well-prepared when facing big challenges. Help-seeking is an act of courage, and it provides others with the joy of knowing that fellow teachers have contributed (Katzenbach & Smith, 1993).

Teacher personal leadership addresses the leader's technical, psychological and moral development, and its impact on his or her leadership presence, skill and behaviour. It is, essentially, the key to making the theory of the two outer behavioural levels practical. Personal leadership is the answer to the inner development of a person's leadership (Collins, 2001).

The first element, *technical knowhow and skill*, is about knowing one's technical weaknesses and taking action to update one's knowledge and skills. Scouller (2011) suggested that there are three areas of know-how that all teachers leaders should learn: time management, individual psychology and group psychology. The six sets of skills that underlie the teacher's leadership behaviours: group problem-solving and planning; group decision-making; interpersonal ability, which has a strong overlap with emotional intelligence; managing group process; assertiveness; and goal-setting.

The second element, *attitude toward others*, is about developing the right attitude toward colleagues in order to maintain the teacher leader's relationships throughout the group's journey to its shared vision or goal. The right attitude is to believe that school community members are as important as oneself, and to see leadership as an act of service (Scouller, 2011). Although there is a moral aspect to this and a practical side – for a teacher leader's attitude and behaviour toward school community members will largely influence how much they respect and trust that person and want to work with her/him. The five parts of the right attitude toward others are the following: interdependence, appreciation, caring, service, and balance. The two keys to developing these five aspects are to ensure that:

- There is a demanding, distinctive, shared vision that everyone in the school community cares about and wants to achieve.
- The teacher leader works on self-mastery to reduce self-esteem issues that make it hard to connect with, appreciate and adopt an attitude of service towards school community members.

Hence, the third element of teacher personal leadership is *self-mastery*. It emphasises self-awareness and flexible command of one's mind, which allows the teacher leader to let go of previously unconscious limiting beliefs and their associated defensive habits. It also enables teacher leaders to connect more strongly with their values, let their leadership presence flow, and act authentically in serving those they lead.

Characteristics of teacher personal leadership (Rizvi, 2022):

- Teacher personal leadership is typically neither formal nor structured.
- Teachers as personal leaders often do not have designated roles, responsibilities or clearly defined roles within an organisation, and typically they do not have a lot of authority. This means that they cannot make decisions that bind other community members within the school.
- Teachers as personal leaders are not held to stringent accountability standards within the school; they have more credibility with their followers who trust and respect the teacher.
- Teachers as personal leaders are connected to followers (students, fellow teachers, other school community members). Teachers build trust and rapport with their followers, which can ultimately make it easier for them to get things done.
- Teachers as personal leaders do not care about their entitlement. This is because they do not view themselves as being above the people they are supposed to work with. As a result, teachers are more likely listen to feedback or criticism from their followers, and act in a collaborative manner. This attract followers and make it easier for the teacher to achieve goals.
- Teacher personal leadership is not dependent on a specific job or title within the school. This means that anyone can be a personal leader, regardless of their position at school.
- Personal leadership focuses on developing relationships and building trust, rather than relying on formal authority. This can lead to overall better performance and requires ongoing learning and development, which can help school community members continuously improve their skills.

Teachers implement personal leadership in collaboration with the school community, create a learning community with students in the classroom, experience support from fellow teachers, and are supported by the school administration.

Cooperation with the school community

A community can be described as the capacity for two or more people to interact and exchange ideas and assistance with a common purpose. It can be a geographical location, a school, a work environment, a religious congregation, or a neighbourhood. Additionally, it is a group of people who have a common purpose and a common language in which to discuss that purpose. The school community definition is a group of people with a mutual interest in creating an environment that encourages learning (Comer et al., 2004). Therefore, it is called a school community because of the shared interest in facilitating learning activities and all the factors that make it effective, including the staff's well-being. The purpose of a school community is to enhance engagement between the various stakeholders, including school administration, parents or guardians, the community, and the students, to empower the students to learn better. The connection between the various entities enhances the learning and teaching outcomes (Comer, 2020).

Teachers are involved in the self-government of the school and are active in it; for example, they propose ideas and seek their implementation in cooperation with the school community:

We have created a gymnasium council, which includes teachers, parents and senior high school students themselves. I had to work with the municipality. I already felt that I can actually ignite, help, feed ideas and their own fed ideas to help implement. R22

For teachers, engaging with the school community is a hands-on learning of democratic principles:

There were thirteen groups in the kindergarten, and the teachers were even more than thirteen, because there are always two of them in each group, they work, it is necessary to agree, to agree, to accept other people's opinions, to offer their own. R24

School community relations are essential to academic success. Forming strong school communities is vital for students of all ages. The following shows the importance of school communities (Howard et al., 2021; Halliday et al., 2020):

• It helps in creating student-based beneficial policies. The kind of policies in schools determines the institution's success level. When various stakeholders work together, they complement each other and generate practical and relevant policies for students.

- It promotes healthy connections and relationships among students, parents, and staff members. This leads to functional support systems that encourage students' creativity, problem-solving, and innovation. Community partnership schools involve more than the administration and teachers in the students' journeys, making them more effective.
- It helps in understanding the unique needs of their students. It takes parents' active involvement and quality community relationships to enhance the teacher-student relationship. Teachers can understand students better when working with their caregivers, especially students with unique needs.
- It creates a safe environment for learning. School communities are an opportunity for leaders to create an environment where learning happens. This can be done by creating a welcoming, open, and safe learning environment for students, staff, and parents.

School communities are places where students feel safe and supported and know they can take risks and still feel safe, even in dangerous situations. School communities have high levels of engagement among students, where students know where they can go for help when they need it. They also know they have a friend in the office when they have a problem.

Watkins (2005b) concurs that classrooms cannot operate as islands, as they are mainly influenced by the culture of the school. He argues that schools as communities provide a context for us to focus on classrooms, and that some schools function more than others as communities. The more schools function as communities, the greater the improvement in the way both learners and teachers perform their respective tasks and responsibilities. If the school culture is collaborative, supportive, caring and accommodating, this is likely to filter down to the classroom.

Schools that offer leadership opportunities for teachers appear likely to improve not just instructional quality but retention of their most effective teachers – a matter of particular importance for high-needs schools that tend to struggle with recruitment and retention (Goddard et al., 2000).

Peer support among teachers

Schools staffed by credentialed and experienced teachers who work together over an extended time generate the largest student achievement gains. Students of less-experienced teachers who had access to the most accomplished colleagues made the very greatest achievement growth gains (Jackson & Bruegmann, 2009).

Teacher collaboration provides fellow teachers opportunities to meet, share insights, create cohesive plans, and work together effectively. Some of the primary purposes of collaboration are (Graham, 2007):

- Identifying educational practices that consistently help students of all abilities across classrooms and content areas.
- Providing a safe environment in which teachers and students build healthy relationships and develop a common understanding and vocabulary for expectations and school culture.
- Sharing responsibility for student success.
- Ensuring that all voices are heard and respected in professional settings, meetings, and the classroom.

For teachers, peer support is important when they propose new ideas:

If you have the support of the department, we can do some kind of project and here with the arrival of new young and enterprising teachers, we have also done competitions for excellence. R31

Peer support is effective when teachers' experiences are shared:

Distance education is actually taking place and we need materials that are not textbooks. Now they've gone to distance learning for you without textbooks, so what? I'm scanning those pages. I share with a colleague. And sharing, so that we all work equally, where we discover something, we share it and in this way <...> of our technologies in that group as much as possible, I share information with those around me. R7

The question is whether teachers have time to lead or learn from their peers, either informally or through structured professional development experiences. They do not, limiting the cultivation of teacher leaders who can spread their expertise to their colleagues (Smylie, 2001).

The mutual support of teachers is experienced when they talk about various topics, are empathetic to each other, turn to each other for advice:

Colleagues sometimes come to consult, to talk, and to comfort each other, in other words, there are all kinds of things here. Even though I came there, everyone else was those who have worked before, but now I see that there are already many people who turn to me for some kind of advice or something else. This is what leadership would be like. R7

Historically, teachers who have sought innovative or leadership roles within the teaching profession have been limited by occupational norms (Little, 1982) and organisational structures in their schools (Bryk et al., 1999). While instructional leadership roles for teachers have increased of late, the pressure in school cultures for teachers to retain strictly egalitarian working relationships, as well as resistance from administrators, limit the potential of teacher leaders' influence on peers (Humphrey et al., 2005; Donaldson et al., 2008). Teacher leadership can be problematic – especially in the context of peer review when teachers give critical and high-stakes feedback to their colleagues (Lord et al., 2008; Stoelinga, 2008).

Learning communion of teachers and students in the classroom

In schools, there are always selfless teachers who support students at all costs. Trusted by students and staff alike, these teachers are known to make decisions based on students' needs. Their dedication to improve students' academic and social experiences is proven by their willingness to dedicate lunchtimes and after-school hours with students to grow their activities and programmes (Buchanan & Huczynski, 1997).

Classrooms are sites in which learning takes place through interactions with others, and learners are given opportunities to construct knowledge and to acquire skills, values and attitudes. Classrooms in which learners and teachers learn together and contribute to knowledge construction are called 'learning communities'. Learning communities as an area of study have been under-researched, despite the fact that there is a body of research that indicates that learning is a collaborative activity rather than an individual exercise, which brings with it significant benefits (Maphalala, 2017).

Learning communion is the continuous process of both sides – teacher and students in a classroom. And the result is a learning community. This is an educational context in which students and teachers support one another and are open with one another during discussions about feelings and opinions related to various ethical issues, situations, and challenges. In a learning community students must be willing to confront or compare different opinions, responses, insights, and experiences (Scardamalia, 2002).

Watkins (2005a) identifies characteristics of a community: agency, belonging, cohesion and diversity. He argues that these are necessary ingredients for a community to flourish and grow:

- Agency refers to the belief by all members of the community that they can achieve their common goals through working together. In the classroom, learners need to have a strong belief in their collective ability to contribute to the learning environment.
- Belonging refers to the extent to which members of the community or learners in the context of the classroom feel respected, accepted, included and supported.

- Cohesion is the ability of the group to work in unity and the extent to which members are loyal and committed to achieving mutual goals.
- Diversity deals with embracing individual differences such as their beliefs, religions, and cultures.

The driving principle behind the 'classrooms as learning communities' approach is to promote construction of knowledge as a collective community responsibility in which individual learners benefit. This is in direct contrast to the traditional approach to education in which learning was perceived as an individual activity where knowledge is transmitted by the teacher and through textbooks (Maphalala, 2017).

According to social constructivist theory, learners learn best through a knowledge construction process which takes place through social interaction, and not only by assimilating what is taught by the teachers. Bielaczyc and Collins (2013) argue that for individuals to learn how to construct knowledge, it is necessary that the process is modelled and supported in the surrounding community. This is what occurs in a learning community. For the spirit of a learning community to thrive in the classroom, teachers need to create an environment that is physically and emotionally safe for learners to be willing to take risks to learn, and be willing to experiment and try new things.

The teacher implements personal leadership in the classroom, when s/he works together with the students to achieve the best result, sees the efforts, ambitions and learning needs of each student. Then the teacher succeeds in being the guiding leader of the students' learning through teaching:

All the time I try to establish the kind of balance between what the students know and what they want to be able to do, what they want to do, the final result. There are students who have ambitions in the subjects I teach and have a clear vision of what skills they want to acquire. Well, let's solve that question together. I still try to include those needs in the learning content. R1

The learning activities in the classroom should be designed in such a way that learners can support one another's learning endeavours and encourage ways in which they can work together on their own to solve problems. In this step, learners learn to work effectively with others and generalise those skills to situations outside the classroom. It is within the concept of constructivism that practitioners engage in problem solving, making requests for information, seeking the experience of others, reusing assets, developing coordination and synergy, discussing developments, visiting other members, mapping knowledge and identifying gaps (Lave & Wenger-Treyner, 1998).

A teacher experiences leadership through learning communion with students when s/he is able to work with students in the classroom by including them,

without overshadowing them, but at the same time realising that the teacher is a leading professional in the classroom:

In the classroom it is already clear that you are the leader, the one who leads the lesson. It is also very important not to overwhelm the student. It often happens that I have to stop myself, because as students say that we learn to speak for three years and then stay silent for the rest of our lives, so I can hear what the student is thinking about. R24

The proof of the professionalism of the teacher's influence on the students' learning is the teaching methods that are effective for students:

I actually teach how to play the cello, then I'm not only interested in presenting <...> now perhaps such times have come, when it is necessary to prove to children that the flute is an instrument just like any other. That's exactly where those musical instruments are that I can take to any place, for example, to an exhibition, to a concert, to a community celebration. Again, if students want to show up with that song, if they want to play, it shows that they trust me, that I am a leader. R24

Teachers have to make a conscious decision to create learning communities out of the classrooms. A learning community does not just happen; it is created intentionally at school. Various approaches can be adopted by the schools to create such an environment by establishing core values which serve to foster and sustain the community-based practices and activities. These values should be consistently communicated to all the stakeholders in events, at meetings, at home and through newsletters (Maphalala, 2017). So it is important for students when teachers give them reinforcement and motivate them to achieve the best during learning:

I believe that a teacher is the one, a professional in his field, who creates a favourable environment for students to learn. Personal leadership experience, this is what I always tried to encourage students to achieve more than they can because sometimes it is very difficult to motivate them. Leading by example is not easy either. R23

A sense of community can be established in a classroom environment that promotes collectivism rather than individualism. The sense of community is achieved through sharing a common goal, active participation, collaboration and constructive dialogue in the classroom. The sense of membership within a learning community is key in ensuring success, which is attained by linking membership to the wider community. Watkins (2005b) identifies 'belonging' as one of the characteristics of a community. Belonging refers to the extent to which members of the learning community, or learners in the context of the classroom, feel respected, accepted, included and supported.

Support of the school administration for the implementation of teacher personal leadership

School administration can play an important role in promoting teacher personal leadership by delegating authority and empowering teachers in ways that allow them influence in key organisational decisions and processes. However, it is unclear whether instruction and student learning are enhanced by promoting teacher influence in all aspects of school, or whether it is better for principals to directly work on certain processes while delegating influence on others.

Teachers recognise their personal leadership through students' attentiveness and critical reflections:

For me it was when I really saw that the students heard me, that they listened to me attentively. For me personally, leadership at school is more about working with myself and being able to accept situations, reflect and draw certain conclusions for myself. I don't know if I answered. R23

School administration support refers to meeting the needs of employees to increase their performance levels, the supportive activities that will make employees feel that they are a valuable asset and increase their quality of work life and the positive relationship between administrators and employees. The main elements of this type of support are respect, trust and the administrator's desire and efforts to help employees (Gagnon & Michael, 2004). Perceived administrative support is teachers' beliefs about being cared for and valued for their contributions to the school by administration. School administration support provided to teachers in schools includes professional, personal, educational and environmental support, time and resources. The attitudes and behaviours that constitute school administration support consist of appraisal of teachers' efforts and the degree of this appraisal and placing emphasis on teachers' personal and professional development (Ertürk, 2021). Policies and practices adopted by school administration may communicate distrust of teachers' professional leadership, and prevent teachers from searching for and developing and using the approaches their students need (Berry et al., 2009). The moral and social support of the school administration is important for the realisation of the teacher's personal leadership:

A lot of support is felt from the administration. For such people, since there are certainly active people, such, let's say, leaders in school or not. I think it makes me much more productive. And this is how new ideas are born, so that learning takes place throughout the life. R6

Teachers satisfied with their jobs do not tend to be absent from work, do not intend to guit work and ask for less sick leave. Therefore, teachers participate in work voluntarily in the schools where job satisfaction is achieved. At the same time, decreased productivity, discipline and other school problems are commonly experienced in school where job satisfaction is not achieved. Job satisfaction is experienced when the benefits of the job match teachers' expectations. Job satisfaction is not possible unless the needs of the teachers are met. The factors affecting job satisfaction are the job itself, wages, promotion opportunities, administrative style, co-worker relations and working conditions. When job satisfaction increases, teacher performance and job quality increase in school; but job dissatisfaction results in tardiness, absenteeism and decreased school commitment. A high level of job satisfaction and receiving support from their principals will contribute to teachers' happiness and achievement, because they will enjoy their work and feel committed to the school. All these positive factors will contribute to high subjective well-being levels in teachers (Kalkan et al., 2020) and possibilities for their personal leadership.

Teachers have opportunities to realise personal leadership in school not only in activities related to teaching, but also through organising school events, representing the school and implementing research activities:

These were all activities for students, and I took them on very willingly. How attractive and inclusive I am to students? This gave me the opportunities to grow. R19

Everyone needs to take responsibility for organising activities at school. If some idea or another is born, we organise a lot of events. We generate, offer ideas, because as a teacher I propose an idea, then I realise, implement it and that idea is accepted and supported. I am building a team to implement the idea. R8

I need to gather a certain group of people, invite, organise for students' activities. R19

Proposal for research implementation. Until now the school did not conduct such research. After consulting with the school administration, my colleagues and I made the decision that it might be worth to try. R20

School administration makes it clear that they are available to provide support. One way to do so is by having an open-door policy. It is important for the school administration to be as approachable and friendly as possible. Taking time to be available for the teachers and listening to them helps make them feel comfortable and valued.

Enhancing teacher personal leadership can help schools to reach the following goals (*Key Issue: Enhancing Teacher Leadership*, 2007):

• *Improve teacher quality.* Teacher expertise is at the foundation of increasing teacher quality and advancements in teaching and learning. This exper-

tise becomes more widely available when accomplished teachers model instructional practices, encourage sharing of best practices, mentor new teachers, and collaborate with teaching colleagues. Teacher leadership expertise about teaching and learning is needed to lead instructional improvement and increase teacher quality. One way the school administration can improve teacher quality is to support staff development needs. Teacher leaders can help principals support professional development by identifying teacher development needs, offering professional learning experience, developing and delivering opportunities, and evaluating the outcomes of staff development.

- Improve student learning. The improvement of student learning requires every leader in the school to focus on that outcome. Instructional teacher leadership positions have been created to increase students' academic achievement by first improving teachers' instruction. Teachers who model learning for students can help to create a community of learning. Teacher leadership leads to teacher growth and learning; when teachers learn, their students learn. Effective and efficient collaborative decision-making processes need to be in place to tap and infuse this expertise across the faculty.
- Ensure that education reform efforts work. The influence of teacher leadership is important to education reform. Teacher leaders can help guide fellow teachers as well as the school at large toward higher standards of achievement and individual responsibility for school reform. The emphasis on educational improvement at all grade levels must be provided on further incentive for teachers to be involved in teacher leadership. In order to implement curricular and instructional reforms at the classroom level, a commitment from the teachers who lead at that level is essential. Reform possibilities reside in the hands of teachers; they are on the front line and know the classroom issues, the culture of the school, and the types of support they need to do their jobs.
- Recruit, retain, motivate, and reward accomplished teachers. One major reason for the new interest in teacher leadership is the desire to recruit, retain, motivate, and reward accomplished teachers. Acknowledging their expertise and contributions and providing opportunities for growth and influence can support these objectives. Teachers want to work in schools that are designed for them to be successful and in which they have influence on key decisions that affect instruction and student success. Teachers find opportunities for continuous learning as they expand the ways in which they contribute throughout their careers. Teachers who lead help to shape their own schools and, thereby, their own destinies as educators.

- Provide opportunities for professional growth. A clear effect of teacher leadership is the growth and learning for the teachers themselves. When teachers actively pursue leadership opportunities, their lives are enriched and energised, and their knowledge and skills in teaching increase dramatically, leading to increased confidence and a stronger commitment to teaching. Professional growth also occurs as the result of collaboration with peers, assisting other teachers, working with administrators, and being exposed to new ideas. In fact, studies show that leading and learning are interrelated, that teacher leaders grow in their understandings of instructional, professional, and organisational practice as they lead.
- Extend school administration capacity. Teacher leadership provides the additional person power needed to run the organisational operations of the school, which are too complex for principals to run alone. Indeed, teacher leaders are a source of reliable, useful, and professional help for the principal. When teachers lead, school administration extends its own capacity.
- Create a democratic school environment. When teacher leaders take on important school-wide responsibilities and are centrally involved in school decision making, they are able to transform their school into a democracy. Students benefit from observing and experiencing democratic, participatory forms of government. They also benefit from higher teacher morale because their teachers are involved in democratic decision making and school leadership.

References

- Berry, B., Daughtrey, A. & Montgomery, D. (2009). Teaching and Learning Conditions 2009: An Interim Report. Hillsborough, NC: Center for Teaching Quality.
- Bielaczyc, K. & Collins, A. (2013). Learning communities in classrooms: A reconceptualization of educational practice. In C.M. Reigeluth (Ed.) Instructional Design Theories and Models II. (pp. 501–517). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Bryk, A., Camburn, E & Louis, K. S. (1999). Professional community in Chicago elementary schools: Facilitating factors and organizational consequences. Educational Administration Quarterly, 33(5), 751–781. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013161X99355004
- Buchanan, D. & Huczynski, A. (1997). Organizational Behaviour. London: Prentice Hall.
- Collins, J. (2001). Good to Great: Why Some Companies Make the Leap ... and Others Don't. (pp. 37–38). New York. HarperCollins.
- Comer, J. P. (2020). Commentary: relationships, developmental contexts, and the school development program. Applied Development Science, 24(1), 43–47. doi: 10.1080/10888691.2018.1515296
- Comer, J. P., Joyner, E. T., & Ben-Avie, M. (2004). (Eds). Six Pathways to Healthy Child Development and Academic Success: The Field Guide to Comer Schools in Action. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Donaldson, M. L., Johnson, S.M., Kirkpatrick, C., Marinell, W., Steele, J., & Szczesiul, S. (2008). Angling for access, bartering for change: How second stage teachers experience differentiated roles in schools. Teachers College Record, 110(5), 1088-1114. doi: 10.1177/016146810811000502

- Ertürk, R. (2021). The relationship between school administrators' supportive behaviors and teachers' job satisfaction and subjective well-being. International Journal of Contemporary Educational Research, 8(4), 184-195. https://doi.org/10.33200/ijcer.956667
- Goddard, R., Hoy, W. & Hoy. A. (2000). Collective teacher efficacy: Its meaning, measure, and impact on student achievement. American Educational Research Journal, 37(2), 479–507. doi: 10.3102/00028312037002479
- Graham, P. (2007). Improving teacher effectiveness through structured collaboration: a case study of a professional learning community. Research in Middle Level Education, 31(1), 1–17. doi: 10.1080/19404476.2007.11462044
- Halliday, A. J., Kern, M. L., Garrett, D. K., & Turnbull, D. A. (2020). Understanding factors affecting positive education in practice: an Australian case study. Contemporary School Psychology, 24(2), 128–145. doi: 10.1007/s40688-019-00229-0
- Howard, J. L., Bureau, J., Guay, F., Chong, J. X. Y., & Ryan, R. M. (2021). Student motivation and associated outcomes: a meta-analysis from self-determination theory. Perspectives on Psychological Science, 16(6), 1300–1323. doi: 10.1177/1745691620966789
- Humphrey, D. C., Koppich, J. E. & Hough, H. J. (2005). Sharing the wealth: National Board Certified Teachers and the students who need them most. Education Policy Analysis Archives, 13(18). http://epaa.asu.edu/epaa/v13n18/
- Jackson, C. K. & Bruegmann, E. (2009). Teaching Students and Teaching Each Other: The Importance of Peer Learning for Teachers. NBER Working Paper 15202. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Kalkan, Ü., Altınay Aksal, F., Altınay Gazi, Z., Atasoy, R., & Dağlı, G. (2020). The Relationship Between School Administrators' Leadership Styles, School Culture, and Organizational Image. SAGE Open, 10(1). https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244020902081
- Katzenbach, J. & Smith, D. (1993). The Wisdom of Teams. New York: HarperCollins.
- Key Issue: Enhancing Teacher Leadership (2007). National Washington DC: Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality.
- Lave, J. & Wenger-Treyner, E. (1998). Communities of Practice: Learning, Meaning, and Identity. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. www.zietmysorelibrary.files.wordpress. com/2012/06/learning_theories.docx
- Little, J. W. (1982). Norms of collegiality and experimentation: Workplace conditions of school success. American Educational Research Journal, 19(3), 325–340. https://www.jstor.org/stable/1162717
- Lord, B., Cress, K, & Miller, B. (2008). Teacher leadership in support of large-scale mathematics and science education reform. In M. Mangin & S. Stoelinga (Eds.). Effective Teacher Leadership: Using Research to Inform and Reform. (pp. 99–119). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Louis, K. S., Marks, H. M. & Kruse, S. (1996). Teachers' professional community in restructuring schools. American Educational Research Journal, 33(4), 757–798. doi: 10.2307/1163415
- Maphalala, M. Ch. (2017). The classrooms as learning communities. The Independent Journal of Teaching and Learning, 12(1), 20-29. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/318456088_ The_classrooms_as_learning_communities?enrichId=rgreq-2c8a5900aa5a5e091a-18220f6ac942c6-XXX&enrichSource=Y292ZXJQYWdlOzMxODQ1NjA4ODtBUzoxMDM-4MDgyMDI3NTc3MzQ0QDE2MjQ1MDk0NTA0NTE%3D&el=1_x_2&_esc=publicationCoverPdf
- Smylie, M. A. (2001). Teacher Professional Development in Chicago: Supporting Effective Practice. Chicago: Consortium on Chicago School Research.
- Rizvi, H. (2022). The Debate Over Positional Leadership Vs Personal Leadership. https://hidayatrizvi.com/positional-leadership-vs-personal-leadership/#:~:text=Positional%20leadership%20 is%20the%20leadership,individual%27s%20personal%20qualities%20and%20abilities

- Scardamalia, M. (2002). Collective cognitive responsibility for the advancement of knowledge. In B. Smith (Eds.). Liberal Education in a Knowledge Society. (pp.76–98). Chicago: Open Court.
- Scouller, J. (2011). The Three Levels of Leadership: How to Develop Your Leadership Presence, Knowhow and Skill. Cirencester: Management Books.
- Sebastian, J., Allensworth, E., & Huang, H. (2016). The Role of Teacher Leadership in How Principals Influence Classroom Instruction and Student Learning. American Journal of Education, 123(1), 69–108. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED577947.pdf
- Stoelinga, S. (2008). Leading from above and below: Formal and informal teacher leader roles. In M. Mangin & S. Stoelinga (Eds.). Effective Teacher Leadership: Using Research to Inform and Reform. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Talbert, J. E. & McLaughlin, M. W. (1996). Teacher professionalism in local school contexts. In J. F. Goodson & A. Hargreaves (Eds.). Teachers' Professional Lives. (pp. 127–153). Washington, DC: Falmer Press.
- Watkins, C. (2005a). Classrooms as learning communities: A review of research. London Review of Education, 3(1), 47–64. doi: 10.1080/14748460500036276
- Watkins, C. (2005b). Classrooms as Learning Communities: What's In It For Schools? New York: Routledge.
3 Teacher Leadership Within The School Community

The word 'community' gives rise to thoughts of mutuality and trust, and is an assemblage of the people intimately attached to a school – its teachers, administrators, students and the student's parents. School communities need strong leadership and broad participation. Leadership is emerging from dyadic partnerships that begin at the centre – between principals and teachers – and grow concentrically to include parents and even local business (Tugend, 2022). Three constructs are involved: i) the school as community; ii) the school in the community; and iii) the school and the community (Redding, 1991). Uniting the ethnically and linguistically diverse families in the school is example of the school as a community. The school itself is a community of its members – teachers, administrators, staff, students and parents or families of students. The school could be seen within the context of a wider community. Thus, first of all, collaboration among the professional employees of the school

- principals and teachers, should be encouraged. This collaboration can reach outside, to the community at large, to include students' families and local businesses. Hence, this is an example of the school within the community (Xiong et al., 2023).

When the school and community are seen as separate entities, it means that the school in terms of its relationship to the community is something apart from the community. The school exists within a mosaic of overlapping communities and is itself capable of functioning as a community. A community is a group of people associated with one another who share common values. Geography does not make community, nor does membership, nor casual affiliation. When the school functions as a community, rather than in a community, its constituents (students, their parents, teachers, staff) associate with one another, and share common values about the education of students. Members of the school community assume responsibility for one another (Redding, 1991). Students become our students, and their parents are not external agents but full partners in the education of their children and of each other's children. Teachers are not isolated pedagogical practitioners , but professionals integrated with the network of community and buoyed by common purpose. Interactions, relationship and communication of community members and common values are the defining criteria of the school community, and they are the instruments of community building (Tugend, 2022).

Teacher leadership is the process by which teachers, individually or collectively, influence their colleagues, principals and other members of the school communities to improve teaching and learning practices with the aim of increased student learning and achievement. Throughout their careers, most teachers maintain many leadership roles (Ackerman & Mackenzie, 2006). Some are among students, while others influence fellow teachers and the community. In recent years, though, teacher leadership has become a more distinct role that educators must fill (Ackerman et al., 2011).

Teacher leaders step outside the classroom to bring their expertise to a larger platform, influencing educational culture, practice and growth in their communities. They may help other teachers improve their ability to instruct students, or they may lead teams to better meet the needs of the students, school and community (Donaldson, 2006). Some focus much of their time on helping parents work better with their children, while others push for reform through political means. In short, the list of responsibilities teacher leaders take on is seemingly endless (Donaldson et al., 2008).

Fairman and Mackenzie's model of teacher leadership (2012) describes the different ways in which teachers engage in leadership activity. From this work came the spheres of the teacher leadership action for learning model, showing how and where teachers, individually and collectively, influence others to improve teaching and learning. The spheres are:

- individual teachers engage in learning about their own practice,
- individual teachers experiment and reflect,
- teachers share their ideas with other teachers,
- teachers collaborate and reflect together on collective work,
- teachers interact in groups,
- teachers question and advocate, building support and organisational capacity,
- teachers engage in collective school-wide improvement,
- teachers engage with the wider school community and parents,
- teachers share work outside of school/professional organisations.

When considering their leadership in the school community, the teachers who participated in the study mention interactions with the school community, students, students' parents, and fellow teachers. There was no mention of the relationship with the school administration, or with organisations outside the school.

Teacher and school community

In this book, the term 'teacher leader' implies an active and responsible role that exceeds the level of the individual teacher acting in his or her classroom, adding activities related to influencing and inspiring colleagues and the school as a whole. The identification of 'leaders' also implies the existence of 'followers' (Fairman & Mackenzie, 2014) who are influenced or supported by the 'leaders'. The division into the roles of leaders and followers may be fixed through formal leadership positions that are mandated or delegated to particular experienced or accomplished teachers (Frost & Durrant, 2003). However, the relationship between 'leaders' and 'followers' may also be dynamic when each teacher is recognised as having the potential to exercise leadership as part of his or her role, when leadership is shared and distributed between all teaching staff, and when the roles of leader and follower may shift over time (Gonzales, 2004).

Influence is a significant concept for teachers. Without it there would not be a change. Teacher leadership influence is a key in organisations with shared or distributed leadership process in place (Harris & Muijs, 2005). This influence transpires as a result of a shift from individualism to professional community at school (Heifetz & Linsky, 2004).

Teacher leadership is increasingly associated with the practice of educational improvement (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). Teacher leadership includes two core functions: providing direction and exercising influence. These functions are enacted within particular contexts and have the potential to generate organisational reform (Mackenzie et al., 2007) The concept of teacher leadership implies that teachers hold a central position in the ways schools operate and in the core functions of teaching and learning (MacBeath & Dempster, 2009). In this way, teachers are given the power to help create a positive environment in their schools. Thus, teacher empowerment through taking on leadership roles becomes an important aspect of school climate (Mangin & Stoelinga, 2008).

The results of research show that the teacher's leadership manifests itself in the relationship with the school community by organising events and targeted meetings, and by making daily efforts to create the strongest possible connection with the school community and by being a leadership example and thereby motivating the community –

• By organising events outside the school, representing the school in them, and supporting traditions in which the school is seen as an important part of the town community:

The town community or the township has several other communities and a school, our gymnasium, also participates in such at community events. There is a town festival, and various sports competitions are held during the Rasa festival in June, and then there are

very beautiful traditions on September 1st, the last call and the centenary, and also graduation celebrations. Then again parents, students, graduates, teachers come together, then our elder and our respected pastor take part in the celebrations. Well, we unite the whole community and we have really beautiful traditions, which we live by, which we enjoy and we want to enjoy for a long time, but well, the number of those children is still <...> little by little, decreasing. R28

• By organising targeted meetings for teachers at the school, the teacher solves various problems, discussing didactic issues:

We participate in community activities. We organise meetings of teachers of subjects working in the classroom remotely, or via Zoom, and more meetings of teachers plus parents also meet more. I noticed, because we find a convenient time when you can connect. R24

We'll solve such issues in common, both student achievements and attendance problems, as well as all kinds of extracurricular integrated activities. R31

• By making daily efforts to build a relationship with the school community:

But what I pay a lot of attention to is building relationships with the entire community, and I think I'm quite good at building that relationship. I just kind of like doing it. It seems to me that a very organic process is not artificial, not bureaucratic. It seems to me that ... I'm not saying influence ... What kind of influence it is here? I can't imagine how I can evaluate my influence. I'm actually just saying I'm in constant communication, constant relationship, constant communion. It's probably still some kind of influence. R34

• By motivating to achieve the set goals and being one of the examples in the school community:

This is such a positivity, a ray of light, as s/he used. I hope that s/he had such an influence not only on her/his colleagues, but also on students. This means that teacher has to work for it, to have motivation and a goal, because when the teacher has a goal, s/he will have both motivation and the desire to achieve that goal. R33

I think I do. I don't really feel like an invisible person in a community. R19

Teacher and student

Danielson (2006) describes teacher leadership as using evidence and data in decision making by recognising an opportunity and taking initiative; mobilising people and resources around a common purpose; monitoring progress and adjusting the approach as conditions change; sustaining the commitment of others and predicting negativity, and contributing to a learning organisation. These aspects are evident in our research results, which provide evidence in teacher leadership within the interaction of teacher and students in a classroom. Teacher leadership focuses on improving learning and is based on the principles of professional collaboration, development, and growth. It is not a formal role, responsibility or set of tasks. Rather, it is more a form of an agency that teachers are empowered to lead improvement work which has direct influences on the quality of teaching and learning (Lazaro, 2011).

The vast majority of research conducted worldwide on the relationship between teacher leadership and students is focused only on student academic achievements. Teacher leadership has been shown to have a significant impact on student learning. However, our research proves that before this effect, it is necessary to prepare the 'soil for the academic harvest': the teacher, through his leadership, must form in the classroom a culture of dialogue, communication, mutual respect, help and care, in which it is important to share, talk, cooperate, ask, reflect, act together and to respect autonomous authenticity and uniqueness.

In teacher-student interaction, teacher leadership means cooperation and communication with students to create a culture of open, direct and respectful communication in the classroom, supporting students' initiatives and helping them to solve social and psychological problems.

When the teacher is empathetic and helps the students to solve social-psychological problems:

<...> situations happen with those students, don't you think that you go on an excursion with a student and on the way we have to pick up another student, and you see that he is waiting at the bus stop, and March a month, under a sweater, without a jacket. They got on that bus and I said: 'And you really got dressed?', 'He's fine, let's go.' Excursion in Vilnius [capital city of Lithuania] – like that, but like that, you know, it's spring, and then I call my brother, who lives in Vilnius, and say: 'listen, be good, you, bring your own jacket, because I can't that day I learned to walk half-naked everywhere'. That's when we also borrowed a jacket. Well, there are all kinds of nuances when organising clothes for a student who, well, her parents just threw her out of the house because she wanted to be a girl and study in the eleventh grade. He says: 'finish ten, that's all, and I'll go to our farm to work.' Behold. It was such a sad story. You help those students as much as you can. You see, really. So am I a serving teacher? <...> but here all teachers are probably, because a teacher is, that helper of all, or not so much an intermediary between parents, children sometimes, between knowledge or not, a carrier, a provider. It's probably all the teachers we are serving. R1

The teacher-leader creates a culture of mutual respect with students in the classroom:

I, for example, address students as 'You'[formal], I do not address them otherwise. It's always them, and sometimes they've been following me for more than a year, now it's been several years, they say to me: 'Why are you doing this?' I don't address any student as 'You' [informal], but maybe we are already very, very close friends or something, but

since then, my manner has always been like this, and the student too, everyone is worthy of respect. That appeal obliges them a little, let's say, because they feel that kind of respect from my side, maybe there's no way to behave differently and on the contrary, well, it's a simple thing for me, but that's how I'm used to it and I see that it works. It somehow affects them and they sometimes say: 'Why do you say that?' I say: 'Well, you are worthy of respect. Everyone.' Well, they get confused like that, because maybe they don't hear it from others. R7

The teacher communicates with students to create a collaborative culture in the classroom:

I think that somehow as a leader, I first of all aim to bring together a harmonious team and create a direct communication and collaborative culture in my classroom. R20

Then it is natural that the teacher receives recognition and thanks from the students and with the students for me, the best assessment from the students is that, let's say, there was already a quarantine last year and there were no final qualification exams. Only the grades from the already collected grades were taken out – in that order. But the graduation ceremonies took place. and when the students went to those graduation ceremonies, the group leaders, the whole team didn't go. It's like getting a message from the students, like the teacher, will you be there? I'm writing that I didn't plan, it's them, we, the teacher, are waiting for you, we have a gift for you on the occasion of graduation. So I think those things, well they make up for all those things that were bad during the school year. If one, two, or three appear, that those who needed you, who appreciated you, then I think that I have that influence on the students. R31

Here, teachers' support of students' initiatives is important:

I try to support that and any student's smallest initiative, I encourage the idea to reveal it and to improve it; every opportunity is given. R22

Teacher and students' parents

The relationship between schools and parents has long been considered beneficial to pupils, and especially important for improved social cohesion in schools and the wider community (Rosenberg & Lopez, 2011; Rosenberg, 2012). Studies in the United States and in Europe have explored this issue from different perspectives, addressing security (Adelman & Taylor, 2008), school outcomes (Thurston, 2005), chronic absenteeism (Sheldon & Epstein, 2004), homework (Harris et al., 2009), and poverty (Ciuffatelli Parker et al., 2011). Thorough exploration of the benefits related to the engagement of the parents in formal education has shown that students whose families are engaged are related to (Henderson & Mapp, 2002): earning higher grades and test scores and enrolling in higher-level programs; being promoted, passing their classes, and earning credits; attending school regularly; having better social skills,

showing improved behaviour, and adapting well to school; (5) graduating and going on to post-secondary education.

Schools characterise family participation by the actions parents and other guardians take to engage in activities and behaviours, both at home and school, which benefit the learning and development of their children (Semke & Sheridan, 2012). Effective family participation (also referred to as family involvement or engagement) includes a range of home-based and school-based actions, such as parent responsiveness, wide use of language (the breadth of vocabulary that parents use when speaking to their children), shared reading, demonstrating a high value on education, attending parent-teacher conferences, and volunteering (Carreon et al., 2005). Weiss et al. (2009) offer a more comprehensive definition of family involvement, one which views participation as a co-constructed, shared responsibility between families and schools. By this definition, family participation is not based solely on the behaviours and actions of families in schools, it also includes the school's expectations, outreach, partnerships and interactions with families to benefit the learning and development of students (Arce, 2019).

'Parental involvement' is a multidimensional concept (Grolnick & Pomerantz, 2022). Although there are different conceptualisations of parental involvement, the definition proposed by Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994) is widely accepted. They define parental involvement as the family's dedication of resources to the student's academic life in terms of time, money, and energy. A more recent definition of parental involvement, according to Castro et al. (2015), is the active participation of parents in all aspects of their student's social, emotional, and academic development. Parents are involved in their student's education in different ways. Barger et al. (2019) distinguish between two broad forms of parental involvement: the school front and the home front. School-based involvement comprises parents' direct contact with the school in the form of participation or governance. Home-based involvement takes place at home and/or outside the school (Bolat, 2023).

Parental involvement not only affects school achievement, but also the emotional and social development of children. For instance, according to a longitudinal study by Hill et al. (2004), as parental involvement increases, behavioural problems decrease. The significance of parental involvement has gained even more prominence in the wake of the Covid-19 pandemic. Yu et al. (2022) found that high parental involvement during the Covid-19 pandemic contributed positively to children's learning. The most authoritative work on parental involvement was carried out by Wilder (2014). It was a meta-analysis of six previous meta-analysis studies. The result indicated that the relationship between parental involvement and academic achievement was positive. Overall, the evidence suggests that there is strong support for parental involvement in terms of almost all child outcomes. Therefore, parental involvement needs to be supported and enabled by teacher leadership and school administration for student improvement.

School administration is not alone in promoting parental involvement: teachers play a significant role as well (Yulianti et al., 2019). Teacher invitations have been identified as powerful motivators for parents to be involved (Murray et al., 2015). In their study, Yulianti et al., (2022) compared the impact of transformational leadership and teacher invitation, finding that teacher invitation for parental involvement had a positive effect, while transformational leadership did not have an effect on parental involvement. This finding shows that while transformational leadership is important, teacher leadership could be more important in promoting parental involvement.

Teacher leadership is one of the important drivers for parental involvement (Bolat, 2023). However, two perspectives affect teachers' decision to exercise leadership for parental improvement. Epstein and Becker (1982) have found that some teachers have negative attitudes towards parental involvement and some teachers have negative attitudes. In other words, some teachers see a lot of advantages and some see potential problems in parental involvement (Becker & Epstein, 1982). Bryan and Henry (2012) underlined the importance of exploring school members' beliefs regarding parents. Henderson et al. (2007) further suggested that holding positive beliefs about family engagement is a starting place to working effectively with parents. Assumptions about parents build the foundation of what will destroy or create an essential parent/teacher relationship (Basaraba, 2013). Therefore, it is important to identify if teachers' beliefs are helpful or harmful in developing relationships with parents and families (Pushor & Amendt, 2018).

Teachers' leadership in the relationship with the students' parents is implemented by including them in extracurricular activities:

Parents have to come to the school again to talk, to prepare for the departure, to agree on something else, how to creatively buy a waiting room for foreigners. R21

The teacher takes the lead in educating the students' parents – by reading targeted messages to the parents (For parents, there was a meeting here. I verbalised a message about being active, because I like when it's active learning. A person learns through participation. R24), involving parents in the development of the understanding of the meaning of learning through communication (I work with those parents whose children I am a teacher of. It is difficult to work with group leader because of students' non-attendance, of irresponsibility. Students do not join the lessons from home. I communicate and communicate with parents by demonstrating that I would like them to be one team, that is the teacher, student and parents. Helping the student to understand responsibilities. R31), involving

parents in the control of their student's class attendance (We discuss with parents that the student will even write the following day on a piece of paper, what the lessons are like, how to connect and parents say that they don't know because there is a lack of information. In this way, the student compiles that information for her/himself, what lessons s/he needs, how s/he can join them, and parents get involved in that control and help. But it is not successful in all cases. We try a little. R31).

Teachers believe that ethical behaviour, maintaining neutrality, in the relationship with students' parents should be an essential principle in their leadership (It is not easy to find a relationship with parents. But somehow the parents of this educational class are really, really so benevolent, understanding. In fact, somehow, there are no such Well, I didn't run into any problems. Somehow, in a very good way, those class hours and that those parents participate actively enough. Maybe in the ninth, tenth, eleventh, maybe it will be less. R16).

The teacher's leadership is an effort which is appreciated by the students' parents - the parents trust the teacher. The teacher provides feedback to students by including parents in communication and creates a culture of mutual openness and equal communication, e.g. by discussing the child's learning progress (Here is an open door, that's what we call this event, when we were working, you can already cut that one out, it means we worked live. The open day was organised by our school, it has been a tradition here for many years, when a subject teacher sits in the classroom and parents come to her/him together and bring those students and then we have a discussion about how much can the student to learn, how much help s/he still needs, what is missing? By congratulating the student for her/his achievements I tell them a little about where they still need to *improve.* R22). Parents support the culture of communication and cooperation created by the teacher, therefore they are proud of it, they share their experiences with other parents they know outside the classroom and school, which shows that they experience satisfaction with their children at school (Parents share their experiences, how things are going, what experiences they have. R20).

Teacher and fellow teachers

Teacher leadership demands specific skills and knowledge related to building trust with colleagues, understanding organisational context and dynamics, managing change processes, supporting adult learning, designing curricula, and participating in action research (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). The notion 'fellow' describes people who are in the same situation or people who have something in common with. Building relationships with one's colleagues can provide advice, guidance or a 'listening ear' that truly understands.

Teaching can be challenging and stressful. No one will understand a teacher's challenges, stresses, celebrations or emotions quite like another teacher will. While it is true that other teachers will understand and can relate, it is important to remember that negativity can and will spread like wildfire. Teachers need to surround themselves with understanding and positive colleagues; a well-intended collaboration can quickly turn into a gripe fest that leaves everyone feeling gloomy if one does not proceed with caution (Lee, 2019). The question of whether and how teachers in schools collaborate with each

The question of whether and how teachers in schools collaborate with each other depends on various factors. This includes individual attributes of teachers such as age (i.e. older teachers are found to collaborate to a lesser degree than their younger colleagues), gender (i.e. female teachers are more likely to collaborate than male teachers) and experience (i.e. teacher collaboration is higher among novice teachers) (Schuster et al., 2021). The degree of cohesion in teachers' communities matters more than individual factors (Bridwell-Mitchell & Cooc, 2016).

Collaboration among teachers has been a field of research for decades. Vangrieken et al. (2015) classified different benefits of and constraints on teacher collaboration, and summarised the strengths, depths and challenges of teacher collaboration. Teacher collaboration is a heterogeneous construct, ranging from mere aggregates of individuals to strong team concentration including, for example, shared goals and values.

Different meanings and understandings of teacher collaboration find their expression in various terms used to describe the phenomenon. The literature on teacher collaboration draws on many different expressions, such as teacher teams, co-teaching, professional (learning) communities, (teacher) learning teams, or, more broadly, communities of practice (Kolleck, 2019). With the aim to develop more conceptual clarity, scholars have started to distinguish between different forms of teacher collaboration that arise. Little (1990) discerned four forms of collegial relationships among teachers: storytelling and scanning for ideas; aid and assistance; sharing; and joint work. These forms are situated along a continuum from independence to interdependence. Building on this research, Grasel et al. (2006) identified three forms of teacher collaboration that can be located on the theoretical continuum by Little (1990). They distinguished exchange, division of work/synchronisation, and co-construction to describe how teachers collaborate with each other. While exchange (e.g. exchanging classroom or test material) does not require much time or effort, more intense forms of collaboration, such as an effective synchronisation of team members or the mutual development of classroom practices and standards for teaching, can be regarded as being more effortful (Kolleck et al., 2021).

Teacher collaboration is an intentional interaction between teachers who are connected by a reference to common professional goals and tasks (Grasel et al., 2006). Teacher collaboration is communicative, requires trust, presupposes a certain autonomy of the actors and needs to be committed to the norm of reciprocity. These prerequisites apply to the forms of collaboration that require a high effort and intense work, as is the case when teachers engage in co-constructive practices (Krammer et al., 2018). In its broadest sense, team-or co-teaching, as it is often called in an international context, can be regarded as an instructional model according to Johnson and Johnson's cooperative learning theory (2005), grounding it in social interdependence theory from social psychology.

Self-efficacy and learning goal orientation are positively related to asking for feedback (Runhaar et al., 2010). Teachers with a high sense of efficacy who believe in their capabilities to achieve goals are more likely to engage in structured collaboration and improvement strategies (Thoonen et al., 2011).

Teachers in highly dense networks have more positive attitudes towards inclusion and implement more differentiated instruction (Sannen et al., 2021). Muckenthaler et al. (2020) revealed how teachers opt for forms of collaboration that involve relatively little reduction in their own autonomy. Drossel et al. (2019) substantiated that subjective values explain teachers' motivation to collaborate. The personal relevance of collaboration for teachers and their subjective values relate to teachers' perceptions of their principals as well as their personal tendency to collaborate. Teachers' ability to improve student achievement appears to be significantly related to seeking advice (Wilhelm et al., 2016). Formal subunits in schools can facilitate information-seeking connections (Meredith et al., 2017). Teachers' self-efficacy and collective efficacy are further positively related to extra-role behaviour; that is, behaviour that exceeds the requirements of a teacher's role to voluntarily support a team's or a school's goals (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000).

Teacher collaboration is connected with teacher well-being and job satisfaction concerning six areas: learning environment; appraisal and feedback; teaching practices and classroom environment; development and support; school leadership; and self-efficacy and job satisfaction (Kolleck et al., 2020). The most influential organisational characteristics are collaboration among staff, classroom atmosphere, feedback and assessment, and the climate of the school (Yıldırım, 2014).

The leadership of each teacher in the relationship with fellow teachers in the school is relevant. This is confirmed by the teachers' arguments:

The teacher's leadership is necessary when initiating agreements with colleagues (I'm glad that they listen to me. It's kind of influence here. We made an agreement in a friendly way. I'm just saying: 'You want it to end faster, then do it, think at home'. When we come to class, we all express thoughts, record our thoughts and split up. R9), organising activities and involving fellow teachers in school community activities (I should probably be self-critical about this. I try to actively involve the school community [in] the activities we organise for them, for example, such as events talking about students, class hours, or not, we don't learn something there either. That's what we try to do, to get together, so that we are one community. R6) and sharing information and ideas (Direct communication is difficult, but I and my colleagues strive. When I talk or share some information, I ask and try to participate in a conversation. Concrete example – music, because I myself teach music and the other teacher is a music teacher. I ask how you work? What are you doing now? This kind of communication and sharing experience. I just ask them to share, and at the same time I say: wow I have such and such material. Here and there I found it. Maybe you would like it? I offer it and then we share it and thus establish such a closer contact in communication and cooperation in certain areas. R20). All this requires trust between teachers. In the literature, different forms of trust are conceptualised. For instance, an individual's general tendency to trust others needs to be distinguished from relational or interpersonal trust (Kolleck, 2019). The concept of trust development relates to the processual nature of trusting. Trust is reviewed and best confirmed in every new situation. Experience accumulates over time and is translated into (experiential) knowledge, which in part leads to implicit expectations (Basaraba, 2013). This reduces uncertainty in dealing with the other person. Uncertainties arise where it is difficult to assess the behaviour of the other person because they are unknown to the person trusting them. However, if the behaviour of the other person seems calculable, this has a beneficial effect on the development of trust (Muckenthaler et al., 2020). Scribner et al. (2002) demonstrated that relationships between teachers and headteachers based on trust positively influence the teachers' shared commitment to the school's goals. Relationships of trust have a positive effect on teaching practice (Thoonen et al., 2011).

The teacher's leadership in trust-based cooperation with fellow teachers is relevant in a practical sense: when advising colleagues on the basics of volunteering (I'm a teacher. Since I'm still one with information technology, I always want to make work easier, not only for myself, but also for others. If I discover something new, something that would make it easier to, for example, as with that virtual learning environment. I say to all teachers: 'Why are you afraid?' People usually do not use, do not want to apply, are hostile to those innovations that they have not seen, they don't know how to manage them or not, they don't know how to use them. This is why I now advise all teachers about the virtual learning environment. R21), providing educational support to fellow teachers (I had a call 'I can't upload, I don't know why'. The teacher explains why it is not possible to upload the material prepared by her ... R11).

While the teacher spends the majority of the day in her/his own classroom, it may become easy to feel alone and forget about the wealth of ideas, expertise and years of experience that surround the teacher. A task that seems confusing or even impossible has, more than likely, already been accomplished by another teacher on his/her campus. It is important to find those teachers who have expertise in something such as classroom management, guided reading, maths talks, etc., and to seek their advice and ideas. Teachers need to remember to seek more than advice and ideas, to seek those relationships that can take on the form of mentorship. Mentors not only provide guidance but also help to find their own expertise, methods and voice (Lee, 2019).

Teachers' leadership is manifested in mutual support and encouragement, which means mentorship: My colleagues, when they see that I am doing something, moving and succeeding, now I already have that authority. I can see that even if they used to listen sceptically or did not listen, now often listen to the opinion. R31

It's the same with a learning environment. I say: 'you teach that subject, don't you, for one semester, the next ... you will teach the next semester, for another group, or not, that's it exactly the same, it repeats itself. So you have that material, do you yourself remember what and where you have it?'you will correct something and move forward. That's what I say: 'It's nothing complicated.' You are bowing your head here, everything is fine here, but I understand that it is very difficult for you. Age and the use of those technologies are not, not so acceptable for everyone. We did in-house training, and now teachers use it and say, 'oh, really, how convenient,' and they can improve the same subject or different material afterwards. Well, that's the way it is, you don't need to look for a new group every time. Well, because there are all kinds of nuances, someone's computer broke down, they can't do it anymore, they don't have anything like they say, the textbooks are out of date, and you can still adapt your material at any time. Well, you like that or not, technologies the teacher's job and makes it easier. And freed from that bureaucracy, from that paperwork, which teachers here are really stuck with. R1.

Becoming a teacher gives her/him instant access to the special language of educators. All teachers are fluent and are able to understand each other through using cryptic codes, and can have entire conversations using acronyms and facial expressions alone. All a fellow teacher needs to do is look at you and they'll just get it. Most teachers spend more time with our teacher friends than we do with our actual families! Who else can share in our love for inspiring the youth and leading them to the promised land of academic success? Ordinary people just won't understand (Taiwo, 2023). There are many reasons to make connections between fellow teachers. Even with the most difficult teachers, it can often be useful to have an ally. Discussion about students helps put together plans for the teacher/student interventions and provides more support in a parent meeting. A connection with another fellow teacher is ultimately helpful for not just the teacher, but for her/his students as well. Building a connection between teachers never is negative – so teachers need to do better at making those connections (Lee, 2019).

Support systems are important to our mental health. Finding others that understand our experiences is especially helpful. That's why other teachers can be dependable sources of empathy, understanding and mutual self-care. Fun conversations. Also find time to talk about things that are not work-related – new recipes, hobbies, sports, exercise, a great book, music or shows you love to binge watch. The list can be endless.

Teacher leadership in school is about creating and implementing new ideas, as well as helping others to do so. Through collaboration, teachers can develop a more comprehensive approach to teaching that involves the whole community and allows for students' needs to be met in local, socially-relevant ways. When teachers have the space, time, and support necessary to improve their practice, they are able to develop their own professional growth plans, instead of having them dictated by someone else. This means that their vision of the future of teaching and learning is their own, and they are able to implement it on their own. If teachers have strong relationships with their colleagues and feel supported by their administrators, it makes others more willing to work with them as partners on a collaborative team and as equals in terms of professional respect. This can lead to a culture that supports collaboration and takes more ownership of the daily learning process in schools. Teachers while having a much stronger role in the running of the school, they take more ownership over student success - which can lead to better outcomes. When teachers feel empowered, respected, and connected within their schools, they are able to work together to get students where they need to be academically.

References

- Ackerman, R., & Mackenzie, S. (2006). Uncovering teacher leadership. Educational Leadership, 6(8), 66–71. https://www.ascd.org/el/articles/uncovering-teacher-leadership
- Ackerman, R., Donaldson, G., Mackenzie, S., & Marnik, G. (2011). Leadership learning that makes a difference in schools: Pushing the frontier at the University of Maine. In T. Townsend, and J. MacBeath (Eds.). International Handbook of Leadership for Learning, 22 (1) 375–396.
- Adelman, H., & Taylor, L. (2008). Fostering School, Family, and Community Involvement. Washington D.C.: George Washington University.
- Arce, S. (2019). Exploring parent and teacher perceptions of family engagement. International Journal of Teacher Leadership, 10(2), 82–94. https://education.uw.edu/sites/default/ files/1279/Samantha%20Capstone%20Handout.pdf

- Barger, M. M., Kim, E. M., Kuncel, N. R., & Pomerantz, E. M. (2019). The relation between parents' involvement in children's schooling and children's adjustment: A meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 145(9), 855–890. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/bul0000201
- Basaraba, A. (2013). Beyond the classroom walls. In Portals of Promise: Transforming Beliefs and Practices Through a Curriculum of Parents. pp. 93–101. Leiden, Netherlands: Brill.
- Becker, H. J., & Epstein, J. L. (1982). Parent involvement: A survey of teacher practices. The Elementary School Journal, 83(2), 85–102. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1086/461297
- Bolat, Ö. (2023). How teacher leaders think about parents: A mixed methods approach. Language Teaching and Educational Research (LATER), 6(1), 92–109. https://doi.org/10.35207/ later.1300281
- Bridwell-Mitchell, E. N., & Cooc, N. (2016). The ties that bind. How Social Capital is Forged and Forfeited in Teacher Communities. Educational Researcher, 45(1), 7–17. https://doi. org/10.3102/0013189X16632191
- Bryan, J., & Henry, L. (2012). A model for building school-family-community partnerships: Principles and process. Journal of Counseling & Development, 90(4), 408–420. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1002/j.1556-6676.2012.00052.x
- Carreon, G. P., Drake, C., & Barton, A. C. (2005). The importance of presence: Immigrant parents' school engagement experiences. American Educational Research Journal, 42(3), 465–498. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.3102/00028312042003465
- Castro, M., Expósito-Casas, E., López-Martín, E., Lizasoain, L., Navarro-Asencio, E., & Gaviria, J. L. (2015). Parental involvement on student academic achievement: A meta-analysis. Educational Research Review, 14, 33–46. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2015.01.002
- Ciuffatelli Parker, D. C., Grenville, H., & Flessa, J. (2011). Case Studies of School Community and Climate: Success Narratives of Schools in Challenging Circumstances. The School Community Journal, 21(1), 129–150. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ932204.pdf
- Danielson, C. (2006). Teacher Leadership That Strengthens Professional Practice. Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Donaldson, M., Johnson, S., Kirkpatrick, C., Martinell, W., Steele, J., & Szczesiul, S. (2008). Angling for access, bartering for change: How second stage teachers experience differentiated roles in schools. Teachers College Record, 110 (5) 1088–1114. DOI:10.1177/016146810811000502
- Donaldson, G. (2006). Cultivating Leadership in Schools: Connecting People, Purpose, and Practice. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Drossel, K., Eickelmann, B., van Ophuysen, S., & Wilfried, B. (2019) Why teachers cooperate: An expectancy-value model of teacher cooperation. European Journal of Psychology of Education, 34(1), 187–208. doi: 10.1007/s10212-018-0368-y
- Epstein, J. L., & Becker, H. J. (1982). Teachers' reported practices of parent involvement: Problems and possibilities. The Elementary School Journal, 83(2), 103–113. doi: 10.1086/461298
- Fairman, J., & Mackenzie, S. (2012). Spheres of teacher leadership action for learning. Professional Development in Education, 38(2) 229-246. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2012.657865
- Fairman, J., & Mackenzie, S. (2014). How teacher leaders influence others and understand their leadership. International Journal of Leadership in Education, 17(2), 1–27. doi: 10.1080/13603124.2014.904002
- Frost, D., & Durrant, J. (2003). Teacher leadership: Rationale, strategy and impact. School Leadership and Management, 23(2), 173–186. doi: 10.1080/1363243032000091940
- Gonzales, L. D. (2004). Sustaining Teacher Leadership: Beyond the Boundaries of Enabling School Culture. Lanham, MD: University Press of America.
- Grolnick, W. S., & Pomerantz, E. M. (2022). Should parents be involved in their children's schooling? Theory Into Practice, 61(3), 325-335. doi: https://doi.org/10.1080/00405841.2022.2096382
- Grolnick, W. S., & Slowiaczek, M. L. (1994). Parents' involvement in children's schooling: A multidimensional conceptualization and motivational model. Child Development, 65(1), 237–252. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.2307/1131378

- Halton, M., & Young, Ph. (2022). The Fellowship of Teachers. Teaching: Every Lesson Shapes a Life. https://getintoteaching.education.gov.uk/blog/the-fellowship-of-teachers
- Harris, A., & Muijs, D. (2005). Improving Schools Through Teacher Leadership. Maidenhead, England: Open University Press.
- Harris, A., Andrew-Power, K., & Goodall, J. (2009). Do Parents Know They Matter? Raising Achievement Through Parental Engagement. London: Network Continuum Education.
- Heifetz, R., & Linsky, M. (2004). When leadership spells danger. Educational Leadership, 61(7) 33–37. https://faithformationlearningexchange.net/uploads/5/2/4/6/5246709/_ronald_a.____heifetz_and_marty_linsky.pdf
- Henderson, A. T., & Mapp, K. L. (2002). A New Wave of Evidence: the Impact of Family, School, and Community Connections on Student Achievement. Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.
- Henderson, A., Mapp, K., Johnson, V., & Davies, D. (2007). Beyond the Bake Sale: The Essential Guide to Family-School Partnerships. New York, United States: The New Press.
- Hill, N. E., Castellino, D. R., Lansford, J. E., Nowlin, P., Dodge, K. A., Bates, J. E., & Pettit, G. S. (2004). Parent academic involvement as related to school behavior, achievement, and aspirations: Demographic variations across adolescence. Child Development, 75(5), 1491–1509. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8624.2004.00753.x
- Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (2005). Cooperative learning and social interdependence theory. In Theory and Research on Small Groups. Tindale R. S. (Ed.). (p. 9–35). New York: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Katzenmeyer, M. H., & Moller, G. V. (2009). Awakening the Sleeping Giant: Helping Teachers Develop as Leaders. 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Kolleck, N., Schuster, J., & Hartmann, U. (2021). Teachers' professional collaboration and trust relationships: An inferential social network analysis of teacher teams. Research in Education, 111(1), 89–107. doi: 10.1177/00345237211031585
- Kolleck, N. (2019). Motivational Aspects of Teacher Collaboration. Frontiers, 4(122). doi: 10.3389/ feduc.2019.00122
- Kolleck, N., Rieck, A., & Yemini, M. (2020). Goals aligned: Predictors of common goal identi- fication in educational cross-sectoral collaboration initiatives. Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 48(5), 916–934. https://doi.org/10.1177/1741143219846906
- Krammer, M., Rossmann, P., Gastager, A., & Gasteiger-Klicpera, B. (2018). Ways of composing teaching teams and their impact on teachers' perceptions about collaboration. European Journal of Teacher Education, 41(4), 463–478. https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2018.1462331
- Lazaro, G. J. (2011). Correlation of Performance and Leadership Practices towards a Teacher leadership Enhancement Program. www.southville.edu.ph/SISC KAIZEN; https://www.academia. edu/35962899/Correlation_of_Performance_and_Leadership_Practices_towards_a_Teacher_Leadership_Enhancement_Program
- Lee, M. (2019). Building relationships with fellow teachers.https://www.gcu.edu/blog/teaching-school-administration/building-relationships-fellow-teachers
- Little, J. W. (1990). The persistence of privacy: Autonomy and initiative in teachers? Professional relations. Teachers College Record, 91(4), 509–536. doi: 10.1177/016146819009100403
- MacBeath, J., & Dempster, N. (Eds.). (2009). Connecting Leadership And Learning: Principles For practice. Abingdon, England: Routledge.
- Mackenzie, S. V., Jones, A., & Ribeiro, J. M. (2007). Teacher Leaders On School Leadership Teams: Collaboration and Differentiation. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association. Chicago. https://www.educ.cam.ac.uk/networks/lfl/about/ PDFs/FairmanMackenzieECERpaper081114-1.pdf
- Mangin, M., & Stoelinga, S. (Eds.). (2008). Effective Teacher Leadership: Using Research To Inform And Reform. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

- Meredith, C., van den Noortgate, W., Struyve, C., Gielen, S., & Kyndt, E. (2017). Information seeking in secondary schools: A multilevel network approach. Social Networks, 50, 35–45. https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.socnet.2017.03.006
- Muckenthaler, M., Tillmann, T., Weiß, S., & Kiel, E. (2020). Teacher collaboration as a core objective of school development. School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 31(3), 486–504. doi: 10.1080/09243453.2020.1747501
- Murray, E., McFarland-Piazza, L., & Harrison, L. J. (2015). Changing patterns of parent-teacher communication and parent involvement from preschool to school. Early Child Development and Care, 185(7), 1031–1052. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1080/03004430.2014.975223
- Pushor, D., & Amendt, T. (2018). Leading an examination of beliefs and assumptions about parents. School Leadership & Management, 38(2), 202–221. doi: 10.1080/13632434.2018.1439466
- Redding, S. (1991). What is a school community, anyway? The School Community Journal, 1(2), 6–9. https://www.adi.org/journal/fw91/Editorial-ReddingFall1991.pdf
- Rosenberg, H. (2012). Creating Conditions for Effective and On-going Family Engagement. Family Involvement Network of Educators (FINE) Newsletter, IV(3). https://archive.globalfrp. org/family-involvement/publications-resources/creating-conditions-for-effective-and-ongoing-family-engagement
- Rosenberg, H., & Lopez, M. E. (2011). New Learning Opportunities Mean New Opportunities for Engagement. Family Involvement Network of Educators (FINE) Newsletter, III(4). https:// archive.globalfrp.org/family-involvement/publications-resources/new-learning-opportunities-mean-new-opportunities-for-engagement
- Runhaar, P., Sanders, K., & Yang, H. (2010). Stimulating teachers' reflection and feedback asking: An interplay of self-efficacy, learning goal orientation, and transformational leadership. Teaching and Teacher Education, 26(5), 1154–1161. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1016/j. tate.2010.02.011
- Sannen, J., de Mayer, S., Struyf, E., de Shower, E., & Petry, K. (2021). Connecting teacher collaboration to inclusive practices using a social network approach. Teaching and Teacher Education, 97, 103182. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2020.103182
- Scribner, J. P., Hager, D. R., & & Warne, T. R. (2002). The paradox of professional community: Tales from two high schools. Educational Administration Quarterly, 38(1), 45–76. doi: 10.1177/0013161X02381003
- Semke, C. A., & Sheridan, S. M. (2012). Family-school connections in rural educational settings: A systematic review of the empirical literature. School Community Journal, 22(1), 21–47. http:// r2ed.unl.edu/workingpapers/2011/2011_1_Semke_Sheridan.pdf
- Sheldon, S. B., & Epstein, J. L. (2004). Getting students to school: Using family and community involvement to reduce chronic absenteeism. School and Community Journal, 4(2), 39–56. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ794822.pdf
- Schuster, J., Hartmann, U., & Kolleck, N. (2021). Teacher collaboration networks as a function of type of collaboration and schools' structural environment. Teaching and Teacher Education, 103. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2021.103372; https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2021.103372
- Somech, A., & Drach-Zahavy, A. (2000). Understanding extra-role behavior in schools: The relationships between job satisfaction, sense of efficacy, and teachers' extra-role behavior. Teaching and Teacher Education, 16(5-6), 649–659. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1016/S0742-051X(00)00012-3
- Taiwo, B. (2023). Current affairs, new teachers. Teacher Friends: Why Fellow Teachers Are Best Friends. Beyond Revision. https://twinklsecondary.blog/teacher-friends-why-fellow-teachersare-best-friends/
- Thoonen, E. E. J., Sleegers, P. J. C., Oort, F. J., & Peetsma, T. (2011). How to improve teaching practices. Educational Administration Quarterly, 47(3), 496–536. doi: 10.1177/0013161X11400185

- Thurston, D. (2005). Leveling the Home Advantage: Assessing the Effectiveness of Parental Involvement in Elementary School. Sociology of Education, 78(3), 233–249. http://dx.doi. org/10.1177/003804070507800303
- Tugend, A. (2022). Community Schools Offer More Than Just Teaching. The New York Times. https://www.nytimes.com/2022/10/06/education/learning/community-schools.html
- Vangrieken, K., Dochy, F., Raes, E., & Kyndt, E. (2015) Teacher collaboration: A systematic review. Educational Research Review, 15, 17–40. doi: 10.1016/j.edurev.2015.04.002
- Weiss, H. B., Bouffard, S. M., Bridglall, B. L., & Gordon, E. W. (2009). Reframing Family Involvement in Education: Supporting Families to Support Educational Equity. Equity Matters. Research Review, 5. Columbia University, NYC, USA: Campaign for Educational Equity, Teachers College. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED523994.pdf
- Wilhelm, A. G., Chen, I.-C., Smith, T. M., & Frank, K. (2016). Selecting expertise in context. American Educational Research Journal, 53(3), 456–491. doi: 10.3102/0002831216637351
- Xiong, Z. B., Her, M., & Yunizar, C. (2023). Parental involvement with children's schooling: exploring the experiences of among parents in charter schools. School Community Journal, 33(1), 111–140. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1391472.pdf
- Yıldırım, K. (2014). Main factors of teachers' professional well-being. Educational Research and Reviews, 9(6), 153–163. doi: 10.5897/ERR2013.1691
- Yu, X., Chen, Y., Yang, C., Yang, X., Chen, X., & Dang, X. (2022). How does parental involvement matter for children's academic achievement during school closure in primary school? British Journal of Educational Psychology, 92(4), 1621–1637. doi: 10.1111/bjep.12526
- Yulianti, K., Denessen, E., Droop, M., & Veerman, G. J. (2022). School efforts to promote parental involvement: the contributions of school leaders and teachers. Educational Studies, 48(1), 98–113. https://hdl.handle.net/2066/219402
- Yulianti, K., E. Denessen, M. Droop, & Veerman, G. (2019). Transformational leadership for parental involvement: how teachers perceive school leadership practices to promote parental involvement in children's education. Leadership and Policy in Schools, 20(2), 277–292. https:// hdl.handle.net/2066/219402

4 Teacher Creative Leadership For Development Of Student Creativity

Creativity has become a topic of increasing interest in the educational environment. Developing creativity is increasingly seen as an educational necessity because it encourages the performance of individual students and influences their future success (Castillo-Vergara, 2018). Teacher creativity is related to sensitivity to problems, flexibility in finding alternative solutions to problems, fluency, and freedom in thinking and acting, originality and novelty, preparation and development, and redefinition (Utami, & Wenitra, 2014). The creativity of teachers has begun to get a sharp spotlight because it is characterised by the emergence of several phenomena in schools namely: teachers lack enthusiasm in completing their tasks related to learning devices; there are still teachers who do not have a good teaching programme; teacher's creativity in choosing learning strategies and methods; and there are still teachers who prioritise their personal interests rather than carrying out their duties as a teacher (Gusman, 2014).

To meet the demands of the 21st century classroom, teachers must adjust their classroom pedagogy from the traditional model of delivery of content to being a facilitator of discovery and inquiry-based learning that fosters greater student engagement in content and promotes 21st century skills (Eduviews, 2008). The main goal of the educational transition is to prepare students for their entry into a global society. While focusing on teaching the core content subjects – maths, science, native language, social studies, and the arts, teachers must design daily lessons that include greater opportunities for students to practice and develop critical thinking, communication, collaboration, and creativity skills. These skills are referred to as the '4Cs', or the super skills of the 21st century: using the 4Cs to engage students is imperative. As teachers prepare students for this new global society, teaching the core content subjects – maths, social studies, the arts – must be enhanced by incorporating critical thinking, communication, collaboration, and creativity (Partnership for 21st Century Learning, 2008 a, b; 2014; 2015).

There are four types of creativity (Unleashing Creativity, 2023):

• *Exploratory creativity* involves exploring new ideas, concepts, or domains taking risks and trying new things and may involve experimentation and novelty-seeking.

- *Transformative creativity* includes taking existing ideas or concepts and reshaping them in new and innovative ways, finding new connections or associations between things that were previously thought to be unrelated.
- Adaptive creativity incorporates adapting existing ideas or concepts to fit new situations or contexts, finding creative solutions to problems or challenges.
- Social creativity involves collaboration and co-creation with others, finding creative ways to work with and inspire others to achieve a common goal.

A creative mindset is an open one, that effectively creates meaningful and effective ideas and solutions. When teachers adopt this mindset, they encourage problem-solving for student teams, opening up opportunities for teaching and learning effectiveness and meaningfulness, and new uncharted areas. When teachers innovate, they break the status quo to create teaching and learning methods that differentiate them from others with a competitive edge. They build a culture of innovation by inspiring students and fellow teachers to exhibit their creativity collectively (Lum, 2022).

Creative leadership is a philosophy and an act: it develops and realises innovative ideas through the shared ambition of improving the world through enterprise formation. Those who employ creative leadership do so by forging an environment that promotes creativity, innovation, and mission-driven entrepreneurship. Creative leadership as a philosophy embraces change as a given, while seeking opportunity everywhere. It envisages desirable futures and unleashes the courage, collaboration, and creativity of contributors. Through a generous, inclusive purpose deeply rooted in pragmatic idealism and empathy, it gives rise to a transcendent consciousness that goes beyond individual gratification. Creative leadership as an act builds on those desirable futures through scalable schools derived from innovative strategies. Creativity, critical analysis, experimentation, big vision, collaboration, bold action, calculated risk-taking, agility, and hard work all drive participative value and serve the triple bottom line (planet, people, profit) (Van Dijk et al., 2023).

Teacher creative leadership is a style of leadership based upon the concept of working cooperatively to develop innovative ideas (Mumford et al., 2002). Those teachers who employ creative leadership tend to do so by creating conditions which promote creativity. Creating such conditions, which are sometimes called supportive contributions (Mainemelis et al., 2015), are described as psychological, material, and/or social supports that trigger, enable, and sustain creative thinking in others (Mainemelis et al., 2015). Teacher creative leadership may be enacted differently depending on the context:

- Facilitating. School administrations, which support teachers and students as primary creators, influencing their creative contributions and shaping each stage of the creative process. Creative teacher leaders lead in a way that increases their likelihood of generating new ideas (Mumford et al., 2002). Creative leaders foster students' creativity and may take them through a process that helps students generate new ideas, such as brainstorming (Basadur, 2004; Rickards & Moger, 2000). Those teachers who employ creative leadership are involved in the entire creative process and shape a supportive climate for creativity (Mumford et al., 2002).
- Directing. Teachers who employ creative leadership are the primary creators, and their vision is enacted through contribution and collaboration from others (Mainemelis et al., 2015). In directing, a teacher leader is integral to the production of a creative concept, while the school supports its implementation. The degree to which teachers contribute creatively may depend upon the situation. This can be compared to an orchestra conductor, who provides a vision and direction for musicians who bring their own individual contributions (Hunt et al., 2004). A strong creative teacher leader may inspire, elicit, and integrate high-quality contributions from her/his students and fellow teachers (Mumford et al., 2002).
- Integrating. There is a focus on the creative leader's ability to integrate or synthesise her/his novel ideas with various creative ideas from students (Mainemelis et al., 2015). Compared to directing and facilitating contexts, there is a greater balance between the ratio of teacher leader to follower student creative contributions and supportive contributions. Each student can receive credit for their distinct contribution, and successful leadership in this context depends on the teacher leader's ability to synthesise students' creative inputs (Simonton, 2002).

Key characteristics that define the teacher as creative leader are the following (Unleashing Creativity, 2023):

- *Vision*: teachers have a clear and compelling vision for the future of their students or the school. They can communicate this vision in a way that inspires and motivates others to follow them.
- *Curiosity*: teachers are constantly seeking out new information and experiences. Teacher has a strong desire to learn and explore, which enables them to come up with new and innovative ideas.
- *Risk-taking*: teachers understand that innovation often requires stepping outside of one's comfort zone and trying new approaches.

- Collaboration: teachers can bring students and/or fellow teachers, and/or school community together and foster a sense of collaboration and teamwork.
- *Adaptability*: teachers can adapt to changing circumstances and pivot when necessary.

The links between teacher leadership and creativity are related to the impact on students through teaching methods, reflecting and refining their own personal qualities. Teachers believe that their leadership and creativity are related to working with students in the classroom. They emphasise that it is important to integrate new information into the lesson topics (*This is creativity, because you are looking for some new forms.* R17). Teachers associate the use of new teaching methods that they invent themselves with creativity-based leadership (... sometimes you do some kind of experiment and something happens where it's unexpected for them. R34) and with the use of innovative teaching/ learning tools in classes (... there is such an inner desire to make something more interesting, better, because in reality it is very difficult to please students; because that beautiful textbook is no longer enough for them, which are now published, compared to the black and white ones we learnt from; now they are in colour with photos and all kinds of information. R27).

A creative teacher is not there just to pass on received information, but what creative teachers also do is to mentor, stimulate, provoke, and engage students' passion, energies, and spirits that can help students to discover their creative talents and develop the skills of their independent creative work as a result (Robinson, 2011). Teachers' creativity means that they are creative in finding new and exciting ways of teaching to foster students' creativity. There are three related skills in creative teaching of a teacher including encouraging students' creativity, identifying students' creativity and developing students' creativity (Robinson, 2011; Desailly, 2015; Zhang et al., 2018).

As creative leader, the teacher's pedagogical practice includes training her/ himself to acquire work skills and developing her/his methods by collecting the largest amount of information about the progress of work and monitoring successful models in her/his leadership. These are all considered ways to develop the skills of leaders (Jumaa & Nouri, 2011). The skills of creative leadership of a teacher include the sensitivity to problems: as a creative leader is the most capable person in sensing problems and having the ability to solve them; perseverance as a teacher as creative leader is persistent and able to control her/his surroundings; initiative as teachers as creative leaders are proactive and achieve a high level of performance, and organisations rely on them to make the necessary change; and authenticity as a teacher through creative leadership has the ability to be free from everything traditional and common (Sales & Bani, 2013).

Thus, a teacher's creative leadership is inseparable from teaching performance, which is considered an essential pillar in the educational processes within the classroom. Teaching performance is the degree to which teachers implement activities and processes that indicate their ability to practice educational skills inside and outside the classroom (Burns & Sinfield, 2004). It includes many complications due to the fact that teaching performance deals with students of different backgrounds, and the desired aim is helping students to learn. Teaching performance is one of the works which quality can be judged on the basis of a teacher's ability to manage it (Nassar, 2017).

Teaching performance is one of the topics that has occupied the minds of social thinkers and writers. The teaching performance could be divided into two parts: performance and teaching. Performance is the visible behaviour that can be observed, appreciated, and evaluated (Asmaa, 2016). Teaching is a set of activities with multiple aspects and dimensions (Bawashri, 2019). It includes not only information, but also knowledge, emotions, and movements that happen through presenting one's experience and knowledge, asking questions, explanation, interpretation, listening, and discussion. Teaching performance as a behaviour or effort made by a teacher to achieve the desired goals according to a set of rules and laws, which regulate the process of planning, preparing, implementing teaching, and evaluating the performance of learners and the consequent professional responsibilities (Makahleh, 2014). The teaching performance of a school teacher is defined as the commitment of a teacher to the requirements of her/his job and the tasks that are assigned, such as working hours, teaching, guiding students academically and morally, supervising their learning and researching activities, and performing her/ his pedagogical duties, as well as following the school's regulations (Asmaa, 2016).

Teaching performance is divided into several elements, including having knowledge of the requirements of the job. It includes knowledge and technical skills about the job and related fields about the job (Al-Saaida, 2021). The most important requirements include the following: being able to transform the negativity, which is found in students, to positivity, and to cast a mistake as a way to discover the right solution; having efficiency in the content of the teaching subject(s) that are related to one's specialism; respecting students and guiding them academically; developing professional competence continuously; and sharing best practices with professional community and publishing practical-professional articles (Tollerud, 2011).

Teaching performance at school includes the following characteristics: it is a purposeful, specialist, and professional activity. It is professionalised by offi-

cially appointed persons (teachers) to achieve certain goals and requires them to have teaching efficiencies, which are a set of knowledge, skills, and attitudes that are necessary to be successful in teaching. In addition, it involves mastering the courses skilfully, knowing the psychological characteristics of students, knowing the ways of teaching, and mastering the skills of teaching. Teaching is a basic, interrelated process involving planning, implementation, and evaluation (Abdullah, 2013).

Thus, the teacher's creative leadership demonstrates leadership's responsiveness to changing circumstances by utilising the components of evolving teaching performance, such as a teacher serving as a teaching/learning architect, pedagogical architect and moral educator in a classroom. Practising creative leadership in a classroom and the level of teaching performance of a teacher are interrelated. This can be explained by the fact that creative leadership and its effectiveness enhance teaching performance (Abdullah, 2013). Teachers consider the development of students' creativity as one of the goals of teaching, which they promote by applying specific teaching methods and being effective through:

Giving to the students tasks and the time to to create projects and present them in a class –

Where is their creativity? Giving some project tasks to students. While they [make] presentations, I observe those who work creative and those who don't. Some students take a simple template something to copy, paste, while others put in some videos, put in or provide more information. R31

Students can manifest their creativity in various ways through project work. Perhaps more creativity is needed when making a project, describing some topic. R31

Focusing students to work in groups or teams -

I divide students into groups and ask them to make a film, and transfer the whole film to a piece of paper so that they could draw, express a film about the class. What genre of film would it be? How do they imagine the class? What genre of film would it be? What will be the main characters? etc. Well, it is so interesting, so much fun. Of course, it didn't happen in one lesson. It's during those two hours of lessons. Then they introduced and I was observing and listening. It was the cartoon with all those characters and there were comedies. That's how they looked creatively there. R16

Forming practical tasks for students -

Students experienced lessons in a different way. In the school was a career day. The students visited various institutions, companies, then they created projects, made huge posters, presented them and hung them on the second floor of the school. R9

Involving students in extracurricular activities -

There are extracurricular activities. For examples, it's English, we had a festival of songs there. Students learn English songs, and again they have to look at it creatively, learn to sing, present that song to the class. Already the creative work of the whole group and extracurricular activities. R21

Applying innovative technology tools in the lessons and thereby attracting students to learning –

The subject is computer graphics. We apply drawings then we learn new tools and improve. Students have applied those drawings to furniture tapestries and carpets, walls, and textures. They explained verbally what sensations the colour brings, they explained why they chose that colour, what they composed, and when they listened to that music. It's interesting for them, but somehow it doesn't work out so well with the little ones, but with the bigger ones, who have a different perception. Here's the strength to listen to the classics. R31

I think that especially now, when the situation in the world is like this, when most of the teachers, including me, work very creatively, we really use a lot of ICT technologies and we are forced to conduct those lessons as interesting as possible. R6

Integrating students' experiences into the lessons and teaching the subject of the lesson based on them –

Sometimes, someone comes either with their own thoughts, or because of their own trouble, someone's car didn't start, someone's fluid leaks somewhere. You are creative at lesson if you can apply some of students' problems to the topic, and students are interested, they listen more, and share their experiences. Me, as a teacher, as a specialist, in this way I get to include students and move away from stereotypes, where I need to plan everything. R31

Encouraging students' imagination, regardless of the educational subject or topic -

The lessons of my subject are often the last and the students come already tired and I'm still with my drawing. There was one task, which we used it here before the quarantine in a very successful way, that they just come to class, we talk about the current affairs of the day, and after that, to switch to my subject, we listened to piece of classical music with our eyes closed. And after that, they asked me, if they need to repeat another song, depending on how long that piece is, and after that they have to draw me what they imagine. R21.

Though, to promote and nurture creativity, teacher leaders need to (Stoll & Temperley, 2009; Lucas, 2021):

- *Model creativity and take the risk.* One of the most powerful ways teachers can lead students' learning and development is through modelling. Teachers need to take risks experimenting with new ideas.
- Stimulate a sense of urgency. Learning occurs as a result of dissonance; when new ideas or situations don't fit with current beliefs or ways of working. When this dissonance becomes uncomfortable, it creates a sense of urgency that something needs to be done.
- *Expose students to new thinking and experiences.* Creativity is stimulated in an environment full of new ideas and experiences. The more exposed students are to ideas and others who think differently, and the more opportunities they have to think through new ways of approaching learning.
- *Self consciously relinquish control.* Schools can feel like places of control where teachers think they are being watched. This also relates to the issue of trust and feeling valued.
- Provide time and space and facilitate the practicalities. Creative thinking is facilitated by time and the mental space for ideas to evolve and be fleshed out. Some pressure of time seemed to be important for creating the sense of urgency which concentrates energy and effort. This may mean setting deadlines. Through promoting individual and collaborative creative thinking and design, and creating opportunities for both individual thought and for collaboration of teachers at school.
- Set high expectations about the degree of creativity. Promoting and valuing innovation are critical to unlocking creative practice. Starting to think creatively bred a desire for greater creativity. The mind shift often came from the top of the school, where a passionate interest in how learning and teaching could be different helped spawn a culture that expected people to think differently about learning and teaching.
- Use failure as a learning opportunity. Teachers worry a great deal about what they perceive as risks associated with experimenting with their practice. These turn out to be low risks long term, for example, the students not learning what they're supposed to in one lesson.
- *Keep referring back to core values.* While the possibilities of creative thinking and the inspiration it seems to provide teachers and students can be exciting, staying close to core values appears to provide a bedrock for development. Being clear and explicit about values and holding them in steady state offered a context and stable point of reference for students and fellow teachers.

According to the teachers, there are two directions of the teacher's leadership based on creativity – one is directed at the students' pursuit of good academic results: If we talk about my personal creativity, it means that I never think that I can do better, that I don't know yet, but it is like it is; nor better nor worse. (R17). And the other is directed at oneself as continuous improvement: If you start to think that 'I am perfect', then know that everything from that moment is a fork in the road, life goes on, and you stay in that place, because you are perfect and you no longer need to read or be interested, neither to learn something new nor to change something. This thought from afar from myself. (R27). Teachers associate their creativity in leadership with adaptability: Adapting to the student's learning abilities –

Creativity is one of the main parts of a teacher's work, because sometimes you teach those really boring and complicated things. And if you don't know how to explain it in an attractive way that the student can understand, taking into account the same knowledge of the student, skills what is relevant to her/him at the moment and that learning content should be relevant and update the content in such a way that the student gets excited so that s/he wants to do it. (R33).

Adapting to the context and the situation in the classroom promptly 'here and now' –

When I find myself in front of an audience, I have one or some kind of vision, but suddenly it turns out that the circumstances are such that I can't realise that vision and I need to come up with some kind of analogue 'here and now'. When I give examples, it really seems so creative, so extraordinary. I don't know how much time, how much energy I devote to creating the content of the lesson, etc., and it just fails. Well, it doesn't work. And I need something, just something. You I change the format and take some kind of a theatre, or some kind of scene here, so that I move them and abandon what I had planned. But it works. (R28)

Sometimes, I had to use my creativity. Once during the literature class we had a discussion <...> very complicated, and I decided that there was no point in 'torturing' students to the end. We just came up with another method. And that method was that I had brought a deck of playing cards with me that day. There is such a game called 'Dixit' board game, where there are such coloured and very different drawn cards, and we have agreed the rules so that everyone speaks and it is not that one speaks and the other ten remain silent. The students had to draw those cards, but not show them to anyone, and for the communication to go smoothly, the students had to create a story. They didn't have time to think. They had to bring the card so quickly, look at it and tell what was written there, thus creating a story. And another student. They stood in a circle. The next student had to pick up a card as well and continue the story of the student who was before her/him, connecting it to what is drawn on his card. It was actually like that and the brainstorming was not bad, because they had to roll quickly and they didn't have time because they didn't see the cards themselves. They didn't have time to come up with a story. They had to quickly put down their card and quickly match that story with the words of the previous student. I think it was quite creative because it motivated the students to learn and to be creative. R33

Teachers see a big role of creativity in leadership within the classroom. They talk about their creative leadership, which they relate to their students and themselves. When talking about students, they emphasise their flexibility, ad-aptability by applying various teaching methods, constructing educational environments, taking into account students' shared abilities and ability to learn and learning limitations, which they aim to reduce through students' creativity. Teachers implement creative leadership by bringing students together for learning in groups and teams, presenting tasks for which students must complete and present projects. For this, they must collect and systematise information, read it, discuss with each other, justify their ideas and creative decisions made, and take responsibility for the outcome of the project.

Teachers see increasing their creativity through continuous improvement and learning, i.e. continuous development of knowledge and skills. Lithuanian teachers, unlike teachers from the international context, do not associate creative leadership with the school community or the school administration. They see creative leadership as individual, independent and original actions and decisions that are adapted to a specific context and/or situation. For teachers, this means surprises in teaching and learning, change and they pay the most attention to personal sophistication, education and professionalism. Teachers in creative leadership pay great attention to the applied teaching methods and teaching tools, the vast majority of which are associated with ICT, and as a result they set requirements for mastering ICT tools and the ability to apply them in lessons. Hence, targeted courses and seminars are important to them, and therefore they scrupulously choose where and what to study.

International studies reveal that teachers need the support of the school administration while implementing creative leadership. Lithuanian teachers do not express such an opinion. They claim that the teacher is the leader in the classroom, and the development of students' creativity and the creative educational environment depend on her or his competence. Here they link the teacher's knowledge, skills and values. Teachers value openness, freedom, autonomy and respect in their relationships with students and maintaining an educational environment imbued with these values in the classroom.

International studies emphasise the need for financial support for teachers due to the application of measures. Lithuanian teachers adhere to the attitude that the vast majority of modern tools are ICT and the internet. If the teacher is competent and has extensive knowledge of teaching methods, then such a dyad is sufficient to develop students' creativity, because the teacher must be able to influence their various intelligences – mathematical-logical, linguistic,

visual/spatial, musical, bodily/kinesthetic, natural, interpersonal and intrapersonal. From the interview data, it can be seen that the strongest orientation in the tasks performed by the students is towards mathematical-logical, linguistic and interpersonal intelligence.

References

- Abdullah, W. (2013). Faculty Member Specialization from the Point of View of Faculty Members in Palestinian Universities. Master's Thesis. Nablus, Palestine: An-Najah University.
- Al-Saaida, M. (2015). University Teaching Skills that should be Available to Faculty Members at Al-Balqa Applied University from Their Point of View. Master's Thesis. Amman, Jordan: Middle East University.
- Asmaa, M. (2016). The Quality of the University Professor's Teaching Performance from the Students' Point of View, a Field Study at the University of Batna. Master's Thesis. Batna, Algeria: University of Batna.
- Basadur, M. (2004). Leading others to think innovatively together: Creative leadership. The Leadership Quarterly, 15(1), 103–121. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2003.12.007
- Bawashri, H. (2019). The Strategy of Time Management and Its Relationship to Teaching Performance of the University Professor from the Students' Point of View. Master's Thesis. Khemis Miliana, Algeria: University of Djilali Bounaama.
- Burns, T., & Sinfield, S. (2004). Teaching Learning and Study Skills: A Guide for Tutors. New York, NY, USA: Sage Publications.
- Castillo-Vergara, M., Galleguillos, N.B., Cuello, L.J., Alvarez-Marin, A., & Acuña-Opazo, C. (2018). Does socioeconomic status influence student creativity? Thinking Skills and Creativity, 29, 142–152. doi: 10.1016/j.tsc.2018.07.005
- Desailly, J. (2015). Creativity in the Primary Classroom. London, UK: Sage.
- Eduviews (2008). Teaching in the 21st Century: A Review of the Issues and Changing Models in the Teaching Profession. Washington, DC: Blackboard. https://www.blackboard.com/resourc-es/k12/k12_teaching21st_final.pdf
- Gusman, H. E. (2014). Relationship between principal leadership style and teacher performance in SMP N sub-district Palembayan Agam District. Education Management Bahana Journal, 2(1), 293–301. doi: 10.30868/ei.v11i02.2536
- Hunt, J. G., Stelluto, G. E., & Hooijberg, R. (2004). Toward new-wave organization creativity: Beyond romance and analogy in the relationship between orchestra-conductor leadership and musician creativity. The Leadership Quarterly, 15(1), 145–162. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2003.12.009
- Jumaa, M., & Nouri, H. (2011). The Impact of Successful Administrative Leadership in Achieving Administrative Creativity—An Applied Study of the Opinions of Senior Leaders at the University of Diyala. Journal Economic, Science and Administrative Science, 34, 299–318. doi: 10.6007/ IJARBSS/v4-i5/870
- Lucas, B. (2021). Creative School Leadership. The Creative Schools Program. Department of Education, Government of Western Australian Government, Centre for Real-World Learning, Winchester University & FORM.
- Lum, J. (2022). How To Embody Creativity In Leadership. https://www.forbes.com/sites/forbescoachescouncil/2022/07/14/how-to-embody-creativity-in-leadership/?sh=5d73f69d4a99
- Mainemelis, C., Kark, R., & Epitropaki, O. (2015). Creative Leadership: A Multi-Context Conceptualization. Academy of Management Annals, 9(1), 393–482. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1 080/19416520.2015.1024502
- Makahleh, H. (2014). The Degree of Creative Leadership Practice by the Deans of Pharmacy Faculties in Jordanian Universities and Its Relationship to the Level of Their Support for the

Scientific Productivity of Faculty Members. Master's Thesis. Zarqa, Jordan: The Hashemite University.

- Mumford, M. D., Scott, Ginamarie, M., Gaddis, B., & Strange, J. M. (2002). Leading creative people: Orchestrating expertise and relationships. The Leadership Quarterly, 13(6), 705–750. doi: 10.1016/S1048-9843(02)00158-3.
- Nassar, A. (2017). Teaching performance of faculty members at the faculties of education according to the students' point of view at university of Gaza. Master, 25, 160–174. https://jsrep. journals.ekb.eg/article_316071_9f2cf82a9d57d862e5f9c2bc5a904149.pdf
- Partnership for 21st Century Learning (2008a). 21st Century Skills, Education & Competitiveness A Resource and Policy Guide. http://www.p21.org/storage/documents/21st_century_skills_ education_and_competitiveness_guide.pdf
- Partnership for 21st Century Learning (2008b). Moving education forward. Partnership for 21st century skills. Tucson, AR: Author. http://www.p21.org/storage/documents/p21_brochure_updated_dec_08_final-1.pdf
- Partnership for 21st Century Learning (2014). Learning for the 21st Century: A eport and MILE Guide for 21st Century Skills. Washington, DC: Author. http://www.p21.org/storage/documents/P21_Report.pdf
- Partnership for 21st Century Learning (2015). We Are Taking Teaching and Learning Above & Beyond. [Poster]. Washington, DC: Author. www.p21.org/storage/documents/4csposter.pdf
- Rickards, T., & Moger, S. (2000). Creative Leadership Processes in Project Team Development: An Alternative to Tuckman's Stage Model. British Journal of Management, 11(4), 273–283. doi: 10.1111/1467-8551.00173
- Robinson, K. (2011). Out of our minds: Learning to be Creative. Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons.
- Saleh, Q., & Bani, B. (2013). Creative leadership and its relationship to the requirements of quality management at the University of Kufa from the point of view of its administrative leaders. Al-Qadisiyah Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Science, 15, 113–138. doi: 10.59670/jns.v33i.489
- Simonton, D. K. (2002). Collaborative Aesthetics in the Feature Film: Cinematic Components Predicting the Differential Impact of 2,323 Oscar-Nominated Movies. Empirical Studies of the Arts, 20(2), 115–125. doi: 10.2190/rhq2-9uc3-6t32-hr66
- Stoll, L., & Temperley, J. (2009). Creative leadership: a challenge of our times. School Leadership and Management, 29(1), 63–76. doi: 10.1080/13632430802646404
- Tollerud, T. (2011). The Perceived Self-Efficacy of Teaching Skills of Advanced Doctoral Studies and Graduates from Counselor Education Programs. Ph.D. Thesis. Iowa City, IA, USA: The University of Iowa.
- Utami, S., & Wenitra. (2014). Teacher's perception of principal's managerial skills in the state junior high school of Koto Tangah District, Padang City. Journal of Educational Administration, 2(1), 765.
- van Dijk, M., Davidson, G., & Mecozzi, V. (2023). What is Creative Leadership? https://www.thnk. org/insights/what-is-creative-leadership/
- Zhang, Q., Siribanpitak, P., & Charoenkul, N. (2018). Creative leadership strategies for primary school principals to promote teachers' creativity in Guangxi, China. Kasetsart Journal of Social Sciences, in press, 1–7. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.kjss.2018.08.007

5 Servant Leadership Of A Teacher Through Caring Support For Students

Greenleaf highlighted the notion of *servant leadership* in his essay 'The Servant as Leader', where he explained that a 'servant leader is servant first' (1970). In schools today, we are seeing traditional, autocratic, and hierarchical modes of leadership yielding to a different way of working one based on teamwork and community, one that seeks to involve others in decision making, one strongly based in ethical and caring behaviour, and one that is attempting to enhance the personal growth of workers while improving the caring and quality of our many institutions (Reilly & Spears, 2018).

The idea of a servant as a leader is a very different perspective on leadership, as it focuses on the needs of the followers while the focus of the leader is ensuring that those needs are being served (Greenleaf, 1970). Not only does the idea of servant leadership force us to change how we think of leadership, it also demands a different model of leadership: not the traditional, hierarchical mode of leadership, but a model based on community, teamwork and involving others in decision making (Greenleaf, 2003).

Servant leadership is an approach to both life and work that is on-going, enduring, and transformational (Spears, 2010). It can be thought of as a philosophy that radiates into everything that a servant leader does in their lives (Crippen & Willows, 2019). It is a way of being (Kajitani, 2015). Teachers as servant leaders earn the trust and respect of colleagues, students and the school around them. And then the members of school community then choose to follow the teacher servant. The followers have a choice, as servant leadership is not about a role or a title (Ferch & Spears, 2015) it is about a teacher's moral authority (Sipe & Frick, 2009).

Teacher servant leadership includes ten characteristics: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualisation, foresight, stewardship, commitment to growth and community building (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2007; Crowther, 2002; Greenleaf, 2003; Mujis & Harris, 2006; Margolis & Huggins, 2012; Spears, 2010; Supovitz, 2018; Wenner & Campbell, 2017; York-Barr & Duke, 2004):

• *Listening*. Reflective and deep listening before responding to any problem. Teachers are genuinely interested while they are listening for building strength in those being listened to, because teachers foster a collaborative culture at school.

- *Empathy*. Teachers include striving to fully understand and empathise with others at school and earn trust, confidence and rapport with their colleagues and students.
- *Healing*. Teachers heal themselves and members of school community through their actions for support when times are challenging, difficult or something traumatic has occurred. Teachers influence developmenet of a collaborative culture at school by dividing their attention to relationships and connections. Creating a connection across a culture of isolation at school is one example of how teachers are healing themselves and their colleagues as the isolated culture of teaching diminishes professional growth and professionalism.
- Awareness. Being aware of as much as possible strengthens effectiveness as a teacher-servant leader. This awareness allows servant leaders to step aside from context and detach in order to be able to fully see all of the intricacies in particular situation. Often teacher leaders are very aware of their role as a leader and are concerned with how this might affect their relationships with their peers.
- *Persuasion*. Teachers seek to convince others through influence, and provide genuine, compelling reasons for action, and lead by convincement. Servant leadership for teachers means influence, and they use a form of collaboration based on collegiality for teaching and learning. Also, teachers use leading by example in order earn their colleagues' trust and encourage and collaborate with their peers.
- Conceptualisation. Servant leadership from teachers requires creativity to look at a problem and a school from a wider perspective through thing ing about and reflecting on everyday realities at school. And to encourage school community, especially fellow teachers to go beyond their traditional roles.
- Foresight. Teachers are able to reflect on information and understandings and predict happenings in the future by anticipating consequences of decisions correctly. Foresight involves being connected to the present as it is informed by the past and as it informs the future. Teacher-servant leaders can envisage the broader impact of decisions made by school administrators and fellow teachers and through that to connect their servant leadership to school improvement and to move educational change forward at school. Teachers as servant leaders identify themselves as teachers first, not leaders first, and this positions them in a strong place as they are more able to make decisions based on what is best for students and supports their colleague teachers.

- Stewardship. Service is central to the work of teacher as servant leader and that includes being a steward for the school so that it may contribute to the greater good of society and make a positive impact (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2007). Teachers consider the good at all times, including potential impacts on fellow teachers, students, school administrators and the whole school community. Teachers demonstrate stewardship by advocating for their colleagues, students and profession. They are stewards through their active participation in school improvement and teacher professional development.
- Commitment to growth. Teachers promote growth among teacher colleagues, seeing their role as helping colleagues become better teachers through collaboration. The primary concern of teacher leaders is to support professional learning in their schools through organising learning communities, leading professional development programmes and assisting teachers in their classrooms.
- Community building. Teachers build community when they work collaboratively by leading and developing professional learning opportunities. They establish social linkages and networks among peers and school community, and they facilitate its learning through organisational processes. Teachers' servant leadership extends beyond the school as they strive to create connections to the community outside of the school through collaboration with families, communities, and colleagues.

In the study, servant leadership for teachers means caring support for students, professional conscientiousness when working with (un)motivated students, collective classroom learning community formation through teacher and student empowerment, teacher self-esteem, responsible student care, and professional commitment.

Caring support and *responsible caring* in teacher service-based leadership are not identical phenomena. Students report feeling more connected to both their school and their peers when they feel that their teachers go out of their way to help students, make time to talk about the things students want to talk about, help students to organise their work and catch up when they return from an absence, and take a personal interest in students (Search Institute, 2020). The teacher's caring support is manifested in efforts to inspire students with a positive attitude towards the success of conscious learning and to strengthen self-esteem:

I would probably not be one of those people where the most important thing for me was that students achieve something, that they benefit from it, get motivation, want to achieve more, improve their results. But not work for the grade. R23

I encourage others to have equal opportunities and equal rights for people, and everything here could only be based on this principle. R22

Caring teacher leaders show interest in students' welfare, respect students' perspectives, tell students they can succeed, know students' academic and social needs, and recognise students' academic and social achievements (Nishioka, 2019).

Being a caring and supportive teacher leader does not mean coddling; rather, it means holding students accountable while providing support they need lo succeed (Stipek, 2006). *Responsible caring* for teachers means giving priority to students and fellow teachers while leaving family members in the background, empowering responsibility regardless of personal well-being and benefits, unconditional dedication to the school community, helping students to understand 'life around' through the subject (to understand the interaction between the subject and real life), a favourable learning environment creation for students and help to learn by inspiring students.

Students share their feelings and information about themselves with teachers who are affectionate and nurturing. These close relationships with teachers lead to higher levels of student engagement and achievement (Pianta, 1999). Specific behaviours that promote positive relationships with students include listening to their concerns, responding to transgressions gently and with explanations rather than sharply and with punishment, and showing positive emotions (smiling, being playful). Students report that they work harder for teachers who treat them as individuals and express interest in their personal lives outside school. Caring teachers, they report, are also honest, fair, and trusting (Davidson & Phelan, 1999). These teachers grant students some autonomy and opportunities for decision making (Stipek, 2006).

Excerpt	Subcategory	Category
I think not about myself, but about my students, about my colleagues, when I experience some very big difficulties. R8	Prioritising stu- dents and fellow teachers	Responsi- ble care of the teacher
You don't have the strength either physically or emotionally, and it's not your responsibility to organise that activity. But if I have promised to help or if I just feel that it is the responsibility of the whole community, not one specific person, then I will do it, even if I don't have the strength, time R8	Empowerment to take responsibility regardless of per- sonal well-being and benefit	

Excerpt I don't think that even with some effort I would change something. I don't know how much it be- nefits the community. But, in relation to students, I always tend to them very much R8	Subcategory Unconditional dedication to the school commu- nity	Category
Due to the fact that I come to class to serve the students, my mission is to help them understand the life around them. It's a matter of technology, maybe it's not of the first importance, but it's our life. It is also our environment, in which different kind of things is. R7	Helping students to understand through the edu- cational subject 'life around'	
I serve because my goal is not to make students feel bad, that they are not learning well, or somet- hing like that. It is precisely my mission that ever- yone takes as much as possible from the school and came to class to take something away. And I try in every way to make it better for them. R7	Creating a favou- rable learning environment for students	-
To serve, to work outside of yourself, to simply fol- low orders, instructions, or to serve in a good way, that is to be a teacher with a capital letter. R20	Helping to learn by inspiring stu- dents	-

Teachers prioritise the school community, fellow teachers and students. For them it is 'self-evident'. Teachers take responsibility 'without asking', i.e. voluntarily, not seeking personal welfare or gain, but thinking of the school community and each of its members. This testifies to the teacher's unconditional dedication to the school. And this makes sense. The routines, community building, and relationships that are formed in the early weeks of school are all in service of an equally important aspect: rich and meaningful content-area learning. Prioritising both school culture actions and high-quality instruction isn't a question of 'either/or' – it's a question of balancing both (*Four Ways to Prioritise School Culture & Instruction From the Start*, 2023).

A teacher lives to serve. A teacher is dedicated to learning, to her/his discipline, to her/his students, and to making the future the best possible place for all of us to live. The teacher prefers to think about learning and helping others learn, as opposed to teaching (Licklider, 2008). The teachers are convinced that their mission is to 'help students understand the life around them' so that they respect people, their work, understand the processuality of the processes and results they experience in life as things (*Our environment, where we are, there are all kinds of things. Everything don't appear from somewhere, they are born or created, reflected or perceived and etc. somehow, that's all the logic I want to show.* R22).

Teachers make efforts to (co)create a favourable learning environment for students so that 'everyone takes as much as possible from the school, and when they come to class, they take something away'. Therefore, the teacher's help to students in inspiring them to learn is significant. Teachers implement this by serving the school community and especially the students: *service is in a good way because the very inspiration to teach, to help learn came from my school years.* R4.

Teachers do not act only in the classroom where they instruct students more or less in isolation from other classes and teachers. A modern view of teaching also includes professional activities at the school level, such as co-operating in teams, building professional learning communities, participating in school development, and evaluating and changing working conditions (Darling-Hammond, 2006). These activities shape the learning environment at the school, i.e. the school climate, ethos and culture, and thus directly and indirectly (via classroom-level processes) affect student learning.

The collective formation of a learning community in the classroom occurs when the teacher and students recognise that they are learning from each other, i.e. implementing an equal learning partnership between the teacher and the students (*I'm just showing the direction, and we're all 'sailing' together on this ship and only together can we reach the port.* R35). Teachers consider it their mission to create an atmosphere of learning joy in the classroom, recognising that only together with the students can they achieve the intended learning goal (*Praise them so that they experience that joy, perhaps when they do something well or do it correctly, that joy of knowledge, such is my mission.* R40).

While it's important to acknowledge existing challenges, it's also essential to remember that a key aspect of teaching profession is joy. Joy isn't only found when things go well. It's about a deep sense of fulfilment, trust, and hope teachers can hold on to, even in times of struggle. Joyful moments with students aren't just 'good things', but positive things that are contextualised and made richer by knowing the moments when teachers struggled together too. Centring joy asks teachers to acknowledge their struggles, attempt to transcend them, and perhaps even reframe their perspective. Joy can help teachers cultivate a strong community, encourage them to seek resources and connect with each other, and energise them to transform the challenges teachers face (Cawdery, 2023).
Tab. 2:	Collective	formation	of a	a learning	community	in	the	classroom:
	categories	and subcat	egor	ies				

Excerpt	Subcategory	Category
I don't think teaching is a service. Well, for me it's more already the word to serve means so- mething that you are not on the same level. My credo is that we are all in the same boat. I am the captain of that ship, and help steer that ship. I'm showing the direction, and we're all sailing together on this ship and only together we can reach the port. R31	Equal learning part- nership between teacher and students	Forming a collective learning commu- nity in the classroom
One has more, the other has less. Praise so that students experience the joy, perhaps when they do something well or do it right, that joy of knowledge, that is the mission. R7	The atmosphere of learning joy is crea- ted by the teacher and the students	

Teachers experience servant leadership through *professional dutifulness* when working with unmotivated students, as it is necessary to 'employ' willpower and patience. Meanwhile, when working with motivated students, they experience psychological comfort and professional pleasure (*I really have someone I serve and with whom I enjoy working.* R13). However, teachers understand their pedagogical mission – they look for and find pedagogical 'access' to each student and individually help them learn (*Approach each and help them, each individually.* R17). The most important personal qualities suggested by teachers are discipline, dutifulness, punctuality and co-operation. Discipline is one most important personal attribute for everybody but for a teacher it is an integral part of life because it is a duty to make a sense about discipline among students. If a teacher is not performing disciplined behaviour, so how can s/he expect that his/her students behave in disciplined manner? (Lohani & Nautiyal, 2015).

Tab. 3: A teacher's professional dutifulness: categories and subcategories

Excerpt	Subcategory	Category
For some students, if you don't have any psychological comfort with them, then you are serving them. R21	Lack of psy- chological comfort	Professio- nal dutiful- ness
With those students who have never bothered you. You work with them sincerely. And with those with whom you don't feel safe, and you don't feel in a good psychological state, you are probably serving there. I have someone I serve and with whom I am happy to work. R22	Voluntary sniffing to 'work off'	

Excerpt	Subcategory	Category
Well, this is different from that service, maybe I won't even name it because it is not the Lord, the teacher who came to the class, now there is deathly silence and now I will do as I tell them. I help them, each individually. R17	Individual differentiated support for students	

Among many elements that are relevant to teachers' attributes, mental elements, such as commitment, motivation, and self-effectiveness have the most important function (Ma, 2022). Effective servant leadership affects teachers' motivation and commitment (Elsaied, 2021).

Professional commitment to teachers is integral to their servant leadership. Professional commitment of teachers is experienced by unconditional sacrifice to the profession and family by giving fragmented attention. Regardless of the complexity of the professional activity, teachers experience professional satisfaction, which allows them to experience professional dedication. Teachers strive to 'be everything' for students and therefore always strive for the maximum result first of all from themselves (*show the maximum, talk as much as possible, when necessary, the maximum.* (R19)). Commitment is important for teachers as it reflects a personal interpretation of work experience as absorbing and meaningful. It is a significant factor in efforts to improve students' academic achievement. There are three 'matters' commonly associated with teacher commitment: profession, student learning and the community (Hussen et al., 2016).

Tab. 4: Professional commitment of teacher: categories and subcategories

Excerpt	Subcate- gory	Category
I am really serving, I have served and I am still serving. Working at school is really hard. It takes a lot of time. From early age, my children saw that mother did not have time, that she was always at school. They allowed me to work. And I'm really dedicated to work, and work comes first for me, and everything else comes second. That's why I can confidently say that I serve. R9	Uncon- ditional dedication to the pro- fession	Professio- nal comm- mitment
I don't think much about the salary, but there is a duty that I have to do that I like to do. And I do it. If it wasn't for the housemates, then I wouldn't be a teacher. I wouldn't be able to work because as a teacher you still have to be a teacher all the time. You have to work and to think. But when I think about it now, the son comes from work, the daughter comes from work, and they rest. I can't rest. I still have lots of work to do both today and tomorrow. R19	Giving un- conditional priority to professio- nal activi- ties	-

Excerpt	Subcate- gory	Category
Maybe at times serving, at times not serving, but working because I like that work. It depends on the situation, the day, and the mood. R16	Professio- nal satisfaction	
This is the first thought, maybe I would identify myself more with service, maybe even more through the activities of a class teacher. I try to do the maximum that I can. Maximum showing, maximum talking when necessary, maximum 'being everything'. R29	Striving for the maxi- mum result in the class	-

Professional self-esteem is an important concept that should be highlighted to teachers because it makes them understand their worth, evaluate their expertise and adjust themselves accordingly with their ambience. As far as the teachers are concerned, it becomes more imperative for them to persistently evaluate their competencies in order to perform their model role at its best. This continuous perusal of their professional abilities is the essence of teacher self-esteem as it would, undoubtedly, enable them to explore those qualities which are complementary to the vitality of their role as a teacher-servant. The perception of professional self-esteem is very important as it advocates the very essence of professionalism amongst the teachers (Tabassum & Ali, 2012). Servant leadership provides opportunities for teachers to experience professional self-esteem, which is also related to fellow teachers expressing their opinions and attitudes to each other, focusing on the well-being of students and strengthening student-student communication.

Excerpt	Subcategory	Category
I'm not that teacher where there have been such situations, for example, where they say that this student has such a grade in that subject, and that one in that, and Lithuanians should also have such a semester Even the cheese in the mouse-killers, and that costs money, I'm not the kind of teacher who obeys. I have my own opinion. I am entitled to my opinion and I think that the welfare of students should always come first in this case. R23	Courage to ex- press an opinion openly	Professional selfesteem
This is probably when those strong relationships are created. I also understand that I am both a lady and a servant to the children. This one helps. R24	Strengthening communication with the student	

 Tab. 5: Professional self-esteem of teacher: categories and subcategories

Servant leadership is an approach to leadership that embraces the opportunity for the leaders to embrace service to their followers. This approach to leadership puts the goals, needs, and development of 'followers' ahead of those of the leader. Applying servant leadership to classroom contexts serves as an opportunity to improve education by positively impacting student learning, development, and deepening the student-centredness of instruction (Noland & Richards, 2015).

Servant leadership's potential transferability to teacher leadership is evident in the existing research linking servant leadership to high quality leader-member exchanges, positive attitudes, and high levels of commitment and performance (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). These outcomes manifest in a classroom setting in similar, albeit different, ways. A positive attitude about work is analogous to affective learning, commitment should impact motivation, and performance is analogous to cognitive learning (Noland & Richards, 2014). However, relatively little literature investigates the impact of servant teaching on student outcomes. Drury (2005) argues for more scholarship to explore the relationships between servant teaching and student outcomes, namely student learning.

References

- Barbuto, J.E. & Wheeler, D.W. (2007). Becoming a Servant Leader: Do You Have What It Takes? NebGuide G02-1481-A. Lincoln: University of Nebraska, Nebraska Cooperative Extension.
- Cawdery, Ch. T. (2023). How to nurture your joy in teaching. Edutopia. https://www.edutopia.org/ article/sparking-teaching-joy/
- Crippen, C., & Willows, J. (2019). Connecting teacher leadership and servant leadership: a synergistic partnership. Journal of Leadership Education, 18(2), 171–180. doi: 10.12806/V18/I2/T4
- Crowther, F. (2002). (2002). Developing Teacher Leaders: How Teacher Leadership Enhances School Success. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2006). Constructing 21st-century teacher education. Journal of Teacher Education, 57(10), 1–15. doi: 10.1177/0022487105285962
- Davidson, A.. & Phelan, P, (1999). Students' Multiple Worlds. In Advances In Motivation And Achievement: Role Of Context, 2, 233-283. Stamford, CT: JAI Press.
- Drury, S. (2005). Teacher as Servant Leader: A Faulty Model For Effectiveness With Students. Paper presented at the Servant Leadership Research Roundtable, Regent University, Virginia Beach, VA.
- Elsaied, M. M. (2021). Servant leadership and career commitment: the mediating role of organizational-based self-esteem. Human Systems Management, 40(6), 871–884. doi: 10.3233/HSM-211230
- Ferch, S.R., & Spears, L.C. (2015). Conversations On Servant-Leadership: Insights on Human Courage in Life and Work. Albany, NY: SUNY Press.
- Greenleaf, R. (2003). The Servant Leader Within: A Transformative Path. Mahwah, NJ: Paulist Press.
- Greenleaf, R. (1970). The Servant As Leader. Indianapolis, IN: Robert K. Greenleaf Center.

- Hussen, A. A., Tegegn, S. A. W., & Teshome, T. Z. (2016). Teachers professional commitment towards students learning, their profession and the community in Eastern Ethiopian secondary schools. Journal of Teacher Education and Educators, 5(3), 289–314.
- Kajitani, A. (2015). How do you know whether you're a teacher leader? Kappa Delta Pi Record, 51(3), 121-125. doi: 10.1080/00228958.2015.1056663
- Licklider, B. (2008). My Philosophy of Teaching. Faculty Focus. https://www.facultyfocus.com/ articles/my-philosophy-of-teaching/
- Lohani, S., & Nautiyal, A. K. (2015). Professional identities among teacher educators: perception of pupil teachers & trainees. Journal of Culture, Society and Development, 11, 22–29. https:// www.iiste.org/Journals/index.php/JCSD/article/view/25655/26251
- Ma, D. (2022). The role of motivation and commitment in teachers' professional identity. Frontiers in Psychology, 13, 910747. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2022.910747
- Margolis, J. & Huggins, K.S. (2012). Distributed but undefined: New teacher leader roles to change schools. Journal of School Leadership, 22(5), 953–981. doi: 10.1177/105268461202200506
- Nishioka, V. (2019). Positive and Caring Relationships with Teachers are Critical to Student Success. Education Northwest, February. https://educationnorthwest.org/insights/positive-and-caring-relationships-teachers-are-critical-student-success
- Noland, A. & Richards, K. (2014). The relationship among transformational teaching and student motivation and learning. The Journal of Effective Teaching, 14(3), 5–20. https://files.eric. ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1060434.pdf
- Noland, A., & Richards, K. (2015). Servant teaching: an exploration of teacher servant leadership on student outcomes. Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 15(6), 16–38. doi: 10.14434/josotl.v15i6.13928
- Pianta, R. (1999). Enhancing Relationships Between Children and Teachers. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Reilly, M. J., & Spearrs, L. C. (2018). Make your life extraordinary: the teacher as servant-leader. The International Journal of Servant-Leadership, 12(1), 57–84. doi: 10.33972/ijsl.70
- Search Institute (2020). Building Developmental Relationships During the COVID-19 Crisis. https://www.search-institute.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/03/Coronavirus-check-list-Search-Institute.pdf
- Spears, L. C. (2010). Character and servant leadership: Ten characteristics of effective, caring leaders. The Journal of Virtues & Leadership, 1, 25–30. https://www.regent.edu/wp-content/ uploads/2020/12/Spears_Final.pdf
- Sipe, J. & Frick, D. (2009). Seven Pillars of Servant leadership: Practicing the Wisdom of Leading by Serving. Mahwah, NJ: Paulist Press.
- Supovitz, J.A. (2018). Teacher leaders' work with peers in a quasi-formal teacher leadership model. School Leadership and Management, 38(1), 53–79. doi: 10.1080/13632434.2017.1389718
- Tabassum, F., & Ali, M. A. (2012). Professional self-esteem of secondary school teachers. Asian Social Science, 8(2), 206–210. doi: 10.5539/ass.v8n2p206
- van Dierendonck, D., & Nuijten, I. (2011). The servant leadership survey: Development and validation of a multidimensional measure. Journal of Business & Psychology, 26(3), 249–267. doi: 10.1007/s10869- 010-9194-1
- Wenner, A. & Campbell, T. (2017). The theoretical and empirical basis of teacher leadership: A review of the literature. Review of Educational Research, 87(1), 134–171. doi: 10.3102/0034654316653478
- York-Barr, J. & Duke, K. (2004). What do we know about teacher leadership? Findings from two decades of scholarship. Review of Educational Research, 74(3), 255–316. doi: 10.3102/00346543074003255

6 Teacher Leadership In Helping Students To Discover Their Self-Expression Through/In Learning

The teacher's leadership is related to the disclosure of students' self-expression in learning through encouraging students to cooperate with each other, mutual feedback ensured and supported by the teacher, promotion of multifaceted dialogue in the classroom, diversity of the application of teaching methods, the teacher's support for students in learning, teacher-student partnership, the teacher's shared learning leadership with students and implementation of learning quality in the classroom.

The teaching-learning process has a goal: the education of the student whose ultimate aim is the flourishing of the individual, her/his fulfilment, which includes the good of the community of which he or she is a part. The communion between people can be considered the ultimate expression of this flourishing or fullness (López González, 2022). This purpose guides and gives meaning to the teaching-learning process by linking teacher and student in a relationship that helps both to flourish (Lumpkin et al., 2014). Teacher-student relationships are critical for students' emotional well-being, motivation, and academic success (Pekrun et al., 2017). Leadership is about relationships, about credibility, about passion and conviction, and ultimately about what you do for others (Kouzes & Posner, 2017). Teacher leadership is also linked to the exercise of virtues (VanderWeele, 2017) and character education (Lickona, 1996). When teachers show interest, care, and concern for their students, engage with them and help them to find meaning and purpose in difficult moments, students have better moral development (Fernández Espinosa & López González, 2023).

Encouraging students to cooperate

Cooperative learning is a teaching method in which small groups of students will be able to support each other to comprehend the lessons (Slavin, 2011). Five components of cooperative learning are positive cooperation, interaction tendency, individual responsibility, developing interpersonal and social skills, and quality of group performance.

Teachers demonstrate leadership in the classroom by organising students' cooperative learning:

We don't have much time for any broader discussions when there are 20 students, so there is not much time to start such discussions only for the group, no matter who is already there, we form groups with one another – those who are not so brave discuss in groups, they come to me individually to report. While others in the group are talking, I can see them talking, and I can hear them speaking in English. And then I don't see what mistakes they make. R9

Cooperative learning enhances students' academic outcomes, relational skills, and mindset when working collaboratively with other members in groups (Chen, 2018). While discussion and cooperative learning could be a more effective teaching method for teachers to improve student learning outcomes, many traditional teaching methods such as lecture-based, demo, and competitive learning tasks are still widely used in schools worldwide (Nguyen et al., 2009; Tran & Lewis, 2012a, b). Cooperative learning which encourages students' collaboration for shared goal achievement and motivation could be a more beneficial alternative to lecture-based teaching (Magnesio & Davis, 2010; Mehra & Thakur, 2008). Cooperative learning enhances better relationships between participants and higher individual learning responsibility (Johnson & Johnson, 2005), self-esteem, cohesiveness, and learning skills (Azizan et al., 2018). Cooperative learning has been known to increase students' learning motivation (Anderson & Palmer, 2001; Johnson & Johnson, 2009).

Cooperative learning influences the development of students' empathy by encouraging them to help each other:

Students do it in the way they understand. When we did not learn remotely, it was much simpler, because in the class they are students with different abilities and especially those who are stronger, who work faster <...> They after completing a task during the lesson go to another friend who is struggling to help. R20

Cooperative learning has been connected to better social network and mindset development in students' social support, learning attitude and skills, self-belief and motives. Some significant research studies (Bertucci et al., 2010; Johnson, 2009; Slavin, 2011) have proved that, in cooperative learning, students demonstrated a better belief and performance of personal and academic collaboration than those of individualistic learning. Social collaboration has been known as a promotive for learning achievement, quality, and existence (Johnson & Johnson, 2006). Cooperative learning also enhances better interconnection among students than those of competitive or individualistic learning (Johnson & Johnson, 2005). Such positive relationship increases students' motivation and persistence to achieve the shared goals with satisfaction (Johnson & Johnson, 2006). Moreover, cooperative learning enhances better learning attitudes than those of competitive or individualistic learning environments (Johnson & Johnson, 2005). Cooperative learning also develops skills for ways to solve problems, critical thinking, and interpersonal skills, especially when students share their ideas during learning tasks (Chen, 2018; Tran & Lewis, 2012a, b).

Through cooperative learning students develop ability to solve conflicts by working together:

It's probably very important that it's the same, and group work, or not, that it's the same, as I said, or nights at school, or where. It's true, but I think it's also very important for that group discussion, it's also important to foster friendship, mutual relations and between students, not only with me, but also with other group members. If there's a conflict or something, try to resolve it as soon as possible, just to teach children how to decide, that opinions can differ like this, it can be any way. R24

Cooperative learning enables greater improvement in individual belief and confidence than those in competitive or individualistic learning (Johnson & Johnson, 2005). Some studies (Bertucci et al., 2010) have shown the fact that collaborative effort among group members enhanced higher self-esteem in students. The aforementioned studies share the same research outcomes of other former studies (Zain et al., 2009) which have demonstrated that cooperative learning promotes advanced learning skills, better interconnectedness among students, higher self-esteem in learning, and better learning attitudes. In summary, cooperative learning should be employed to effectively enhance better engagement of students' learning attitude for a better learning outcome. Studies' comparison between cooperative learning with other traditional teaching methods has shown that cooperative learning can enhance students' learning a positive attitude for better learning outcomes and knowledge comprehension.

Teachers have many ways to engage their students, and one such way is conducting group discussions. Being a teacher, s/he should understand the importance of group discussion in teaching (Jennifer et al., 2017). It is an important component of learning because students participate in different ways depending on how they learn best (Fischer et al., 2004). The importance of group discussions is that it allows students to share their views and opinions freely (Roshni & Rahim, 2020). They also provide opportunities for students to interact and gain knowledge from each other.

Group discussion is a learning form where students discuss ideas or issues together (Jennifer et al., 2017). This helps them develop critical thinking skills and encourages them to express themselves (Ferreri & O'Connor, 2013).

Group discussion is an excellent technique to engage students in class discussions. They also provide opportunities for students to practice their communication skills (Fischer et al., 2004). Teachers who want to engage students in meaningful conversations should consider group discussions. Group discussions allow students to express their opinions and ideas freely (Villiers et al., 2003). Students who participate in these types of activities gain confidence in expressing themselves and learn how to work together (Ferreri & O'Connor, 2013).

Students while learning cooperatively develop mutual discussion skills by making and listening to suggestions and making decisions:

Of course, support, because sometimes it happens <...> there is some idea and they immediately tend to say, 'oh no, no, it's not nonsense'. So, you should try and wait, and if we delve into this thing from all sides, how would it look then? Or maybe here, after somehow improving it and adding completely different things would compensate? Maybe that's a good idea? Well, that's exactly what it looks like. R24

Group discussions in teaching also encourage students to think critically about issues and problems they may face in the future. Group discussion fosters the development of teamwork (Villiers et al., 2003). Team members help each other out and share information. When students work together, they develop a sense of belonging and become closer friends (Roshni & Rahim, 2020). Group discussions add to student participation. Students are often reluctant to speak in front of others. However, if they know that they will have to answer questions after class, they are more likely to participate (Villiers et al., 2003). When students feel comfortable speaking in front of others, they are less likely to be intimidated. In addition, they can ask questions without worrying about being embarrassed (Fischer et al., 2004). Conducting group discussions help with proactive listening, which is a vital skill for academic achievement. By participating in group discussions, students are encouraged to listen carefully to what others say. They also learn how to follow directions and understand instructions (Roshni & Rahim, 2020). Group discussion in teaching promotes the development of critical thinking, a talent that can be learnt through practice. Students need to practise asking questions and listening attentively to the answers (Ferreri & O'Connor, 2013). Group discussion in teaching fosters creativity, which is a skill that is cultivated through experience (Villiers et al., 2003). Students who participate in group discussions are exposed to different perspectives and ideas. They are also encouraged to think outside the box and use their imagination. Group discussions are an excellent way for students to review content and exercise critical thinking and problem-solving (Jennifer et al., 2017). When used correctly, group discussion can help students to deepen their understanding of a given topic (Roshni & Rahim, 2020). Group discussions can also be used to assess student learning, as well as to encourage higher-level thinking. Students are more interested in the classroom when they participate in group discussions (Ferreri & O'Connor, 2013).

Reciprocal feedback is ensured and supported by the teacher

Using feedback loops for student-teacher conferences, which are a two-way street – forges promising paths toward trust and open communication. Instead of teachers being the sole providers of feedback, in a feedback loop students offer their own feedback to their teachers on issues like reading selections, clarifying questions, direct instruction, class environment, or any other concerns a student may have that affect their learning (Abril, 2022). When teachers implement feedback loops early in the school year, they create a nurturing and supportive classroom environment and bolster rapport and comfort with students through an open and honest 360-degree, mutual exchange (Dann, 2018).

Feedback loops are essential in developing the writing skills of students and adapting or modifying a teacher's own instruction based on student feedback. For instance, teachers love when students tell them what they need to review, remediate, or clarify regarding their instruction (Nicol, 2009). Further, teachers should encourage students to provide commentary on teachers' reading selections. For the teacher it is important to know that a particular student prefers poetry over prose, literary nonfiction over novels or short stories, projects over papers. This feedback allows the teacher to reflect on his/her curriculum through a lens of honesty and humility (Abril, 2022).

Feedback from students spurs responsive self-reflection. And this is the central tenet of a feedback loop: It benefits both the student and the teacher in bolstering open communication and improving instruction (Abril, 2022). The strategy encourages a sense of safety, too, so that if any issue arises in the future, a student will feel comfortable approaching a trusted teacher. Students receive feedback and, in turn, take the lead expressing personal voice and choice. It takes minimum time per student to build a rapport that's so vital, especially in our current educational climate (Dann, 2018; Nicol, 2009, 2013). Teacher leadership in the classroom is implemented by the teacher receiving feedback about the lessons and teaching from the students, i.e. learning to listen to students' criticisms and opinions:

I ask them in class anyway, but usually they don't really express those thoughts. Sometimes, for example, at the end of the school year, I ask them to write, and I hand out sheets of paper and ask them to write, for example, what did they like this year? What would you like to change? Or questions like, which lessons they liked the most, which ones they didn't like? I'm giving it to you so that I can also (sighs) look at it and see, well, what might be suitable, what might not be suitable. Of course, what works for one may not work for another. R16

There is wide agreement about the intent of feedback. Effective feedback is designed to achieve improvement in student learning, continuously driving a student's current performance towards a current learning goal (Van den Bergh et al., 2014).

When presenting students tasks that encourage students' opinion (*It depends* on the material taught on that day. If the material is, let's call it completely dry, it is nothing on that day and you will not reveal anything in the students. R21) Feedback relies on clearly defined goals (including learning intentions and success criteria) and on learning tasks or activities to track a student's progress towards those goals. The information gathered through these activities provides the basis for feedback to a student (Parr & Timperley, 2010).

I am asking 'Children, what do you think? Could it be this way or differently?' In fact, I try all the time to talk practically to everyone there, by asking who have ideas. I try to encourage them to express the ideas they have. R8.

Feedback is information (Andrade & Valtcheva, 2009): for the learner and teacher about the learner's performance; about performance relative to learning goals; based on evidence of learning; from the teacher, the student or peers; leading to changes in teacher and student behaviour.

Black and Wiliam (2009), and Wiliam (2010) define five key strategies for formative assessment or feedback:

clarifying, sharing and understanding learning intentions and criteria for success;

- engineering classroom activities that elicit evidence of learning;
- providing feedback that moves students forward;
- activating students as instructional resources for one another;
- activating students as the owners of their own learning.

Black and Wiliam (2009) emphasise student self-regulation, which is consistent with the most powerful level of feedback identified by Hattie and Timperley (2007):

- Purpose. Feedback should identify and help continuously drive a student's understanding or performance towards a learning goal.
- Focus. Feedback must answer one or more of these questions for the student (and the teacher): Where am I going? How am I going? Where to next?

• Level. Feedback can be provided at one or more of four levels: i) The learning activity – how well the task is understood or performed. ii) The process of learning – what the student has to do to perform the task. iii) The student's management of their learning – planning and self-monitoring. iv) The student as an individual – personal qualities shown by the student.

Evidence shows consistency in the characteristics of effective feedback (Van den Bergh et al., 2014; Parr & Timperley, 2010):

- Setting a goal. A specific and challenging goal is set, often with criteria for a high quality performance on a task. The goal is communicated so that students understand it. Feedback addresses task goals directly.
- Kind of feedback. Feedback draws attention to positive elements of the performance: for example, the details of correct responses. Feedback includes constructive criticism: advice that provokes the student to improve task performance. Feedback refers to changes in performance from previous efforts. Feedback includes an element of self-assessment by students (including peer assessment) as part of the process of encouraging student autonomy and responsibility.
- Level of feedback. Feedback provides information about a task, how well it was performed and how to do it more effectively. Feedback at the process level: how can the student improve the learning processes needed to understand and perform the task? Feedback at the self-regulation level: how can the student do a better job of planning, monitoring and managing their actions and using strategies in approaching the task? This is also described as 'metacognitive' feedback.

Encouraging multifaceted dialogue in the classroom

Dialogic teaching involves students asking questions, expressing their points of view, and commenting on each other's ideas. Despite differing approaches to dialogic teaching, there is consensus about the set of principles that characterise it. A first essential condition is the use of a purposeful, planned discursive activity (such as the use of books or short films, each with lesson plans to stimulate debate about them) since dialogic teaching does not occur randomly or spontaneously (Alexander, 2018; Merod, 2022). This approach must ensure that (Gregory, 2007; Kim & Wilkinson, 2007): (1) whole-class activities are combined with small-group activities; (2) students have the chance to share their ideas, express alternative viewpoints, and, most importantly, listen to one another respectfully; (3) students feel free to explore and express their ideas without fear of embarrassment over 'wrong' answers (i.e. in a supportive atmosphere), and they help each other to reach common understandings; (4)

discourse is built on collective ideas that emerge during discussion (i.e. cumulative effect), through students integrating each other's contributions into coherent lines of thinking and understanding.

Teachers' leadership is expressed by encouraging dialogue in the classroom by raising relevant questions by discussing with students in search of common solutions:

I listen to them. All those problems we heard already are related to the solution of the problem. We work to find common points of contact. We can continue to solve the problem as successfully as possible. R22

Schools and classroom teachers have a crucial role to play in combating this divisiveness through the facilitation of meaningful multifaceted dialogue among their diverse learners. Teaching students the art of dialogue (a conversation in which there is a mutual airing of views without judgement or repercussions) and effective communication and listening skills can help them develop cognitive competence that will put them in a good position not only in school but will be something they can carry with them throughout life (Hageman-Mays, 2019). Regardless of the grade level or subject matter being taught, the basic rule for introducing multifaceted dialogue in a classroom is for one to model the behaviour.

You have to answer certain questions, which are already deep and mature questions. In this way, the students' self-expression is revealed. R21

Establishing one's classroom as an environment of unconditional acceptance where all views and opinions are to be treated with respect and dignity sets an attitude required to facilitate civil dialogue. As a classroom teacher this means (1) remaining calm when people say things you dislike, and (2) accepting when students reach different conclusions on a controversial issue than you might have reached. Teachers need to clearly define and maintain classroom expectations and boundaries. It is imperative that students understand and adhere to the expectations in order to provide a safe and support environment for healthy dialogue (van der Veen et al., 2021).

Using a diversity of teaching methods

The majority of teachers now recognise that different learning styles require different approaches. Being flexible, adaptable and willing to try new ways of imparting knowledge are more essential than they have ever been when it comes to successfully accommodating a diverse group of learners. Learning to critically review the success of a teacher's planned lessons and how well they were received and understood by students will help with planning the most engaging activities.

The teachers' leadership is directly related to professionalism and pedagogical competence, when the teacher smoothly teaches the students through discussions with them:

We used very different methods. Since this is a school where the teaching is in Polish, i.e. the language of the national minority, they face the problem that it is difficult for them to express their thoughts, because their vocabulary is significantly poorer, and for this we used various methods, where they would practise speaking, learning to teach thoughts orally, to put them together and explain them, because it was usually difficult to understand what was meant. That's why we pretended to be one, chose a topic and started a discussion. It took time for the student to formulate the idea, what he wanted to say and how everyone wanted to say it. R23

The real key to developing a teaching strategy that reaches every type of learner in your classroom is to communicate with students and understand their needs as much as possible. Surveys, a suggestion box, getting to know pupils and their interests on a more personal level and showing enthusiasm in their interests will all help the teacher to develop lesson plans that engage and excite every member of the class and encourage their personal learning journey.

So why it is worth organising the students' independent creative tasks?

I supplement them if I know anything about the matter, but otherwise they prepared independently. I'm glad that they speak for me for three minutes. If they fall short of those three minutes, I ask a question from that topic – something that is more related to their experience. They tell me what they saw, what they heard. and I, I'm just happy that they are talking, I quietly write down the mistakes they make without disturbing them, and then I dedicate some kind of lesson, separate, where I analyse those mistakes. 'Now, children, you make such mistakes, let's pay attention. Next time, let's watch so that there would be no such mistakes'. R9

We work so practically. If some observation is unclear, then we immediately start conducting an experiment or some simple test. Sometimes it's enough for me, let's see, let's try to do this and that and then I invite volunteers from them. I try to do it. R22

Teaching methods are techniques that educators can use to facilitate the teaching process and help students feel engaged and interested in the material. Teaching methods are the broader techniques used to help students achieve learning outcomes, while activities are the different ways of implementing these methods. Teaching methods help students master the content of the course and learn how to apply the content in particular contexts (Bidabadi et al., 2016).

Teachers should identify which teaching methods will properly support a particular learning outcome. Its effectiveness depends on this alignment. To make the most appropriate choice, the teacher should consider learning outcomes, student needs and the learning environment (Aghamolaei et al., 2014; Kurt & Sezek, 2021).

Teaching methods vary in their approach: some are more student-centred while others are more instructor centred, and you will see this reflected in the chart. The teacher needs to choose methods that will best guide her/his students to achieve the learning outcomes teacher set. The teaching approach, teaching methods and activities all work together (Hirsh et al., 2022).

Teaching Approach	Teaching Method	Definition/ What students do	Activities
	Lecture	Instructor presenting ma- terial and answering stu- dent questions that arise. Students receive, take in and respond	Demonstration, model- ling, questions (con- vergent), presentation, slideshow, note-taking
	Interactive Lecture	A lecture that includes 2-15 minute breaks for student activities every 12-20 minutes.	Multiple-choice items, solving a problem, comparing and filling in lecture notes, debriefing a mini case study, pair- compare, pair-compare- ask, reflection/reaction paragraph, solve a problem, concept map- ping activities, correct the error, compare and contrast, paraphrase the idea, answer knowledge and comprehension questions

Tab. 6: Teaching approach, teaching methods and activities

Teaching Approach	Teaching Method	Definition/ What students do	Activities
Teacher-	Directed Discussion	Class discussion that fol- lows a pre-determined set of questions to lead students to certain realisa- tions or conclusions, or to help them meet a specific learning outcome	Direct, specific, or open-ended questions that are connected to learning outcomes and include varied cognitive processes
Centred	Direct Instruc- tion	Lecturing, but includes time for guided and inde- pendent practice	Create mind/concept maps, free writes, one- sentence summary, one minute papers
	Guided Inst- ruction	Direct and structured instruction that includes extensive instructor mode- ling and student practice time	Showing and explaining examples, model strate- gies, demonstrate tasks, classify concepts, define vocabulary, scaffold steps
	Just-in-Time Teaching	Instructor adjusts class activities and lectures to respond to the misconcep- tions revealed by assessing students' prior knowledge	Warmups, Goodfors, Conceptual questions (usually a quiz) to moti- vate students to do the readings
	Experiential Learning	Students focus on their learning process through application, observation and reflection	Debates, panel discus- sion, press conference, symposium, reflection journals, lab experi- ments
	Case-based Learning	Students apply course knowledge to devise one or more solutions or re- solutions to problems or dilemmas presented in a realistic story or situation	Case study analysis, collaborative scenario- based discussions

Teaching Approach	Teaching Method	Definition/ What students do	Activities
	Inquiry-ba- sed or Inquiry Guided Lear- ning	Students learning or ap- plying material in order to meet a challenge, answer a question, conduct an experiment, or interpret data	Worked examples, pro- cess worksheets, ana- lyse data sets, evaluate evidence, apply findings to a situation or problem and synthesise resolu- tion(s), answer probing questions about a given research study, ask and answer "What will hap- pen if?" questions
	Problem-ba- sed Learning	Student groups conduc- ting outside research on student-identified learning issues (unknowns) to de- vise one or more solutions or resolutions to problems or dilemmas presented in a realistic story or situation	Review and critique re- search studies, work in groups/teams to solve a specific open-ended problem, labs
	Project-based Learning	Students applying course knowledge to produce so- mething; often paired with cooperative learning	Group work/team pro- ject - design or create something - e.g. piece of equipment, a product or architectural design, a computer code, a mul- timedia presentation, an artistic or literary work, a website, research study, service learning
	Role Plays and Simula- tions	Students acting out roles or improvising scripts, in a realistic and problematic social or interpersonal situ- ation. Students playing out, either in person, or virtu- ally, a hypothetical social situation that abstracts key elements from reality	Real-life situations and scenarios, debates, interviews, frame simu- lation

Teaching	Teaching	Definition/	Activities
Approach	Method	What students do	
Student- Centred	Fieldwork and Clinicals	Students learning how to conduct research and make sound professional judgements in real-world situations	Internships, assistants- hips, community ser- vice, shadowing

Teacher support for students in learning

Teachers need to understand subject matter deeply and flexibly so that they can help students create useful cognitive maps, relate ideas to one another, and address misconceptions. Teachers need to see how ideas connect across fields and to everyday life (Shulman, 1987).

Interpreting learners' statements and actions and shaping productive experiences for them require an understanding of child and adolescent development and of how to support growth in various domains – cognitive, social, physical, and emotional (Andrew & Schwab, 1995). Teaching in ways that connect with students also requires an understanding of differences that may arise from culture, family experiences, developed intelligences, and approaches to learning. Teachers need to be able to inquire sensitively, listen carefully, and look thoughtfully at student work (Darling-Hammond, 1997).

Teachers need to know about curriculum resources and technologies to connect their students with sources of information and knowledge that allow them to explore ideas, acquire and synthesise information, and frame and solve problems. And teachers need to know about collaboration: how to structure interactions among students, how to collaborate with other teachers, and how to work with parents to shape supportive experiences at school and home (Denton & Peters, 1988).

Acquiring this sophisticated knowledge and developing a practice that is different from what teachers themselves experienced as students requires learning opportunities for teachers that are more powerful than simply reading and talking about new pedagogical ideas (Shulman, 1987). Teachers learn best by studying, doing, and reflecting; by collaborating with other teachers; by looking closely at students and their work; and by sharing what they see. This kind of learning cannot occur in college classrooms divorced from practice, or in school classrooms divorced from knowledge about how to interpret practice (Stigler & Swevenson, 1991).

Self-determination and social support offer two definitions for teacher support. The self-determination view suggests that teacher support occurs when students perceive cognitive (Skinner et al., 2008), emotional (Skinner and Bel-

mont, 1993), or autonomy-oriented support from a teacher during the students' learning process (Wellborn and Connell, 1987). According to Ryan and Deci (2000), individuals do work and complete tasks based on their values, interests, and hobbies, but others close to them can influence their related emotions and motivations. Teacher support includes three dimensions: support for autonomy, structure, and involvement. Support for autonomy is teacher provision of choice, relevance, or respect to students. Structure is clarity of expectations and contingencies. Involvement is warmth, affection, dedication of resources, understanding the student, or dependability (Skinner et al., 2008). Research applying this definition of teacher support has found that it can influence anxiety, depression, hope, and other emotions among students (Reddy et al., 2003; Skinner et al., 2008; Van Ryzin et al., 2009).

In the social support model, teacher support can be viewed in two ways: broad or narrow. The broad perspective, based on Tardy's (1985) social support framework, defines teacher support as a teacher giving informational, instrumental, emotional, or appraisal support to a student, in any environment (Tardy, 1985; Kerres Malecki and Kilpatrick Demary, 2002). Informational support is giving advice or information in a particular content area. Instrumental support is giving resources such as money or time. Emotional support is love, trust, or empathy. Appraisal support is giving evaluative feedback to each student (Malecki and Elliott, 1999). The narrow perspective views teacher support in the form of help, trust, friendship, and interest only in a classroom environment (Fraser, 1998; Aldridge et al., 1999).

Teacher support enhances a teacher's relationship with a student. Specifically, teachers who support students show their care and concern for their students, so these students often reciprocate this concern and respect for the teacher by adhering to classroom norms (Chiu and Chow, 2011; Longobardi et al., 2016). When teachers shout at students, blame them, or aggressively discipline them, these students often show less concern for their teachers and fewer cooperative classroom behaviours (Miller et al., 2000). The teacher's leadership is inseparable from providing support to students in learning:

Openly expressing support to the students commenting on it verbally. We usually check with each other, did we understand correctly, or is this what s/he meant? This is the encouragement to speak. I always encourage them that everything is fine or correct. Expression also depends on trust in the teacher. If they do not trust the teacher, it closes in itself and will not get much expression. Then they simply do not communicate and speak anymore. R23

The teacher's support is related to academic emotions which refer to the emotional experience of learning (and teaching), including enjoyment, hope-lessness, boredom, anxiety, and anger (Pekrun et al., 2002), which can affect

students' learning outcomes (Dong and Yu, 2007). Researchers have generally divided academic emotions into two categories: positive academic emotions (PAEs) and negative academic emotions (NAEs); however, they disagree about how to delineate their boundaries. According to Pekrun et al. (2002), PAEs include relief, hope, enjoyment, and pride, while NAEs include shame, anxiety, boredom, anger, and hopelessness. Other researchers also include calmness and contentment in PAEs or depression and fatigue in NAEs (Dong and Yu, 2007; Soric, 2007). PAEs may also include excitement, happiness, and other indicators (Dong and Yu, 2007), while NAEs may include sense of threat, fear, and others (Dong and Yu, 2007). Based on the literature, the current study defines PAEs as including interest, hope, enjoyment, pride, calmness, contentment, and relief; and NAEs as including shame, anxiety, anger, worry, boredom, depression, fatigue, and hopelessness. For a fuller picture, the measurement of academic emotions should include both PAEs and NAEs.

Several studies have implied that culture may influence the association between teacher support and students' academic emotions. For example, Karagiannidis et al.'s (2015) study of students from Greece showed a strong correlation between teacher support and PAE indicators, but only a weak correlation between teacher support and NAE indicators. In contrast, King et al.'s (2012) study of students from Philippines found a weak correlation between teacher support and PAE indicators but a strong one between teacher support and NAE indicators.

The link between teacher support and students' academic emotions might differ by the latter's (Klem and Connell, 2004; Frenzel et al., 2007). For example, past studies found that the relation between teacher support and indicators of PAE was lowest among middle school students and highest among university students, relative to elementary and high school students (Aldridge et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2016). Meanwhile the link between teacher support and indicators of NAE was strongest for middle school students (Taylor, 2003; Huang et al., 2010; Martínez et al., 2011).

Female students tend to receive more teacher support than do male students (Lutz, 1996; Baumeister & Sommer, 1997), and several empirical studies have shown gender differences in the link between teacher support and indicators of students' academic emotions, such as interest, depression, anxiety (Van Ryzin et al., 2009; Sylva et al., 2012; Nilsen et al., 2013).

Teacher-student partnership

In the broadest sense, students as partners (SaP) involves students as active participants in their own learning in the classroom and engaged in all aspects of university efforts to enhance education (Healey et al., 2014). It draws attention to the quality of the relationship between learners and teachers at school while signalling that the relationship should aspire to be a partnership. In practice, SaP is a collaborative, reciprocal process through which all participants could contribute equally, although not necessarily in the same ways, to curricular or pedagogical conceptualisation, decision-making, implementation, investigation or analysis (Cook-Sather et al., 2014). In theory, partnership practice 'challenges traditional assumptions about the identities of and relationships between, learners and teachers' by calling into question taken-for-granted roles that define what it means to be the student and the teacher, as students take on greater responsibility and autonomy (Matthews, 2017). Students as partners in teaching and learning (SaP), is a pedagogical approach which implies students and teachers working in collaboration, as partners, to improve teaching and learning experiences (Mercer-Mapstone et al., 2017). So, the teachers' leadership is inseparable from the partnership with students, which is implemented by making it possible for the students to propose ideas and implement them in the classroom:

We actually agreed with the children from the first days at school that if I want to propose something, I can suggest it or simply advise or offer help. R20

Considerable attention has been given to the terms 'partner' and 'partnership', especially considering the traditionally unequal relationship that develops between teachers and students, a relationship in which teachers assume the role of experts who take on the responsibility of sharing their expertise with students. For example, Bovill et al. (2014) describe student-teacher partnership as a reciprocal process through which all participants have the opportunity to contribute equally, although not necessarily in the same ways, to curricular or pedagogical conceptualisation, decision-making, implementation, investigation, or analysis. They suggest that in order to be successful, learning should be based on three principles: respect, reciprocity, and shared responsibility in learning. These principles fundamentally reshape the relationship that is currently established between teacher and students. Both teachers and students see each other as peers, as people who can meaningfully (albeit in diverse ways) contribute to the process of teaching and learning. Teacher leadership emerges by involving the students in decision-making by encouraging them to make suggestions:

The ideas themselves in certain questions or, or inquiries, can we do it? Wow, today we also had a conversation with the kids. We have art class on Fridays and I asked the kids what kind of lessons they would like? What they would like to do? And expressed opinions and voted on what they would like to do. And this is how they decided what they would do in art class. R20

If students experience a 'transmission model of teaching', they apply passive learning through standardised tests which discourages curiosity and inquiry (Cook-Sather et al., 2014, p. 17). In such schools students are treated as consumers and education is a product, which teachers deliver to students. This practice comes from a flawed understanding of education as a one-way process in which teachers have knowledge that can be seamlessly transmitted to students. Such an attitude towards education encourages students' passive behaviour, as well as establishing clear power structures in the relationships between teachers and students in which teacher has all the expertise and, consequently, all the power to make decisions about students' education. As a result, students' perceived powerlessness in their education shows a lack of their taking responsibility for their own education (Manor et al., 2010). The students as partners model questions this premise, suggesting that understanding of how learning happens should change. Teachers and students have something to teach and learn and it is our shared responsibility, as teachers and students, to exchange our knowledge. While teachers know what to teach, students might know better how they learn; hence, they can and should play an active role in the decisions about what and how to learn (Cook-Sather et al., 2014). Teachers as leaders give the students the freedom to choose the learning material:

I try to use the same music pieces. Bring them, search for them on the Internet, what they like. We can definitely find a particular piece. There are programme pieces that we have to learn, this is a large form and some kind of étude, so that the technique works. But also students could play something entertaining and something that they like. I encourage it. R24

Furthermore, student involvement in the process of course and curricular development fosters more responsibility for and engagement with learning in students. Students as partners start viewing education differently and take on a more active role, becoming more engaged with learning as they develop a greater sense of responsibility (Cook-Sather and Alter, 2011; Manor et al., 2010; Werder et al., 2012). The students as partners model offers an opportunity for faculty and students to work together towards one goal instead of one working for another (Cook-Sather et al., 2014). Students as partners views partnership as a process of engaging with rather than doing to or doing for students (Matthews, 2016). Through partnership, done correctly, students start to understand learning as a dialogic experience that is divergent and difference-driven and question the hierarchical dynamics inherent in contemporary education systems that make it difficult for students to be active learners (Werder et al., 2012). Both teachers and students come to value the equality that comes with partnership and that enables all participants to have a voice in the decision making process. The teacher's leadership is discovered through creating an atmosphere of equal relations in the classroom:

I always show that students should not be afraid to ask or to be afraid that maybe something will appear funny to someone. In order to convey the material and encourage students to think. I recognise that while talking I could make some logical mistakes. So, I am asking students to listen to me and stops sometimes and say when I am saying not right there. This is the kind of openness, the kind of contact I try to maintain with students in order not to build walls. We are colleagues, with students [who] are like-minded. R31

There seems to exist a tension, though, between the policies at the institutional and supra-institutional levels that aim to assure the quality and standards of education through continuous assessment. systems of quality assurance require courses to be validated and reviewed on the basis of clear intended learning outcomes and assessments (Bovill & Bulley, 2011). Healey et al. (2014) recognise the important role of institutions and professional organisations in setting guidelines and standards for educational goals and outcomes. In contrast, the pedagogical philosophy rooted in the principles of partnership between students and teachers is process-oriented and, as such, undetermined and unpredictable. Drawing from scholarly literature on student-teacher partnerships, Healey et al. (2014) highlight the following values underpinning the teaching-learning practice:

- Authenticity: all parties have a meaningful rationale for investing in partnership, and are honest about what they can contribute and the parameters of partnership.
- Inclusivity: partnership embraces the different talents, perspectives and experiences that all parties bring, and there are no barriers (structural or cultural) that prevent potential partners getting involved.
- Reciprocity: all parties have an interest in, and stand to benefit from, working and/or learning in partnership.
- Empowerment: power is distributed appropriately and all parties are encouraged to constructively challenge ways of working and learning that may reinforce existing inequalities.
- Trust: all parties take time to get to know each other, engage in open and honest dialogue and are confident they will be treated with respect and fairness.

- Challenge: all parties are encouraged to constructively critique and challenge practices, structures and approaches that undermine partnership, and are enabled to take risks to develop new ways of working and learning.
- Community: all parties feel a sense of belonging and are valued fully for the unique contribution they make.
- Responsibility: all parties share collective responsibility for the aims of the partnership, and individual responsibility for the contribution they make.

Cook-Sather et al. (2014) identify respect, reciprocity, and responsibility as the three guiding principles of student-teacher partnerships:

- Respect: Respect is an attitude. It entails taking seriously and valuing what someone else or multiple others bring to an encounter. It demands openness and receptivity, it calls for willingness to consider experiences or perspectives that are different from our own, and it often requires a withholding of judgment. The key to these types of exchanges is respect, honesty, and an ability to expose yourself to new and different perspectives.
- Reciprocity: Respect and reciprocity are closely connected. While respect is an attitude, reciprocity is a way of interacting. It is a process of balanced give-and-take; there is equity in what is exchanged and how it is exchanged. While reciprocity is essential for a successful partnership, it does not mean that students and teachers get and give exactly the same things in pedagogical partnerships. Indeed, partnerships invite teachers and students to share differing experiences and perspectives; those differences are part of what can make partnerships so rich and diverse.
- Responsibility: Partnership changes both students' and teachers' orientation towards more responsibility. When it happens, students assume some responsibility for teaching, while teacher – for learning. When both students and teachers take more responsibility for the educational project, teaching and learning become 'community property' (Shurlam, 2004a), with students recognised as active members of that community and collaborative partners equally invested in the common effort to engage in, and support, learning.

Teacher shared learning leadership with students

Shared leadership has extensive historical underpinnings in the organisational literature, it remains poorly understood (Pearce & Conger, 2003). In charting thematically the change from emphasis on an individual leader to recognition of the potential of shared leadership, Fletcher and Käufer (2003) traced three shifts in leadership thinking. The first shift describes leadership as distributed and interdependent. Rather than a set of attributes or behaviours found in formal, hierarchical leaders, leadership is a set of practices or tasks that can, and should, be carried out by community members at all levels of the school (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001). The second shift points to leadership as embedded in social interaction. Leadership is created by leaders and followers together (Burns, 1978). It is a dynamic, multidirectional, collective activity that takes place in and through relationships and webs of influence among individuals who have common interests and goals (Drath & Palus, 1994; Wenger, 1998). The third shift emphasises leadership within a process of learning - undertaken by individuals and by groups - that results in greater shared understanding and positive action (Argyris & Schön, 1996). Leadership for learning calls attention to the importance of individual skill development (e.g. instructional strategies, self-awareness) and group process and relational skills (e.g. approach to conflict, openness, and vulnerability). The teacher's shared leadership in the classroom is observed when s/ he shares leadership with students by creating opportunities for the students to make learning choices:

Part of the things I teach are still related to creativity. And there are such dry, ungrateful topics in the subject content. I let the students search for those topics themselves, to find what work they would like to do, what to learn. But what motivates those students the most is the practical work. R1

In schools with high quality teaching and learning, teachers interact regularly with their colleagues: their teaching team, grade level team, members of their subject department, or the entire school faculty and administrative staff (Marks & Printy, 2003; Printy & Marks, 2004). Through their discussions and shared experiences, teachers establish a purpose for their work together, they develop clarity about what is valued and what their focus for the future is, and they establish ways of working together (Wenger, 1998). In effective schools, teaching is a social practice, not an individual one, and interaction with school colleagues is a primary source of teacher learning. To benefit from learning opportunities within the school and provide opportunities for teacher leadership, relationships among administrators and teachers must be open and equitable. Teachers create through shared leadership an atmosphere in the classroom where students develop an understand the benefits of learning:

We were learning how to calculate with excel. I said: 'Look, here you are going to count, you will be able to apply various functions, won't you, to calculate the average, percentage and the like'. And the student said to me: 'Teacher, I will already teach, I will be able to help my mother to calculate some data'. It was so amazing to me that he already saw the benefit, that not only he would be able to learn something himself, but also will help his mother, and that mother would be very proud of him. R1

Implementation of learning quality through student engagement

Implementation quality refers to how well a programme has been delivered as intended. Implementation quality is a multidimensional construct and, therefore, should be measured as such.

In measuring implementation quality, implementation of five core dimensions: dosage (e.g. quantity of programme delivered); fidelity/adherence (e.g. how many core components were delivered as prescribed); quality of delivery (e.g. how well the facilitator delivers the programme); participant responsiveness (e.g. how participants respond to or are engaged with an intervention); and programme differentiation (e.g. how unique the programme characteristics are compared to other programmes). The implementation dimensions should be seen as interrelated but conceptually distinct indicators; therefore, it is necessary to determine the combined effect of these dimensions in order to fully understand the overall implementation quality.

The teacher implements leadership in the classroom through the pursuit of quality learning. This is implemented by promoting the competition of students' learning:

Another such revelation is when they sometimes want to race. And they just start with what is faster, but I try to what is better, at least somehow. But it is clear that according to everyone's abilities, because one can work quickly, but it will not be of the same quality. I am for that balance that we have to find, that balance that it is not always that fast work, that it must be good, complete and appropriate. R1

In this process the teacher must adapt to the students' abilities:

That self-expression that I want ... as I said, there are no disabled children, students are just in the wrong place or they experience the wrong thing. Perhaps, I need to discover that. And all the time emphasise the benefits of the final result. I need to understand that it will be good, that the benefit here will be and that the students will do it. R1

Engaging students is seen as crucial for student learning in various environmental settings, educational stages, and school subjects (e.g. Bergdahl et al., 2020; Raes et al., 2020). Student engagement, i.e. students' involvement in their own learning activities, can be regarded as a product of individual and class influences. Student engagement is known to be fostered in classroom learning environments with supportive teachers and peers, challenging goals and authentic tasks (Shernoff et al., 2016). Recently, many emerging technologies (e.g. Internet of Things, Big Data Analytics, Augmented Reality, Virtual Reality) have been proposed for transforming traditional classrooms into interactive smart classrooms that can be effective, efficient, and engaging when it comes to supporting instructors and stimulating student learning (Memos Minopoulos et al., 2020). However, the reality is that these cutting-edge technologies are unavailable in most learning environments. Smart classroom learning environments (SCLEs) refer to interactive face-to-face learning environments that adopt the active learning process and integrate advanced digital technologies to enhance students' learning experience (MacLeod, Yang, Zhu, & Li, 2018). Compared with the traditional lecturing approach, a meta-analysis of technology-enabled learning environments showed that smart classroom-based instruction significantly affects students' learning outcomes and will be more effective with a larger class (Shi et al., 2020).

Maintaining student engagement, especially in technology-based learning environments, seems challenging, however, due to in-class distractions and disengagement that lead to poor academic performance (Bergdahl et al., 2020). Moreover, mobile technologies might trigger situations in which students face more challenges. Students in secondary education especially reported using mobile devices to escape from boring classes more frequently when they were in lower grades (Bergdahl et al., 2020). Understanding lower levels of secondary school students' engagement is especially important and failure to do so may lead to ineffective teaching and learning with technologies. With regard to positively affecting student engagement, investigating classroom process quality can be considered important because several variables of classroom process quality have been found to influence students' learning outcomes (e.g. Olivier et al., 2021). The core mechanism behind classroom process quality is instructional guality, which involves three global dimensions: cognitive activation, supportive climate, and classroom management (Klieme et al., 2009). Based on these dimensions, the classroom process quality is the interactional patterns between teachers and students in class. The teacher's contribution to creating a supportive climate in smart classrooms is essential, but whether teachers are really engaged with creating such a climate and how they attempt to do so is known to be dependent on their beliefs (Chand et al., 2020). Classroom process quality has become much more important for secondary school students to be engaged in learning, but its measurement has been problematic. The majority of studies up to now have either focused on instructional quality or on technology usage as crucial indicators when evaluating technology integration in diverse contexts. However, this falls short of covering all aspects of teaching, learning, and technology in combination (Knezek & Christensen, 2016). The transition from traditional classroom learning environments to smart classroom learning environments presents significant implementation challenges. Both the global factors of instructional quality and specific teaching practices (i.e. the use of technology) could affect student engagement. Teachers' and/or students' background variables could result in variances in classroom process quality and student engagement.

References

- Abril, J. (2022). The Value of Reciprocal Feedback. Eudutopia. https://www.edutopia.org/article/ value-reciprocal-feedback/
- Afari, E. (2013). The Effects of Psychosocial Learning Environment on Students' Attitudes Towards Mathematics. Rotterdam: Application of Structural Equation Modeling in Educational Research and Practice Sense Publishers.
- Aghamolaei, T., Shirazi, M., Dadgaran, I., Shahsavari, H., & Ghanbarnezhad, A. (2014). Health students' expectations of the ideal educational environment: a qualitative research. Journal of Advances in Medical Education and Professionalism, 2(4), 151–157. https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih. gov/articles/PMC4235565/
- Alexander, R. (2018). Developing dialogic teaching: genesis, process, trial. Research Papers in Education, 33, 561–598. https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2018.1481140
- Aldridge, J. M., Afari, E., & Fraser, B. J. (2013). Influence of teacher support and personal relevance on academic self-efficacy and enjoyment of mathematics lessons: a structural equation modeling approach. Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 58, 614–633. doi: 10.1037/t38960-000
- Aldridge, J. M., Fraser, B. J., & Huang, T.-C. I. (1999). Investigating classroom environments in Taiwan and Australia with multiple research methods. Journal of Educational Research, 93, 48–62. doi: 10.1080/00220679909597628
- Allen, D., & Fraser, B. J. (2007). Parent and student perceptions of classroom learning environment and its association with student outcomes. Learning Environment Research, 10, 67–82. doi: 10.1007/s10984-007- 9018-z
- Anderson, L. W., Krathwohl, D. R., Airasian, P. W., Cruikshank, K. A., Mayer, R. E., Pintrich, P. R., Raths, J., & Wittrock, M. C. (2001). A Taxonomy for Learning, Teaching, and Assessing: A Revision of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. New York: Longman.
- Anderson, F. J. & Palmer, J. (2001). The jigsaw approach: Students motivating students. Education, 109(1), 59–62. doi: 10.5901/jesr.2013.v3n7p710
- Andrade, H. & Valtcheva A. (2009). 'Promoting Learning and Achievement Through Self-Assessment' Theory Into Practice, 38(1), 12–19. doi: 10.1080/00405840802577544
- Andrew, M. D., & Schwab, R. L. (1995). Has reform in teacher education influenced teacher performance? An outcome assessment of graduates of eleven teacher education programs. Action in Teacher Education, 17(3), 43–53. doi: https://doi.org/10.1080/01626620.1995.10463255
- Argyris, C., & Schön, D. (1996). Organizational Learning II: Theory, Method, and Practice. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

- Azizan, M. T., Mellon, N., Ramli, R. M. & Yusup, S. (2018). Improving teamwork skills and enhancing deep learning via development of board game using cooperative learning method in Reaction Engineering course. Education for Chemical Engineers, 22, 1–13. doi.org/10.1016/j. ece.2017.10.002
- Bass, B. M., & Steidlmeier, P. (1999). Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership behavior. Leadership Quarterly, 10, 181–217.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Sommer, K. L. (1997). What do men want? Gender differences and two spheres of belongingness: comment on Cross and Madson. Psychological Bulletin, 122, 38–44. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.122.1.38
- Bergdahl, N., Nouri, J., & Forrs, U. (2020). Disengagement, engagement and digital skills in technology-enhanced learning. Education and Information Technologies. Berlin: Springer. https:// doi.org/10.1007/s10639-019-09998-w
- Bertucci, A., Conte, S., Johnson, D. W. & Johnson, R. T. (2010). The impact of size of cooperative group on achievement, social support, and self-esteem. The Journal of General Psychology, 137(3), 256–272. doi: 10.1080/00221309.2010.484448
- Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (2010). Inside the black box: Raising standards through classroom assessment. Phi Delta Kappan, 92(1), 81–90. https://doi.org/10.1177/003172171009200119
- Bovill, C. (2017). A framework to explore roles within student-staff partnerships in higher education: Which students are partners, when, and in what ways? International Journal for Students as Partners, 1(1), 1–5. https://doi.org/10.15173/ijsap.v1i1.3062
- Bovill, C., & Bulley, C. J. (2011). A model of active student participation in curriculum design: exploring desirability and possibility. In Improving Student Learning (ISL), 18: Global Theories and Local Practices: Institutional, Disciplinary and Cultural Variations. C. Rust (Ed.) (pp. 176-188). Oxford: Oxford Brookes University Center for Staff and Learning Development.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). Leadership. New York: Harper & Row.
- Chen, Y. (2018). Perceptions of EFL College Students toward Collaborative Learning. Canadian Center of Science and Education, 11(2), 1–4. http://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v11n2p1
- Chiu, M. M., and Chow, B. W.-Y. (2011). Classroom discipline across 41 countries: school, economic, and cultural differences. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology - Sage Journals, 42, 516–533. doi: 10.1177/0022022110381115
- Cook-Sather, A. (2014). Student-faculty partnership in explorations of pedagogical practice: A threshold concept in academic development. International Journal for Academic Development, 19(3), 186–198. https://doi.org/10.1080/1360144X.2013.805694
- Cook-Sather, A., & Felten, P. (2017). Ethics of academic leadership: Guiding learning and teaching. In Cosmopolitan Perspectives on Academic Leadership in Higher Education. F. Su, & M. Wood (Eds.). pp. 175–191. London: Bloomsbury.
- Cook-Sather, A., Bovill, C., & Felten, P. (2014). Engaging students as partners in learning and teaching: A guide for faculty. Hoboken , NJ: Jossey-Bass.
- Dann, R. (2018). Developing feedback for pupils learning. Teaching, learning and assessment in school. London: Routledge.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (1997). Doing what matters most: investing in quality teaching. New York: The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future.
- Darling-Hammond, L. & McLaughlin, M. W. (1995). Policies that support professional development in an era of reform. Phi Delta Kappan, 76(8), 597–604. doio: 10.1177/003172171109200622
- Denton, J. J., & Peter, W. H. (1988). Program assessment report: Curriculum evaluation of a non-traditional program for certifying teachers. Unpublished Report. College Station: Texas A&M University.
- Dong, Y., & Yu, G. L. (2007). The development and application of an academic emotions questionnaire. Acta Psychologica Sinica, 39, 852–860. https://wenku.baidu.com/view/00b64751ad-02de80d4d840f8.html

- Drath, W. H., & Palus, C. J. (1994). Making Common Sense: Leadership As Meaning-Making in a Community of Practice. Greensboro, NC: Center for Creative Leadership.
- Eddy, S. L., & Hogan, K. A. (2014). Getting under the hood: how and for whom does increasing course structure work? CBE Life Science Education, 13(3), 453–468. doi: 10.1187/cbe.14-03-0050.
- Fernández Espinosa, V., & López González, J. (2023) The effect of teacher leadership on students' purposeful learning. Cogent Social Sciences, 9(1). doi: 10.1080/23311886.2023.2197282
- Ferreri, S. P. (2013). O'Connor SK. Redesign of a large lecture course into a small-group learning course. American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education, 77(1), 13. doi: 10.5688/ajpe77113
- Fischer, R. L., Jacobs, S. L., & Herbert, & W. N. P. (2004). Small-group discussion versus lecture format for third-year students in obstetrics and gynecology. Obstetrics & Gynecology, 104(2), 349–353. doi: 10.1097/01.AOG.0000133485.02727.ba
- Fletcher, J. K., & Käufer, K. (2003). Shared leadership: Paradox and possibility. In Shared leadership. C. L. Pearce & J. A. Conger (Eds.). (pp. 21–47). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Fraser, B. J. (1998). Classroom environment instruments: development, validity and applications. Learning Environment Research, 1, 7–34. doi: 10.1023/A:1009932514731
- Frenzel, A. C., Goetz, T., Lüdtke, O., Pekrun, R., & Sutton, R. E. (2009). Emotional transmission in the classroom: exploring the relationship between teacher and student enjoyment. Journal of Educational Psychology, 101(3), 705–716. doi: 10.1037/a0014695
- Frenzel, A. C., Thrash, T. M., Pekrun, R., & Goetz, T. (2007). Achievement emotions in Germany and China a cross-cultural validation of the academic emotions questionnaire mathematics. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology - SAGE Journals, 38(3), 302–309. doi: 10.1177/0022022107300276
- Green, W. (2019a). Stretching the cultural-linguistic boundaries of 'students as partners'. International Journal for Students as Partners, 3(1), 84–88. https://doi.org/10.15173/ijsap.v3i1.3791
- Green, W. (2019b). Engaging 'students as partners' in global learning: Some possibilities and provocations. Journal of Studies in International Education, 23(1), 10–29. https://doi. org/10.1177/1028315318814266
- Gregory, M. R. (2007). A Framework for Facilitating Classroom Dialogue. Teaching Philosophy, 30(1), 59-84. doi: 10.5840/teachphil200730141
- Hageman-Mays, K. (2019). Civil Discourse in the Classroom: Creating Space for Important Conversations. https://www.ednc.org/perspective-civil-discourse-in-the-classroom-creating-space-for-important-conversations/
- Han, J., & Han, Y. (2019). Cultural concepts as powerful theoretical tools: Chinese teachers' perceptions of their relationship with students in a cross-cultural context. International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching & Learning, 13(1), 1–9. https://doi.org/10.20429/ijsotl.2019.130108
- Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The Power of Feedback. Review of Educational Research, 77(1), 81–112. https://doi.org/10.3102/003465430298487
- Hirsh, A., Nilholm, C., Roman, H., Forsberg, E., & Sundberg, D. (2022). Reviews of teaching methods which fundamental issues are identified? Education Inquiry, 13(1), 1–20, doi: 10.1080/20004508.2020.1839232
- Huang, S., Eslami, Z., & Hu, R.-J. S. (2010). The relationship between teacher and peer support and English-language learners' anxiety. English Language Teaching, 3, 32–40. doi: 10.5539/ elt.v3n1p32
- Johnson, D. W. (2009). Reaching Out: Interpersonal Effectiveness and Self-Actualization. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Johnson, D. W. & Johnson, F. (2006). Joining Together: Group Theory and Group Skills. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Johnson, D. W. & Johnson, R. (2005). New Developments in Social Interdependence Theory. Genetic, Social, & General Psychology Monographs, 131(4), 285–358. https://doi.org/10.3200/ MONO.131.4.285-358

- Johnson, D. W. & Johnson, R. T. (2009). An Educational Psychology Success Story: Social Interdependence Theory and Cooperative Learning. Educational Researcher, 38(5), 365–379. https:// doi.org/10.3102/0013189X09339057
- Karagiannidis, Y., Barkoukis, V., Gourgoulis, V., Kosta, G., & Antoniou, P. (2015). The role of motivation and metacognition on the development of cognitive and affective responses in physical education lessons: a self-determination approach. Motricidade 11, 135–150. doi: 10.6063/ motricidade.3661
- Kerres Malecki, C., & Kilpatrick Demary, M. (2002). Measuring perceived social support: development of the child and adolescent social support scale (CASSS). Psychology in the Schools, 39(1), 1–18. doi: 10.1002/pits.10004
- Kim, M.-Y., & Wilkinson, I. A. (2019). What is dialogic teaching? Constructing, deconstructing, and reconstructing a pedagogy of classroom talk. Learning, Culture and Social Interaction, 21, 70–86. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lcsi.2019.02.003
- King, R. B., McInerney, D. M., & Watkins, D. A. (2012). How you think about your intelligence determines how you feel in school: the role of theories of intelligence on academic emotions. Learning and Individual Differences, 22(6), 814–819. doi: 10.1016/j.lindif.2012.04.005
- Klem, A. M., & Connell, J. P. (2004). Relationships matter: linking teacher support to student engagement and achievement. Journal of School Health, 74(7), 262–273. doi: 10.1111/j.1746– 1561.2004.tb08283.x
- Kouzes, J., & Posner, B. (2017). The Leadership Challenge. Hoboken, New Jersey, United States: John Wiley & Sons.
- Kouzes, J., & Posner, B. (2002). The Leadership Challenge. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Marks, H. M., & Printy, S. M. (2003). Principal leadership and school performance: Integrating transformational and instructional leadership. Educational Administration Quarterly, 39, 370-397. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0013161X03253412

Krathwohl, D. R. (2002). A revision of Bloom's taxonomy: An overview. Theory Into Practice, 41(4), 212–218. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4104_2

- Kurt, U., & Sezek, F. (2021). Investigation of the Effect of Different Teaching Methods on Students' Engagement and Scientific Process Skills. International Journal of Progressive Education, 7(3), 86–101. doi: https://doi.org/10.29329/ijpe.2021.346.6
- Lickona, T. (1996). Eleven principles of effective character education. Journal of Moral Education, 25(1), 93-100. https://doi.org/10.1080/0305724960250110
- Longobardi, C., Prino, L. E., Marengo, D., & Settanni, M. (2016). Student- teacher relationships as a protective factor for school adjustment during the transition from middle to high school. Frontiers in Psychology, 7, 1988. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2016.01988
- Lumpkin, A., Claxton, H., & Wilson, A. (2014). Key characteristics of teacher leaders in schools. Administrative Issues Journal, 4(2), 59–67. https://doi.org/10.5929/2014.4.2.8
- Lutz, C. A. (1996). Engendered emotion: gender, power, and the rhetoric of emotional control in American discourse. In Language and the Politics of Emotion. C. A. Lutz & L. Abu-Lughod (Eds.). (pp. 69–91). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Magnesio, S. & Davis, B. H. (2010). A Novice Teacher Fosters Social Competence with Cooperative Learning. Childhood Education, 86(4), 216-223. https://doi.org/10.1080/00094056.2010.1052 3152
- Marquis, E., Puri, V., Wan, S., Ahmad, A., Goff, L., Knorr, K., Vassileva, I., & Woo, J. (2016). Navigating the threshold of student-staff partnerships: A case study from an Ontario teaching and learning institute. International Journal for Academic Development, 21(1), 4–15. https://doi.or g/10.1080/1360144X.2015.1113538
- Martínez, R. S., Aricak, O. T., Graves, M. N., Peters-Myszak, J., and Nellis, L. (2011). Changes in perceived social support and socioemotional adjustment across the elementary to junior high school transition. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 40(5), 519–530. doi: 10.1007/s10964-010-9572-z

- Matthews, K. E. (2017). Five propositions for genuine students as partners practice. International Journal for Students as Partners, 1(2), 1–9. https://doi.org/10.15173/ijasp.v1i2.3315
- Matthews, K. E., Cook-Sather, A., Acai, A., Dvorakova, S. L., Felten, P., Marquis, E., & Mercer-Mapstone, L. (2019). Toward theories of partnership praxis: An analysis of interpretive framing in literature on students as partners in university teaching and learning. Higher Education Research & Development, 38(2), 280–293. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2018.1530199
- Matthews, K. E., Dwyer, A., Hine, L., & Turner, J. (2018). Conceptions of students as partners. Higher Education, 76(6), 957–971. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-018-0257-y
- Mehra, V. & Thakur, K. (2008). Effects of Cooperative Learning on Achievement and Retention in Mathematics of Seventh Graders with different Cognitive Styles. Indian Educational Review, 44(1), 5–31. doi:10.5430/ijhe.v3n2p131
- Mercer-Mapstone, L., Dvorakova, S. L., Matthews, K. E., Abbot, S., Cheng, B., Felten, P., Knorr, K., Marquis, E., Shammas, R., & Swaim, K. (2017). A systematic literature review of students as partners in higher education. International Journal for Students as Partners, 1(1), 1–23. https:// doi.org/10.15173/ijsap.v1i1.3119
- Merod, A. (2022). 5 ways to practice constructive dialogue in the classroom. https://www.k12dive. com/news/5-ways-to-practice-constructive-dialogue-in-the-classroom/630960/
- Miller, A., Ferguson, E., & Byrne, I. (2000). Pupils' causal attributions for difficult classroom behaviour. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 70(1), 85–96. doi: 10.1348/000709900157985
- Miller, L., & Silvernail, D. L. (1994). Wells Junior High School. In Evolution of a Professional Development Schools: Schools for developing a Profession. L. Darling-Hammond (Ed.). (pp. 265–271). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Nguyen, P. M., Terlouw, C., Pilot, A. & Elliott, J. G. (2009). Cooperative learning that features a culturally appropriate pedagogy. British Educational Research Journal, 35(1), 857–875. doi. org/10.1080/01411920802688762
- Nicol, D. (2009). Good design for written feedback for student. In Teaching tips. Strategies, research, and theory for college and university teachers. W. McKeachie & M. Svinicki (Eds.). (pp. 108–124). New York: Hougton Mifflin.
- Nicol, D. (2013). Resituating feedback from the reactive to the proactive. In Feedback in higher and professional education Understanding it and doing it well. D. Boud, L. Molloy (Eds.). (pp. 34–49). Abingdon: Routledge.
- Nilsen, W., Karevold, E., Røysamb, E., Gustavson, K., & Mathiesen, K. S. (2013). Social skills and depressive symptoms across adolescence: social support as a mediator in girls versus boys. Journal of Adolescence, 36(1), 11–20. doi: 10.1016/j.adolescence.2012.08.005
- Pan, Y.-H. (2014). Relationships among teachers' self-efficacy and students' motivation, atmosphere, and satisfaction in physical education. Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 33(1), 68–92. doi: 10.1123/jtpe.2013-0069
- Parr, J., & Timperley, H. (2010). Feedback to writing, assessment for teaching and learning and student progress. Science Direct, 15(2), 68–85. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2010.05.004
- Pearce, C. L., & Conger, J. A. (2003). Shared Leadership: Reframing the Hows and Whys of Leadership. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Pekrun, R., Elliot, A. J., & Maier, M. A. (2017). Achievement goals and achievement emotions: Testing a model of their joint relations with academic performance. Journal of Educational Psychology, 109(3), 326-339. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0013383
- Pekrun, R., Goetz, T., Titz, W., & Perry, R. P. (2002). Academic emotions in students' self-regulated learning and achievement: a program of qualitative and quantitative research. Journal of Educational Psychology, 37(2), 91–105. doi: 10.1207/S15326985EP3702_4
- Philip, T., Souto-Manning, M., Anderson, L., Horn, I. J., Carter Andrews, D., Stillman, J., & Varghese, M. (2018). Making Justice Peripheral by Constructing Practice as "Core": How the Increasing Prominence of Core Practices Challenges Teacher Education. Journal of Teacher Education, 70(3), 251–264. doi: 10.1177/0022487118798324

- Printy, S. M., & Marks, H. M. (2004). Communities of practice and teacher quality. In Educational Administration, Policy and Reform: Research and Measurement. W. Hoy & C. Miskel (Eds.). (pp. 91–122). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.
- Reddy, R., Rhodes, J. E., & Mulhall, P. (2003). The influence of teacher support on student adjustment in the middle school years: a latent growth curve study. Development and Psychopathology, 15(1), 119–138. doi: 10.1017/S0954579403000075
- Roshni, M., & Rahim, A. (2020). Small group discussions as an effective teaching-learning methodology for learning the principles of family medicine among 2nd-year MBBS students. Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care, 9(5), 2248–2252. doi: 10.4103/jfmpc.jfmpc_1228_19.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. American Psychologist, 55(1), 68–77. doi: 10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.68
- Shing, H. (1994). Estimating future teacher supply: an application of survival analysis. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research association. USA: New Orleans. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED367720
- Shulman, L. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: foundations of the new reform. Harvard Educational Review, 57(1), 1–22. https://people.ucsc.edu/~ktellez/shulman.pdf
- Skinner, E. A., & Belmont, M. J. (1993). Motivation in the classroom: Reciprocal effects of teacher behavior and student engagement across the school year. Journal of Educational Psychology, 85(4), 571–581. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.85.4.571
- Skinner, E., Furrer, C., Marchand, G., & Kindermann, T. (2008). Engagement and disaffection in the classroom: part of a larger motivational dynamic? Journal of Educational Psychology, 100(4), 765–781. doi: 10.1037/a0012840
- Slavin, R. E. (2011). Instruction Based on Cooperative Learning. In Handbook of Research on Learning and Instruction. R. E. Mayer & P. A. Alexander (Eds.). (pp. 344–360). New York: Taylor & Francis.
- Soric, I. (2007). The relationship between self-efficacy, causal attributions and experienced emotions in academic context. In Book of Selected Proceedings: 15th Psychology Days in Zadar. Croatia: University of Zadar.
- Spillane, J. P., Halverson, R., & Diamond, J. B. (2001). Investigating school leadership practice: A distributed perspective. Educational Researcher, 30(3), 23–28. DOI:10.3102/0013189X030003023
- Stigler, J. W., & Stevenson, H. W. (1991). How Asian teachers polish each lesson to perfection. American Educator, 15(1), 12–21, 43-47.
- Sylva, K., Melhuish, E., Sammons, P., Siraj-Blatchford, I., & Taggart, B. (2012). Effective Pre-School, Primary and Secondary Education Project (EPPSE 3–14): Final Report from the Key Stage
- Tardy, C. H. (1985). Social support measurement. American Journal of Community Psychology, 13(2), 187-202. doi: 10.1007/BF00905728
- Taylor, B. A. (2003). The Influence of Classroom Environment on High School Students' Mathematics Anxiety. Doctoral dissertation. Perth, Australia: Curtin University of Technology.
- Tran, V. D. & Lewis, R. (2012a). Effects of Cooperative Learning on Students at An Giang University in Vietnam. International Education Studies, 5(1), 86–99. doi.org/10.5539/ies.v5n1p86
- Tran, V. D. & Lewis, R. (2012b). The effects of Jigsaw Learning on Students' Attitudes in a Vietnamese Higher Education Classroom. International Journal of Higher Education, 1(2), 1–13. doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v1n2p9
- Van den Bergh, L., Ros, A., & Beijaard, D. (2014). Improving Teacher Feedback During Active Learning: Effects of a Professional Development Program. American Educational Research Journal, 51(4), 772–809. https://www.jstor.org/stable/24546699
- Van Ryzin, M. J. (2011). Protective factors at school: reciprocal effects among adolescents' perceptions of the school environment, engagement in learning, and hope. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 40(12), 1568–1580. doi: 10.1007/s10964-011-9637-7

- Van Ryzin, M. J., Gravely, A. A., and Roseth, C. J. (2009). Autonomy, belongingness, and engagement in school as contributors to adolescent psychological well-being. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 38(1), 1–12. doi: 10.1007/s10964-007-9257-4
- VanderWeele, T. (2017). On the promotion of human flourishing. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 114(31), 8148–8156. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1702996114
- Villiers, M., Bresick, G., & Mash, B. (2003). The value of small-group learning: An evaluation of an innovative CPD program for primary care medical practitioners. Medical Education, 37(9), 815–821. doi: 10.1046/j.1365-2923.2003.01595.x
- Wellborn, J., & Connell, J. (1987). Manual for the Rochester Assessment Package for Schools. Rochester, NY: University of Rochester.
- Werder, C., Shevell, T., & Blair, K. (2012). Students as co-inquirers: A requisite threshold Concept in educational development. Journal of Faculty Development, 26(3), 34–38.
- Wiliam, D. (2010). The role of formative assessment in effective learning environments. The nature of learning: Using research to inspire practice. pp.135–155. Paris, France: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/education/ the-nature-of-learning/the-role-of-formative-assessment-in-effective-learning-environments_9789264086487-8-en
- Wenger, E. (1998). Communities of practice: Learning, Meaning, and Identity. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Zain, Z. M., Subramaniam, G., Rashid, A. A. & Ghani, E. K. (2009). Teaching Students' Performance and Attitude. Canadian Social Science, 5(6), 92–102.

7 Teacher Leadership In Creating Opportunities For Students To Implement Their Ideas For Better Learning Achievements

Teacher leadership in providing opportunities for students to realise their ideas for the best learning achievements is made up of teacher expertise, teacher adaptability, open atmosphere in the classroom and encouragement of student creativity. Each of these aspects has its own unique content.

Teacher leadership may be associated with student learning indirectly through school process variables such as school capacity and school climate (Sebastian et al., 2016; Sebastian et al., 2017). Based on a sample of 198 elementary schools in a western state in the US, Hallinger and Heck examined the direct, mediated, and reciprocal effect that teacher leadership has on student learning growth in math and reading (Hallinger & Heck, 2010a, b; 2010b; Heck & Hallinger, 2009, 2010a, 2010b). Teacher leadership boosts student learning by building the school capacity for academic improvement. Additional studies also showed that there were statistically indirect pathways from principal leadership to teacher leadership, to learning climate and student achievement growth in both primary schools (Sebastian et al., 2016) and high schools (Sebastian et al., 2017).

Teacher expertise

Teachers describe the teacher's expertise as the ability to inspire students for mutual help and reinforcement, the teacher's ability to distribute tasks in the classroom in a differentiated way, the application of inclusive teaching/learning methods in organising class activities, the learning support provided to the student and the use of personal experiences to inspire students to learn through the teacher's ability to inspire students to help each other:

A student, whether s/he has leadership qualities or not, that s/he shows her/his leadership so that s/he inspires others, perhaps. Perhaps it would help students with learning difficulties to benefit from that leadership as well. R6 Teachers play a vital role in creating an environment that supports students' learning. They often do this through their support for students' autonomy (Schuitema et al., 2016). Teachers enable students to identify with self, personal interests, and values by supporting their freedom of choice (Ferlazzo, 2015). By supporting students' choices and interests, teachers help students to develop personal interest, involvement, and ownership of their work, which aid in motivation (Johnson, 2017). Teachers also help students to learn by increasing their responsibility and participation in own learning through letting them create their own goals and objectives (Theobald, 2006). Research conducted on the nature of the relationship between students' perception of social support and autonomy support from their teachers, and self-regulated learning and achievement, showed a significant correlation between the students' perception of their teachers' autonomy support and self-regulated learning (Johnson, 2017).

Connecting to the personal world of students is another way that teachers support their students' learning (Thoonen et al., 2011). Teachers connect learning to the personal world of their students by making learning tasks more relevant through relating instructions to students' experiences (Ferlazzo, 2015). Students who understand the relevance for learning a particular concept, and what that learning implies for their everyday living, will generate interest (Theobald, 2006). A study explored the use of four classroom practices – process-oriented instruction, differentiation, connecting to students' world (relevance), and cooperative learning – in order to determine their relationship to students' motivation (Thoonen et al., 2011). The findings revealed that connecting to the personal world (relevance) of students had a positive outcome on students' motivation (Johnson, 2017). Students need to see the links between what they do in class and how meaningful it is to their lives (Martin et al., 2002).

Teachers who build positive relationships with their students are more likely to influence their drive to learn (Ferlazzo, 2015). Building trust in a relationship takes time. Teachers should take time to know their students and their interests (Theobald, 2006). To achieve this trust, teachers should be open minded and occasionally share their own stories of success, struggles, failures, and achievement (Bain, 2004). Satisfaction of individuals' basic need for relationship promotes intrinsic behaviour that can lead to students' motivation to learn (Schuitema et al., 2016). Building relationships with students can be difficult; however, being positive and encouraging can contribute to students' intrinsic motivation (Ferlazzo, 2015; Theobald, 2006). Research conducted into the relationship between students' perception of social support and autonomy support from their teachers, and self-regulated learning and achievement, concluded that the students' learning, performance in school, and social and
emotional well-being were all affected by the relationship with their teachers (Johnson, 2017). The early establishment of a willingness to work with students one on one can build the nature of the teacher-student relationship (Stearns, 2013). Teachers' positive, caring, and trusting relationships with their students can instigate students to learn.

The level of teachers' interest in their teaching affects students' motivation to learn. Teachers who are energetic and enthusiastic about their subject or task generally attach positive feelings and importance to how they teach (Schiefele & Schaffner, 2015). Students observe what their teachers do in class and how they act. A teacher who displays interest and positive feelings about a subject can reflect those positive feelings toward students, thus increasing their motivation to learn the subject (Theobald, 2006). Students' motivation to learn maybe affected by the teachers' outlook, interests, and enthusiasm in their subject (Zhang, 2014).

The teacher's ability to distribute differentiated tasks in the classroom is the component of her/his leadership for students' creativity:

Now a lot of attention is paid to that differentiated education. When I assign differentiated tasks especially in the lower classes, some kind of homework or some other task, everyone chooses according to their abilities. Whether they want to draw a certain thing, whether they want to describe it, whether they want to illustrate. This really works. It helps to discover artists. R8

Differentiation refers to a wide variety of teaching techniques and lesson adaptations that educators use to instruct a diverse group of students, with diverse learning needs, in the same course, classroom, or learning environment. Differentiation is commonly used in 'heterogeneous grouping' - an educational strategy in which students of different abilities, learning needs, and levels of academic achievement are grouped together. In heterogeneously grouped classrooms, for example, teachers vary instructional strategies and use more flexibly designed lessons to engage student interests and address distinct learning needs - all of which may vary from student to student (Abbott, 2013). The basic idea is that the primary educational objectives - making sure all students master essential knowledge, concepts, and skills - remain the same for every student, but teachers may use different instructional methods to help students to meet those expectations. Teachers who employ differentiated instructional strategies will usually adjust the elements of a lesson from one group of students to another, so that those who may need more time or a different teaching approach to grasp a concept get the specialised assistance they need. Meanwhile, those students who have already mastered a concept can be assigned a different learning activity or move on to a new concept or lesson (Differentiating Instruction ..., 2018).

When teachers differentiate instruction, they might give some students an entirely different reading (to better match their reading level and ability), give the entire class the option to choose from among several texts (so each student can pick the one that interests them most), or give the class several options for completing a related assignment (for example, the students might be allowed to write a traditional essay, draw an illustrated essay in comic-style form, create a slideshow 'essay' with text and images, or deliver an oral presentation) (Abbott, 2013).

Differentiation plays into ongoing debates about equity and 'academic tracking' in public schools. One major criticism of the approach is related to the complexities and difficulties entailed in teaching diverse types of students in a single classroom or educational setting. Since effective differentiation requires more sophisticated and highly specialist instructional methods, teachers typically need adequate training, mentoring, and professional development to ensure they are using differentiated instructional techniques appropriately and effectively. Some teachers also argue that the practical realities of using differentiation – especially in larger classes comprising students with a wide range of skill levels, academic preparation, and learning needs – can be prohibitively difficult or even infeasible (*Differentiating Instruction ...*, 2018).

Application of inclusive teaching/learning methods in organising classroom activities means teachers' leadership for student creativity and learning achievements:

... various methodologies are used in the lesson. Digital, various technologies – not just teaching a lecture, but some kind of activity, where students could get involved in activities, in groups, individual activities. R31

Teachers are key players in fostering student engagement (Garcia-Reid et al., 2005). They work directly with the students and typically are the most influential in a student's educational experience. Creating a culture of achievement in their classroom, developing interactive and relevant lessons and activities, and being encouraging and supportive to students are all ways in which teachers can foster student engagement in the classroom. One method of enhancing student engagement is to cultivate a culture of achievement in the classroom where instruction is challenging, students feel comfortable asking questions, and students are expected to do their best. For instance, a teacher might create an end-of-the-year academic goal for a classroom as a whole or a specific goal for each individual student. In order to show mastery of the goal, students must complete a research project or an oral presentation.

Teachers need to select a goal that is challenging but attainable and find creative ways for students to work toward achieving the goal. Monitoring student progress throughout the school year also will keep students focused academically and invested in their learning. When students feel challenged, they are less likely to be bored and disengaged (Akey, 2006). Teachers should aim to create a culture in the classroom where learning is 'cool', and asking questions is not only okay but expected. It may take some time to develop this type of environment, but it can be done by setting clear, high, consistent yet attainable expectations for all students. High quality instruction – one that is rigorous, aligned with content standards, and uses instructional strategies to meet the academic needs of all students – also is a key factor in promoting a culture of engagement and achievement in the classroom (Weiss & Pasley, 2004) through teachers' leadership.

Instructional strategies such as collaborative and experiential learning as well as designing an accessible and relevant curriculum have been shown to greatly increase student engagement in learning (Heller et al., 2003). Examples of these instructional strategies that might support student engagement include the following: group activities and assignments, long-term projects, handson activities, differentiated instruction, lessons and activities that draw from students background, interests, and academic needs. Students learn more and retain more information when they actively participate in the learning process and when they can relate to what is being taught (Akey, 2006). Drawing connections between information taught and real life – such as everyday life, social issues, and personal concerns of the age group of students – is highly effective in engaging students in the lesson (Heller et al., 2003). The teacher implements her/his leadership by providing help to students:

A teacher is a curator and assistant. S/he is not the boss who controls the learning process, but s/he is the person who tries to help students to discover her/his strengths, find out her/his gaps and help students to achieve academic results. R23

You can already help him realise his dream or some kind of verbal idea with all kinds of advice, find additional literature or some links somewhere, online or similar ... Well, in the end, how to do it technologically. This is where we always work creatively and really let it go. R7

Student engagement is positively correlated to teacher support (Garcia-Reid et al., 2005). Students who noted that their teachers were supportive and cared about their success were more likely to be engaged in the classroom and perform well academically (Heller et al., 2003). Students who do not feel confident in their ability to succeed are not likely to attempt to do the work (Akey, 2006). Building a student's confidence is not about falsely telling students how great they are. Instead, it is about assessing student weaknesses and strengths and developing ways to address them at developmentally appropriate yet rigorous levels. Additionally, acknowledging student academic growth and improvement is another way to build student confidence. It is crucial for teachers to create collaborative, supportive environments with high but achievable standards because it greatly effects students' engagement in school and learning (Akey, 2006). By leading and using personal experiences teachers inspire students to learn creatively:

There are students who openly say that they don't know where to go. One of the alternatives, that maybe I will like it, maybe I won't like it. Those students are harder to help. And for those who I already know that they came to learn, then they are motivated. R31

When it comes to sharing personal experiences when teaching, sometimes teachers face a dilemma in determining how much of their lives to share with their students. Storytelling in the classroom can be powerful, and students enjoy getting a glimpse 'behind the curtain' (Barile, 2023).

Teachers experience the adaptability through flexibility when they understand the students' learning attitude, are empathetic to the students' moods and experiences, take into account the students' learning needs and then adjust, change, and reorganise the lesson structure *ad hoc*:

I used to come up with a story, there was a song and words, and that kind of programme, which is different for two-year-olds, and from three to six years old. I practically teach them all the same. I think of a topic for that week. I think that, for example, I used to start the first lesson in one way, but sometimes children change the whole educational process in such a way that I look at it. For example, that fifth lesson is already completely different for the student. If I listen, I only allow the self to change, or not, even sometimes the same structure of the lesson, it's not that I am stubborn here. I can achieve that goal in completely different ways. R24

Experiences of change, novelty, and uncertainty are common to all humans. These include major events such as beginning school, moving out of home, and starting a new job. They also include more everyday events such as a change in job role, having to think of alternative transport when a flat car battery strikes, or having unexpected guests join for dinner. The extent to which we are able to adjust our thoughts, actions, and emotions in order to successfully respond to these types of situations is known as adaptability. This involves adjusting the way we think about the situation to consider different options, undertaking different actions to better navigate the situation, and minimising emotions (like anxiety or frustration) that may be unhelpful or distracting (Collie et al., 2018). Just as general life is full of changing, new, and uncertain situations, so are our working lives - and especially the working lives of teachers. For example, at work teachers regularly encounter a diverse range of learners to whom they must respond appropriately, face unexpected situations in the classroom or shifts in timetabling that they need to navigate, interact with with new colleagues, students, and parents, integrate new and changing knowledge from professional learning into their teaching practices. All of these situations require teachers to adapt in order to successfully navigate them. Adapting may involve adjusting lesson pacing to better engage students, minimising frustration when a lesson is not going according to plan, or adapting one's approach to collaboration to work well with a new colleague (Collie & Martin, 2017).

Flexible pedagogical strategies are those that place the student at the centre of the pedagogical process and have become an important part of the success of any educational experience. They are designed to help teachers tailor their teaching to the needs of all students, regardless of their learning style or ability level. Flexible teaching strategies help create an inclusive learning environment in which all students feel supported and respected. An example of a flexible teaching strategy is differentiated teaching. This strategy consists of adapting teaching to the individual needs of each student. For example, a teacher might assign different activities to different students based on their individual learning styles or abilities. This can help ensure that all students can access the material and progress in their learning. Another example of a flexible teaching strategy is the use of technology. Technology can be used to provide students with additional support and resources, such as online tutorials or interactive activities. Technology can also be used to offer students personalised instruction, allowing them to learn at their own pace and in their own way (Martin et al., 2015).

The principle of flexibility in teaching is an important concept that centres have been incorporating into their educational project. This principle encourages teachers to be open to different approaches to teaching, to be willing to modify their procedures based on the needs of their students, and to be creative in their approach. In addition, it means being open to trying new teaching methods, such as technology-based tools or different types of assessments, to ensure that students are engaged and learning. Flexibility in teaching also involves being able to adjust the pace of instruction to suit the needs of the students, as well as being able to adjust the content of the lesson to maintain the attention and motivation of the different components of the same lesson. In short, the principle of flexibility in teaching is essential to create an effective learning environment adapted to the individual needs of each student (Collie & Martin, 2017).

Flexible strategies are essential for any content area. By offering students different ways to learn and understand the material, teachers can ensure that all students have an equal opportunity to succeed. Here are some strategies that can be used in any content area to create a more engaging and fruitful learning environment (Collie et al., 2018). First, teachers must use a variety of teaching methods to keep students interested. This could include the incorporation of multimedia, such as videos, audio recordings and interactive activities. In addition, teachers should offer students the opportunity to practise the material in a variety of ways, such as through group work, individual projects, or hands-on activities. By offering multiple learning pathways, teachers can ensure that all students are able to understand the material. Second, teachers must use scaffolding techniques to help students expand their knowledge. This can include guided practice, breaking down complex concepts, and feedback. In addition, it is very interesting and effective to offer students the opportunity to apply the material to real life situations (Martin et al., 2015). Teachers often use lectures or discussions, laboratory experiments, or small group work to carry out flexible content teaching strategies. For collaborative teaching, it is key to have spaces and furniture that allow correct communication between students.

Flexible peer learning teaching strategies can be an effective way to engage students in the classroom. Teachers can create an environment that encourages creativity and critical thinking by allowing students to collaborate and learn from each other. Here are some guidelines for applying flexible peer learning strategies in the classroom. First, it is important to create an environment that encourages collaboration. This can be achieved by providing students with an open forum to discuss ideas and ask questions. In addition, it is important to provide students with the necessary resources to facilitate learning. This could include providing access to online materials, allowing students to work in groups, or providing a variety of activities to choose from. It is important that students are responsible for their learning. This happens by providing feedback on the group's progress, setting expectations for the group, and providing opportunities for individual reflection (Martin, 2008). Teachers leaders are convinced that their adaptability is directly related to the learning expectations of students, which they need to know:

It is very important for students' results that their expectations match what they get in lessons. Since I am a teacher, today I started a new module, so I started the lesson with the question: what was the purpose of your coming to school? What do you want, what do you hope to learn? R31

A student-teacher relationship in the classroom is a positive relationship between the teacher and the student in efforts to gain trust and respect from each other. This relationship may consist of getting to know your students better, providing choice and encouraging the students to become stronger learners everyday. By doing this teachers are showing respect to their students, valuing their individuality and being polite. Having a positive relationship with your students helps them become more successful in the classroom as well as makes your classroom a safe and welcoming environment for all (Coristine et al., 2022).

Encouraging students' creativity

Teachers claim that they encourage the students' creativity by being open to students' input:

Well, maybe the thing itself is so grateful for technology education. It's actually for children, we have something there, topics where you need to familiarise yourself with the tools, how to use them safely, and something else. But when we start to produce, students are always given the opportunity to come up with their own idea. Something I want to do, don't you? R7

There are many tips and tricks that can be used to build a strong student-teacher relationship. One way that a strong student-teacher relationship can be created is by making it apparent that the teacher cares about the students. This can be done by talking with students. Another way could be by listening to students, this can be done by hearing their opinions, taking into account their interests, and by learning each student's unique learning style. The teacher can develop mutual trust with students, such as providing them with choices and always having their best interests in mind. The teacher always has to be respectful and fair with every student. The teacher can ensure this by not picking favourites, and having the same correct behaviour for each student. Furthermore, the teacher can get to know students and their families by paying attention to students during class, offering them opportunities to talk or share what they want about their families and by giving students positive words of encouragement and constructive criticism (6 Ways to Build Strong Teacher-Student Relationships with SEL, 2022). This creates trust with students, as they know they can rely on the teacher to be honest. Teacher leaders encourage students to take responsibility for learning by developing independence for their creativity in learning:_

Maybe next time it's a pity that the students don't take advantage, they somehow wait for me to give the command, because there are all kinds of things, but I always encourage it. In fact, so that they themselves think what is useful for you today. Maybe homemade, homemade or a gift. Somewhere for dad or mom, or something that would be practically applicable and they would try those technologies themselves and that kind of creativity and personal freedom is really great for him. R7

Student choice makes students active participants in their education, thereby increasing levels of engagement. Such autonomy is generally associated with greater personal well-being and satisfaction in educational environments as

well as in terms of academic performance (Coristine et al., 2022). When students are in charge of their own learning, they feel a sense of belonging – the classroom becomes a space defined by them. And paradoxically, in providing greater autonomy for students, teachers are more important than ever, because only a skilled teacher can set up the scaffolding for this kind of learning experience and thoughtfully guide students through each step of the process. Like adults, students feel valued and respected when an experience challenges them, reflects their interests, and allows their voices to be heard. And when they are the authors of their own stories, they attend to each moment because they care deeply about the rising action, the falling action, and the resolution – the triumphs and the lessons are their own (Pandolpho, 2018). Teacher leaders create opportunities for students to reveal their talents:_

I think that a lot of things come from the heart, you feel that talent is hidden somewhere. If she let it reveal itself, it's a lot of fun for him. Indeed. R19

Teachers can play a major role in the discovery of the hidden talents in their students as they observe them and know their strengths and weaknesses. Teachers can sense a latent talent in a student much better than the student's parents, relatives, or friends, and can encourage the student to spend more time in developing the gifted skills.

Teachers can discover the latent talents in their students by various ways such as *Ways to Discover Latent Talents in Students* (2023):

- Observing a student's hobby. The teacher can discover latent talent in a student by observing their hobbies and their aptitudes in those hobbies. People usually tend pick up those hobbies in which they are talented. People having natural talents in a skill tend to be drawn towards similar hobbies and find their calling in that. However, they tend to abandon those hobbies as they age for other practical and pragmatic options, often on the advice of their parents or relatives. Teachers can identify the talents of a student from their hobbies and can counsel them to pursue their hobbies in a serious manner.
- Asking them about their passions and interests. Teachers can get a whiff of
 a student's talents by asking them about their passions and interests. They
 can get honest replies from younger students and can observe them while
 the students are engrossed with their passions. Passionate students often
 lose track of time and are totally oblivious to happenings around them when
 they are immersed in an activity that they truly love. Teachers can get an
 idea about their talents when they see the students involved with their passions.

- Organising various competitions and shows. Teachers can discover the latent talents of their students by organising various competitions and shows and encouraging them to participate in those. They should convince the students not to get bogged down with competition and to enjoy the contests. The objective of these contests should not be to intensify a feeling of competition or rivalry among the students but to help them discover their hidden talents and gifts lying within them. Similarly, teachers can also organise some shows and exhibitions, such as science exhibition, arts and crafts exhibition, that will encourage students to participate in them and showcase their talents.
- Arranging a group outing and encouraging them to express themselves freely. Children are usually spontaneous when they are outdoors and are provided with some downtime. They are not apprehensive about being judged thus feel free to express themselves. It is not surprising to see a reticent and shy student, voicing some melodious songs without feeling any inhibitions. In these outings, children tend to open up and leave their serious garb behind. To discover a latent talent of a student, allow them to laugh heartily and express themselves freely.
- Organising extracurricular Olympiads. Teachers can also spot the latent talents of students by organising extracurricular Olympiads such as a Maths Olympiad, Science Olympiad, etc. Students tend to prepare themselves best and give their best performance for these Olympiads.

An atmosphere of openness in the classroom

For teachers the atmosphere of openness in the classroom is a leadership context in which the teacher takes into account the opinions and ideas of the students and together with them implements the ideas in learning:_

I always ask my students, even though they are first graders, what they would like. Then we try to agree together on which ideas are acceptable to us, if we would like it that way, and if it is clear that most students agree, then I help those students to implement that idea to the end. R20

First of all, in order for the students to implement their ideas, the teacher must be a good listener, and I am one. To listen even then means that the combined forces of the generations will strive to implement that idea. R34

Poor teacher-student relationships result from the instructor's lack of awareness. Some students require tailored educational approaches, since they do not respond to learning in the same way as others. When a teacher fails to regard an individual student's educational needs, relationship problems between teachers and students arise (Coristine et al., 2022). Each student's ability to learn and interact with teachers is influenced by their personality, family backgrounds, mental processes, learning styles, priorities, maturity levels, and academic ambitions (Tucker, 2021). When possible, teachers should treat each student as an individual who deserves one-to-one attention and specialised, concentrated education. In addition, a poor student-teacher relationship will develop if the teacher's main or only priority in the classroom is academics (Tucker, 2021). In correspondence with academics, students need to feel cared for and have the chance to feel strong emotions. Teachers are responsible for building relationships with students that are not surface level or academically focused. Students should feel that their teacher is someone they can trust and communicate freely with. The lack of empathy displayed by an educator can result in a poor student-teacher relationship (Coristine et al., 2022). The teacher creates a culture of equal discussion and communication in the classroom:

In this case, I usually let the students talk, share their ideas or simply write down suggestions, discuss something, discussion and dialogue – this is my best tool to achieve some kind of result and get out of the student how he can present his idea and what steps he sees to implement it, and then decide what the teacher her/himself can help him with and what steps he can advise or guide. in which direction. R23

The fact that I should not look at any person as inferior to you, even a child, well, let's say, three years old, as I remember myself, maybe not three years old, but let's say five. These children are even smarter now than when we were at that age. I look at every child only as one who lived in this world for a shorter time, but definitely not as stupid and who can't teach me something. R28

Student-teacher relationships are highly essential in an effective classroom. Specifically, student-teacher relationships are important for students in their short term and long term education (Coristine et al., 2022). Student-teacher relationships are important in the short term because they create a thriving classroom environment, help students develop self-worth and improve student mental health (Buffet, 2019). These positive relationships may decrease behavioural problems and promote academic success. Student-teacher relationships help foster the academic success of students. With this being said, student-teacher relationships assist students in the short term. These relationships support students for the specific year they spend in that educational setting with the educator (Buffet, 2019). Likewise, a positive student-teacher relationship is very important in the long term because it gives students confidence, as well as ensuring that they know that their ideas are valuable. In turn, this allows students to carry this confidence throughout their future years pursuing academics. Also, this confidence and recognition of self-worth can be seen in social and emotional aspects of the students life. Another long term effect is that positive teacher relationships teach students that mistakes are an indication that they are learning. Learning is ongoing and students are able to identify this through the production of positive student-teacher relationships. This type of relationship will foster confidence in the long term for the student (Coristine et al., 2022). The teacher listens and evaluates the meaningfulness of the students' criticism in the name of the quality of teaching by preserving their creativity:

It seems to me that this is what you encourage here, that when you see that you react to the children's comments, to the children's questions, because sometimes we teachers, well, we don't like those children who are uncomfortable. Who ask a lot, who express their opinion a lot, but in fact, this is what is most valuable. If a person asks, if a person is interested. R24

One way to enhance students' motivation and achievement is to make their learning meaningful (Beni et al., 2019) by creating a meaningful learning environment that emphasises cognitive, social, and emotional aspects of learning, as well as fully engages a person. Researchers are constantly looking for methods and tools that make learning meaningful for learners (Mystakidis, 2021; Polman et al., 2021). It has been determined that learning motivation is particularly enhanced by the experience of success (Filgona et al., 2020), students' belief in learning success, as well as their empowerment and promotion of their autonomy (Bojović & Antonijević, 2017). A meaningful learning environment motivates students to make more efforts and leads to a better transfer of knowledge from the classroom to the outside world (Wilson, 2020). A meaningful learning environment links learning with students' needs and interests, motivates students to put in more effort, and allows them to experience the value of learning activities outside of school (Van Oers, 2009). Researchers note that meaningful learning construction is related to teaching methods such as inquiry and problem-solving, which encourage analysing and relating existing information to new concepts (Hanani, 2020). As revealed by the study conducted by Polman et al. (2021), when creating a meaningful learning environment for primary school students in mathematics, teachers consider educational contexts that activate students' prior knowledge and connect it to students' personal worlds and values outside the school as important. As a way of strengthening meaningful learning, teachers use goal setting for/with students, create cross-curricular and future-oriented contexts, and share personal experiences in practice (Ustilaite et al., 2023). The teacher recognises the limitations of his or her own knowledge and provides opportunities for students to share their knowledge with him/her:

If a student sometimes even knows more than I, because we, teachers, are probably very afraid to admit that modern children sometimes even know more in the field of technological knowledge. So what happiness is there when I ask, look here, I don't pay anything for this phone. Can you help me? It's again that show that, well, I'm handing that leadership over to you, too. You're tougher than me in this place. R32

Students aren't consumers of facts. They are active creators of knowledge. Schools aren't just bricks-and-mortar structures - they're centres of lifelong learning. And, most important, teaching is recognised as one of the most challenging and respected career choices, absolutely vital to the social, cultural, and economic health of our nation. Today, the seeds of such a dramatic transformation in education are being planted. Prompted by massive revolutions in knowledge, information technology, and public demand for better learning, schools nationwide are slowly but surely restructuring themselves. Leading the way are thousands of teachers who are rethinking every part of their jobs – their relationship with students, colleagues, and the community; the tools and techniques they employ; their rights and responsibilities; the form and content of curriculum; what standards to set and how to assess whether they are being met; their preparation as teachers and their ongoing professional development; and the very structure of the schools in which they work. In short, teachers are reinventing themselves and their occupation to better serve schools and students. Teachers today are encouraged to adapt and adopt new practices that acknowledge both the art and science of learning (Lanier, 1997). They understand that the essence of education is a close relationship between a knowledgeable, caring adult and a secure, motivated child. They grasp that their most important role is to get to know each student as an individual in order to comprehend his or her unique needs, learning style, social and cultural background, interests, and abilities.

Teachers have to be committed to relating to youngsters of many cultures, including those young people who, with traditional teaching, might have dropped out – or have been forced out – of the education system. Their job is to counsel students as they grow and mature – helping them integrate their social, emotional, and intellectual growth – so the union of these sometimes separate dimensions yields the abilities to seek, understand, and use knowledge; to make better decisions in their personal lives; and to value contributing to society. They must be prepared and permitted to intervene at any time and in any way to make sure learning occurs. Rather than see themselves solely as masters of subject matter such as history, math, or science, teachers increasingly understand that they must also inspire a love of learning (Poth, 2023).

In practice, this new relationship between teachers and students takes the form of a different concept of instruction. Tuning in to how students real-

ly learn prompts many teachers to reject teaching that is primarily lecture based in favour of instruction that challenges students to take an active role in learning. They no longer see their primary role as being the king or queen of the classroom, a benevolent dictator deciding what's best for the powerless underlings in their care. They've found they accomplish more if they adopt the role of educational guides, facilitators, and co-learners. The most respected teachers have discovered how to make students passionate participants in the instructional process by providing project-based, participatory, educational adventures (Poth, 2023). They know that in order to get students to truly take responsibility for their own education, the curriculum must relate to their lives, learning activities must engage their natural curiosity, and assessments must measure real accomplishments and be an integral part of learning. Students work harder when teachers give them a role in determining the form and content of their schooling - helping them create their own learning plans and deciding the ways in which they will demonstrate that they have, in fact, learnt what they agreed to learn (Lanier, 1997). The teacher creates a culture of reflection in the classroom:

Reflection is necessary in today's school, and it is not only the teacher's reflection, it is also the students' reflection about their activities, about their results. R33

Student-teacher relationships have displayed many advantages in the classroom. To start, students who share a positive relationship with their teacher develop stronger social-emotional skills. These students are more likely to absorb an increased amount of academic knowledge (Positive teacher-student relationships have cascading benefits, 2021). The result of a strong student-teacher relationship is that it allows students to feel confident through exploration and taking risks in their academic tasks. In short, students who have a positive student-teacher relationship demonstrate a stronger performance in the classroom (Positive teacher-student relationships have cascading benefits, 2021). However, one of the most important impacts of a positive student-teacher relationship is the production of an environment that incorporates mutual respect. The teacher can produce a strong relationship with a student by explicitly defining learning goals and expectations in a positive manner. This could look different for groups of students or individual students. The strong relationship will allow for teachers to be aware of their students' learning, and adjust their learning goals and expectations as needed (Admin, 2017). In the same manner, the teacher should allow opportunities for students of all learning styles to participate in class discussions through oral and written communication. In addition to academic advantages, positive student-teacher relationships improve mental health and assists students in developing self-worth (Admin, 2017). Often, students look up to their teachers as mentors. With this in mind, students are likely to feel pride when the educator encourages them in their learning and social interactions. Social competence, problem-solving abilities, autonomy, and a feeling of a bright future or purpose are protective elements that boost resilience; these all can be developed in a supportive teaching atmosphere (Bondy et al., 2007). As noted, students benefit from positive student-teacher relationships. Likewise, educators benefit as well. While creating strong relationships with their students, educators are strengthening their own interpersonal and professional skills (Admin, 2017). By strengthening their interpersonal communication skills, teachers are more likely to respond effectively to stressful situations. Teachers are able to form relationships with parents and co-workers. Students and teachers equally benefit from the creation of positive student-teacher relationships.

A teacher's leadership is successful when s/he creates opportunities for students to realise their own ideas – this inspires students to enthusiastic learning, motivates them to strive for more and better, which is directly related to their educational achievements.

In this context, the teacher's ability to listen, to hear students' ideas, opinions, expectations, the organisation of the classroom environment, based on a culture of open dialogue and equal communication, mutual critical reflection and efforts to listen to individual rites, saturation of the classroom environment with mutual care and respect are of particular importance. Therefore, teacher expertise, when we talk about student achievement, focuses on the teacher's ability to bring students together for mutual cooperation, concentration, care and help and support for each other; teacher professionalism in the ability to form differentiated tasks for students in the lesson; teacher excellence in applying teaching and learning methods that involve students in learning and encourage them to take responsibility for it and enable self-regulated learning; and the teacher's use of a personal life example to inspire learning learning, become essential characteristics of a teacher's expertise.

A teacher's leadership in using students' ideas for their successful learning, related to learning achievements, is directly related to his/her ability to flexibly adapt to the classroom and support students' creativity. Teacher support for student creativity includes openness to recognising students' contributions to learning, encouraging students to take responsibility for their own learning and, as a result, develop personal learning independence, creating an atmosphere where students' talents are seen, recognised and respected.

The atmosphere of openness in the classroom is directly related to teaching leadership, and here it is important that the teacher reacts positively to the students' opinions about learning and tries to implement the students' suggestions, using them to improve the students' achievements; for the teacher to create a culture of open discussion and open communication in the class-

room, for the teacher to appreciate the meaningfulness of students' criticism in the name of improving the quality of teaching, for the teacher not to hide the limitations of his or her knowledge, and to allow students to contribute to increasing the teacher's knowledge, and for the teacher to create a culture of daily reflection in the classroom.

References

- Abbott, S. (Ed.) (2013). Provided by: Great Schools Partnership. http://edglossary.org/differentiation/. Project: The Glossary of Education Reform. License: CC BY-NC-SA: Attribution-Non-Commercial-ShareAlike
- Admin. (2017). 4 benefits of positive student-teacher relationships. Pride Surveys. https://www. pridesurveys.com/index.php/blog/4-beneficial-effects-of-student-teacher-relationships/
- Akey, T. M. (2006, January). School context, student attitudes and behavior, and academic achievement: An exploratory analysis. New York: MDRC. http://www.mdrc.org/publications/419/full. pdf
- Bain, K. (2004). What The Best College Teachers Do. Massachusetts, Cambridge, USA: Harvard University Press.
- Barile, N. (2023). Sharing Personal Experiences When Teaching, How Much Is Too Much? https:// www.wgu.edu/heyteach/article/sharing-personal-experiences-when-teaching-how-much-istoo-much1909.html
- Beni, S., Ní Chróinín, D., & Fletcher, T. (2019). A focus on the how of meaningful physical education in primary schools. Sport, Education and Society, 24(6), 624–637. https://doi.org /10.1080/13573322.2019.1612349
- Bondy, E., Ross, D. D., Gallingane, C., & Hambacher, E. (2007). Creating environments of success and resilience. Urban Education, 42(4), 326–348. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085907303406
- Collie, R. J., Martin, A. J., Granziera, H. (2018). Being able to adapt in the classroom improves teachers' well-being. The Conversation. https://theconversation.com/being-able-to-adapt-in-the-classroom-improves-teachers-well-being-95788
- Collie, R. J., & Martin, A. J. (2017). Teachers' sense of adaptability: Examining links with perceived autonomy support, teachers' psychological functioning, and students' numeracy achievement, Learning and Individual Differences, 55, 29–39. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2017.03.003
- Coristine, S., Russo, S., Fitzmorris, R., Beninato, P., & Rivolta, G. (2022). The importance of student-teacher relationships. Classroom Practice in 2022. https://ecampusontario.pressbooks. pub/educ5202/chapter/the-importance-of-student-teacher-relationships/
- Ferlazzo, L. (2015). Strategies for helping students motivate themselves. Edutopia. http://www. edutopia.org/blog/strategies-helping-students-motivate-themselves-larry-ferlazzo
- Filgona, J., Sakiyo, J., Gwany, G. M., & Okoronka, A. U. (2020). Motivation in learning. Asian Journal of Education and Social Studies, 10(4), 16–37. https://doi.org/10.9734/ajess/2020/ v10i430273
- Garcia-Reid, P., Reid, R., & Peterson, N. A. (2005, May). School engagement among Latino youth in an urban middle school context: Valuing the role of social support. Education and Urban Society, 37(3), 257-275.
- Hallinger, P., & Heck, R.H. (2010 a). Collaborative leadership and school improvement: Understanding the impact on school capacity and student learning. School Leadership & Management, 30(2), 95-110. doi: 10.1080/13632431003663214
- Hallinger, P., & Heck, R.H. (2010 b). Leadership for learning: Does collaborative leadership make a difference in school improvement? Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 38(6) (2010), 654–678. doi: 10.1177/1741143210379060

- Hanani, N. (2020). Meaningful learning reconstruction for millennial: Facing competition in the information technology era. IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environment Science, 469 012107. https://doi.org/doi:10.1088/1755-1315/469/1/012107
- Heck, R.H., & Hallinger, P. (2010 a). Collaborative leadership effects on school improvement: Integrating unidirectional- and reciprocal-effects models. The Elementary School Journal, 111(2), 226–252. http://www.jstor.org/stable/10.1086/656299.
- Heck, R.H., & Hallinger, P. (2010 b). Testing a longitudinal model of distributed leadership effects on school improvement. The Leadership Quarterly, 21(5), 867–885. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. leaqua.2010.07.013
- Heller, R., Calderon, S., & Medrich, E. (2003). Academic achievement in the middle grades: What does research tell us? A review of the literature. Atlanta, GA: Southern Regional Education Board. http://www.sreb.org/programs/hstw/publications/pubs/ 02V47_AchievementReview. pdf
- Johnson, D. (2017). The Role of Teachers in Motivating Students To Learn. BU Journal of Graduate Studies in Education, 9(1), 46–49. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1230415.pdf
- Lanier, J. T. (1997). Redefining the Role of the Teacher: It's a Multifaceted Profession. Edutopia. https://www.edutopia.org/redefining-role-teacher
- Martin, A. J., Nejad, H., Colmar, S., Liem, G. A. D., & Collie, R. J. (2015). The role of adaptability in promoting control and reducing failure dynamics: A mediation model. Learning and Individual Differences, 38, 36–43. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2015.02.004
- Martin, A. J. (2008). Enhancing student motivation and engagement: The effects of a multidimensional intervention. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 33(2), 239–269. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2006.11.003
- Martin, J. J., Kulinna, P. H., & Cothran, D. (2002). Motivating students through assessment. Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance, 73(8), 18-19. doi: 10.1080/07303084
- Mystakidis, S. (2021). Deep meaningful learning. Encyclopedia, 1, 988–997. https://doi. org/10.3390/ encyclopedia1030075
- Pandolpho, B. (2018). Putting Students in Charge of Their Learning. Edutopia. https://www.edutopia.org/article/putting-students-charge-their-learning/
- Polman, J., Hornstra, L. & Volman, M. (2021). The meaning of meaningful learning in mathematics in upperprimary education. Learning Environments Research, 24, 469–486. https://doi. org/10.1007/s10984-020-09337-8
- Polman, R. D. (2023). How to Balance Resting, Reflecting, and Learning This Summer. Edutopia. https://www.edutopia.org/article/work-life-balance-teachers-2
- Positive teacher-student relationships have cascading benefits. Network for Educator Effectiveness (2021). https://neeadvantage.com/blog/positive-teacher-student-relationships-have-cascading-benefits/#:~:text=When%20students%20have%20a%20positive,or%20referred%20 for%20sp ecial%20education
- Sebastian, J., Allensworth, E., & Huang, H. (2016). The role of teacher leadership in how principals influence classroom instruction and student learning. American Journal of Education, 123(1), 69–108. doi: 10.1086/688169
- Sebastian, J., Huang, H., & Allensworth, E. (2017). Examining integrated leadership systems in high schools: Connecting principal and teacher leadership to organizational processes and student outcomes. School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 28(3), 463–488. http://dx. doi.org/10.1080/09243453.2017.1319392
- Schiefele, U., & Schaffner, E. (2015). Teacher interests, mastery goals, and self-efficacy as predictors of instructional practices and student motivation. ScienceDirect, 42, 159–171. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2015.06.005
- Stearns, S. A. (2013). Motivating students to offer their best: Evidence based effective course design. College Teaching, 61(4), 127–130. doi: 10.1080/87567555

- Schuitema, J., Peetsma, T., & van der Veen, I. (2016). Longitudinal relations between perceived autonomy and social support from teachers, and students' self-regulated learning and achievement. Learning and Individual Differences, 49, 32–45. doi: 10.1016/j.lindif.2016.05.006
- Theobald, M. A. (2006). Increasing Student Motivation: Strategies For Middle and High School Teachers. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Thoonen, E. E. J., Sleegers, P. J. C., Peetsma, T.T.D., & Oort, F. J. (2011). Can teachers motivate students to learn? Educational Studies, 37(3), 345–360. doi: 10.1080/03055698.2010.507008
- Tucker, K. (2021). What are the causes of a poor relationship between a student & teacher? The Classroom. https://www.theclassroom.com/causes-poor-relationship-between-student-teacher-20337.html
- Van Oers, B. (2009). Developmental education: Improving participation in cultural practices. In M. Fleer, M. Hedegaard, & J. Tudge (Eds.). Childhood Studies And The Impact Of Globalization: Policies And Practices At Global And Local Levels (pp. 213–229). London: Routledge.
- 6 Ways to Build Strong Teacher-Student Relationships with SEL. Social and Emotional Learning – Aperture Education. (2022). https://apertureed.com/5-strategies-building-relationships-students/
- Ways to Discover Latent Talents in Students (2023). My Private Tutor. https://www.myprivatetutor. ae/blog/ways-to-discover-latent-talents-in-students
- Weiss, I. R., & Pasley, J. D. (2004). What is high-quality instruction? Educational Leadership, 61(5), 24–28. http://www.ascd.org/authors/ed_lead/el200402_weiss.html
- Wilson, C. E. (2020). The effects of inquiry-based learning and student achievement in the science classroom. Student Research Submissions, 370, 1–36. https://scholar.umw.edu/ student_research/370

8 Teacher Leadership While Supporting Students To Create Meaning Of Learning

The term 'meaningful learning' does have some nuance to it. Still, a common theme among all definitions is that learning new material is possible when it relates to the learner's existing experience. The idea of meaningful learning is to help students, whether they are in elementary school or community college, use their knowledge and personal experience to understand complex ideas and problem-solving. This way, learning is robust and transferable to real life, online, and professional contexts, and they gain the experience and skills that are actually valuable when creating their professional careers (Ramassa, 2023). From the research findings emerged essential factors that together create the content of teacher support for students to create meaning of learning: teaching/learning co-creation (Katz, 2021), personalised learning (Ramassa, 2023), and teacher's didactic accuracy (Webb et al., 1995; Wurdinger & Carlson, 2010).

Teaching and learning co-creation

The teacher's help for students to create the meaning of learning is manifested through the co-creation of learning, didactic purposefulness of the teacher, personalised education of students, and creativity of the teacher.

Tab. 7:	Teaching/learning	co-creation: categories	and subcategories
---------	-------------------	-------------------------	-------------------

Subcategory	Category
The teacher gives students freedom for reasoned creativity	Teaching/learning co-creation
Teacher encouragement for students to experiment while learning from mistakes	_
Encouraging students to discover for themselves 'what is important'	_
Teaching students to reason when planning learning	_
Learning progress planning based on individualised mutual feedback	_

Subcategory	Category
Encouraging students to seek practical meaning	
Motivating students to learn from others' experiences through collaboration	
Making sense of a person's knowledge and abilities in tea- cher-student conversations	-

Co-creating with students is a process by which students collaborate with teachers in designing their own learning experience. With an emphasis on student perspectives, it is based on constructivist learning theory, which says learners construct knowledge and meaning from lived experiences rather than from passively taking in information. Implicit in the concept of co-creation is a recognition that teaching is not a one-way process flowing from teacher to student. Meaningful learning opportunities are made possible by honouring student voices (Katz, 2021). Co-creation of teaching/learning involves teaching and learning that is co-created through the collaboration of the teacher and students in everyday learning in the classroom. Teachers believe that they contribute to the meaning-making of students' learning through the freedom to create by presenting students with their own authentic arguments.

I allowed their freedom to develop to the maximum. Well, for example, I said, you can even prove to me that God does not exist, but what matters to me is your validity. What keeps you hooked. And in the true sense of the word, I saw how cool, interesting topics are among the students, like how photography affects a person, or even photography today. The whole world of Instagram is reducing photography itself. It was very interesting to listen to the podcasts. Then some guys brought up the issue of free will very nicely. Some said that man has free will, others about horoscopes. It was very, very important for someone from the class that they were talking about the relationship between men and women. R14

One question to consider is how students are co-creating for equity. As students create, the goal is not to replicate existing systems, processes or resources. Co-creation should create opportunity and space for students to advance social justice in their learning. A powerful form of co-creation is open pedagogy, where students are invited to openly license their contributions in the class. An option for openly co-creating with students is developing renewable assignments. These are assignments resulting in the production of materials that have a value beyond the students' own learning, such as content tutorials for future classes. The students are then invited to openly license and publicly share their work with the global community. Co-creating with students can range from an individual assignment to entire curricula. While this may initially seem daunting, any space in the syllabus, course or curriculum that provides students with choices provides a start for co-creation (Katz, 2021).

A growing body of research suggests that students learn more deeply and perform better on complex tasks if they have the opportunity to engage in more 'authentic' learning – projects and activities that require them to employ subject knowledge to solve real-world problems. Studies have shown a positive impact on learning when students participate in lessons that require them to construct and organise knowledge, consider alternatives, engage in detailed research, inquiry, writing, and analysis, and to communicate effectively to audiences (Newmann, 1996). For example, a study of more than 2,100 students in 23 schools found significantly higher achievement on intellectually challenging performance tasks for students who experienced this kind of 'authentic pedagogy' (Newmann et al., 1995). The research highlighting the benefits of authentic learning, together with a growing interest in providing students with more engaging, thought-provoking learning opportunities, has prompted teachers at all grade levels to experiment with incorporating inguiry-based learning into their curriculum. But interest alone does not make for effective implementation of new models. Indeed, 'learning by doing' has a somewhat chequered track record, in part because teachers often lack the information, support, and tools necessary to fully integrate and support this alternative approach to teaching and learning (Barron & Darling-Hammond, 2008).

Making mistakes can be a valuable opportunity of meaningful learning. Making mistakes in learning can be inevitable, but it can also be a valuable growth experience. Everyone is likely to make a mistake at some point, but the student can turn a mistake into a positive situation by using it as an opportunity to learn and become better at her/his learning by not making the same mistakes again. Showing that student had learnt from her/his mistakes can also increase her/his teacher's trust in him/her and prove that s/he is willing to put effort into improving him/herself. Learning from own mistakes and viewing them as positive experiences can help increase the student confidence and free him/her from the fear of failure (*How To Learn From Your Mistakes ...*, 2023). Such learning is related to discovery learning.

Discovery learning is a form of constructivist learning that emphasises students acquiring knowledge on their own through active roles and direct experience. This approach doesn't rely on linear or final knowledge transmission; instead, it encourages students to discover knowledge through their own curiosity. Discovery learning advocates active learning, where students construct their own knowledge more naturally than other traditional methodologies, such as linear knowledge transmission. Among its benefits are the promotion of self-esteem and the reinforcement of creativity when finding solutions. This pedagogical strategy can be greatly facilitated by the advancement of technology (*Discovery learning*: ..., 2023). Teachers are not inclined to provide students with template examples and insist on one correct way of solving, they are more inclined to encourage students to try and learn from mistakes and discover for themselves what is important in a specific part of training, a specific topic, a specific task, etc. However, teachers emphasise that teaching methodology is important:

Methodology is important. I am in favour of the fact that the teacher should not be the one who stands in front of the blackboard and pokes his finger: 'You do this and that', but allows me to try and experience the self. Because we use a lot of different experiments I allow students to make mistakes so that they can see that if they do it like that, it won't work. It means they have to do something different, to try. So, they are not afraid to learn from mistakes. R3

Discovery learning should lead to meaningful learning, where students construct their own knowledge. This methodology is based on the following principles (*Discovery learning* ..., 2023):

- 1. Active knowledge acquisition and motivation. Self-acquired knowledge holds a stronger place in learning and is better retained and personalising content increases student motivation by acknowledging their interests.
- 2. *Investigation and experimentation*. Both investigating and experimenting are vital empirical dimensions of discovery learning. They facilitate the consolidation of knowledge and represent the natural way to acquire competencies.
- 3. *Content organisation.* By making students the origin and driving force of learning, they promote a better organisation of acquired knowledge in their minds, making it readily available for future use.
- 4. Long-term retention. Throughout the process, experiences reinforce each other over time, promoting effective information retention. This active learning approach places responsibility on the student, aligning with the learning-by-doing methodology.

Therefore, student learning is planned together with the teacher, providing mutual arguments for specific steps in the learning plan.

We wrote plans. We tried to see what arguments we would use. R15

Did you reach those agreements that were there or not, and what might have hindered it? Then setting other goals, maybe smaller, maybe bigger, depending on what the students' results are. R2

Teachers plan their learning progress with students, prioritising mutual feedback. The concept of feedback has a long history and is considered one of the most common features of successful teaching and learning. However, whilst it remains one of the most powerful moderators of effective and meaningful learning, research demonstrates its effects are also amongst the most variable and that some types of feedback are more powerful than others. The recent resurgence of interest in the use of feedback provides us with a welcome opportunity to further identify factors that make it effective and revisit some fundamental questions such as the nature and purpose of feedback, how it's different at different levels of processing and learning, and how it interacts with the attributes of the learner.

It is usually not a very fast process towards that goal, but step by step certain obligations and agreements are made with the student: what must be done on student's part, what the teacher can do in that sense, and then there is a general agreement, and then according to the possibilities the certain discussions are and where I agree with the student. R19

As part of the broader visual learning approach the feedback is best understood as an aim to reduce the 'gap' between where a student 'is' and where they are 'meant to be' (Hattie, 2012a). As such, feedback is information given to the learner and/or the teacher about the learner's performance relative to learning goals. It should aim to, and be capable of producing improvement in students' learning. Feedback redirects or refocuses either the teacher's or the learner's actions to achieve a goal, by aligning effort and activity with an outcome. It can be about the learning activity itself, about the process of activity, about the student's management of their learning or self-regulation or (the least effective) about them as individuals. This feedback can be verbal, written, or can be given through tests or via information technology. Moreover, it can come from a teacher, student, someone taking on a teaching role or from peers.

Individualised two-way feedback between the teacher and the student enables them to have a purposeful conversation about the student's duties and responsibilities regarding personal learning development and specific goals. To meet a student's needs, the teacher needs to get feedback as well as give feedback – it's a two-way street. When students have the chance to tell you what they need, they empower you to revise and rethink your instruction. Such two-way feedback puts students – instead of the curriculum – in the driving seat. For feedback to be received and have a positive effect we need transparent and challenging goals (learning intentions), an understanding of a student's current status relative to those goals (prior knowledge and achievement), transparent and mutual understanding of the expected standard (success criteria) and the commitment and skills of both teachers and students to invest in and implement strategies and understanding relative to such learning intentions and the criteria for success. In considering the multidimensional nature of feedback Hattie (2012b) proposes an accessible 'model of feedback' that outlines a range of dimensions therein relating to the: focus of feedback (i.e. Where am I going? How am I going? and Where to next?); levels of feedback (i.e. task, process, self-regulation, self); frequency of feedback and types of feedback (e.g. disconfirmation vs. confirmation, student error, rapid formative feedback, prompts and cues). The model considers the dynamic between feedback and a student's attributes (e.g. personality, culture, peer relationships). This spotlight will further outline the focus and levels of feedback within Hattie's model – an additional spotlight will go on to further inform the remaining dimensions.

One of the best ways the teacher can help students understand an idea is by teaching them how to voice their questions as they acquire learning. This not only gives the teacher a chance to address areas students don't yet understand, but it also promotes rich possibilities for classroom discussion. Questions are an integral part of teaching, and encouraging guestions in the classroom needs to go beyond the awful 'hands up' approach if the teacher wants her/his students to feel safe asking them. Too often, building a space where questions are encouraged means making time for collaborative engagement is essential. Not only does this help students, but it will help the teacher, too, as s/he can see gaps in learning. Encouraging students to ask questions is about giving them tools to ask for assistance when needed. This comes later - as they're trying to implement the new concepts (Najam, 2023). The teachers adhere to the attitude that it is important for students in every subject to understand the usefulness of the acquired knowledge in everyday life, in practice. Therefore, students are encouraged to ask questions that arise from the need to know and/or understand the life meaning of the knowledge acquired during the lesson, i.e. applicability, use, contribution to problem solving. Students are taught to see the 'space' of an emerging problem, which is possible in any context or situation.

I tell students all the time, they even sometimes ask me first, what's the point? And what is the meaning of that? Because it is through that finding of meaning that we, no matter what completely philosophical utopian project he creates, we can still think about what is the practical meaning of it. And I actually think that we mostly create those things where we see, where there is an empty space or some kind of problem. R27

Experiential learning is the process of learning by doing and a part of meaningful learning. By engaging students in hands-on experiences and reflection, they are better able to connect theories and knowledge learnt in the classroom to real-world situations. Experiential learning opportunities exist in a variety of course- and non-course-based forms and may include community service, service-learning, undergraduate research, study abroad/away, and culminating experiences such as internships, student teaching, and capstone projects, to name a few (*Northern Illinois University Center for Innovative Teaching and Learning*, 2012). Teachers positively evaluate the application of the concept of experiential learning in teaching/learning practice when working with students in the classroom.

This is probably the most important stage of creating the meaning of learning, i.e. learning from experience. This is when children understand that they will be able to put it into practice while learning. They understand that it is important for future generations when they understand that it is important in the world at large. I think that it is through such questions that the meaning of learning exists and emerges. R29

When students participate in experiential education opportunities, they gain a better understanding of course material; a broader view of the world and an appreciation of community; insight into their own skills, interests, passions, and values; opportunities to collaborate with diverse organisations and people; positive professional practices and skill sets; the gratification of assisting in meeting community needs; self-confidence and leadership skills (*Northern Illinois University Center for Innovative Teaching and Learning*, 2012).

Learning by experience is an element of meaningful learning can help the student to earn skills and gain knowledge to succeed in her/his career. It can help the student determine what career path s/he might like to pursue and how to pursue it. If the student is considering experiential learning, s/he may be curious about its benefits and how s/he can find learning opportunities. Learning by experience, also known as experiential learning or experienced-based learning, means learning knowledge and skills through direct practice. This entails individuals reflecting on the experience they've had to identify new skills and industry knowledge that they can use in their professional role (Moore, 2010).

There are four components involved in the experiential learning cycle, including (Kolb, 1984):

- 1. Concrete experience: Professionals can learn by directly practising something they want to improve.
- 2. Reflective observation: After a direct experience, professionals may mentally review what they learnt.
- 3. Abstract conceptualisation: Considering the skills and knowledge they gained from an experience, professionals can plan ways to use them for specific duties of their role.
- 4. Active experimentation: Using their new skills and plans, professionals might try new experiences where they can refine what they've learnt.

Teachers note that learning from experience provides opportunities for students not only to realise the importance of the applicability of knowledge and abilities in everyday life, but also to develop the understanding that they can contribute to sustainable life in the present and future, i.e. their progressive futuristic coherent thinking is being developed.

Cooperative learning skills are crucial for students' meaningful learning especially as globalisation and technological and communication advances continue to increase the quantity of accessible information and the need for collaboration. Cooperative learning opportunities aren't new learning tools, but they have never been more valuable than they are now. With less interpersonal contact and collaboration during remote learning, students spent more time in the digital world. The return to in-person classes gives the chance for cooperative learning to guide their brains' reconstruction and boost social and emotional cue awareness. To qualify as doing cooperative work, rather than individuals working in parallel in a group, students need each other to complete the task. Students are expected to participate in tasks that are clearly constructed and necessary for the group's success. The learning objectives are clear and connect to their interests, and students have prerequisite knowledge and know how to seek help when they need it. The inclusion of belonging to a group, where a student feels valued, builds resilience, social competence, empathy, and communication skills. The interactive and interdependent components of cooperative learning offer the emotional and interpersonal experiences that boost emotional awareness, judgment, critical analysis, flexible perspective taking, creative problem-solving, innovation, and goal-directed behaviour (Willis, 2021). According to teachers, students need to find the meaning of their own learning, so they encourage students to cooperate and learn from each other in everyday classroom learning. However, in finding meaning, cooperation between the teacher and the students, talking, and discussions play a key role.

<...> is the importance of cooperation, collaboration and communication with students. And if we talk to them about certain things, it's very important that they discover themselves through cooperation. R29

As students get positive feedback in their groups, they become more active and develop excellent communication skills. It's hard for teachers to give all students one-on-one guidance every day. Cooperative groups can minimise the student's reliance on teachers and enhance improved behaviour management, direct guidance, and progress feedback. Essential cognitive activities and interpersonal dynamics only happen when students promote each other's learning. Group members can discuss the concepts being learnt, orally explain how to tackle problems, connect present with past learning, and teach individual knowledge to teammates. Students become fully committed to each other and their mutual goals through face-to-face learning. The nature of cooperative learning creates interdependence and improves communication skills and emotional sharpness. The cooperative learning structure also gives the students full responsibility for conflict resolution and group decision-making. The best thing about cooperative learning is that it equips students with good interpersonal skills. It's more complex than individualistic or competitive learning because students engage concurrently in teamwork and task-work. Group members must know how to lead, build trust, manage conflicts, and make effective decisions.

Challenging or targeted conversations are cooperative learning opportunities that can teach everyone involved. The rewards exceed the risks if we prepare for the safety of all involved, including the teacher. Conversation is a personal act. In a professional context, this can be difficult and also rewarding. The teacher is personally invested in the experience of critical conversations - not necessarily on one side or the other of the topic. A fundamental component is to convey the benefits of these discussions. Students need to be able to turn to their teacher for support. They are developing their abilities to explore different, sometimes opposing, opinions and beliefs. Lack of experience requires a safe and well structured educational experience (Arao & Clemens, 2013). Teachers tend to follow the attitude that imparted and acquired knowledge and abilities during lessons are interpreted through targeted conversations between the teacher and students in the lessons. In order to make conversations inclusive, teachers use various media and draw students' attention to the content of listening, hearing, speaking. And the teacher purposefully connects it with the topic of the lesson and specific competences acquired by the students.

Trying with them to be on that show together, for example, after using the video, there are again many children in the class, practically 30 per cent, who can just reach that level and go to the final. It happens sometimes that it's a matter of luck. And then you can start talking with them about what knowledge means and what it means when you know something. When you are able to solve a problem, when you are able to find answers to interesting questions, what is needed for you to be able to do what? It's about such things. In fact, it is through conversations with children that the meaning of learning emerges, and they begin to understand it themselves, how it should all be done. R29

A great deal of work has been done to specify the kinds of tasks, accountability structures, and roles that help students collaborate well. In Johnson and Johnson's summary (1999) of forty years of research on cooperative learning, they identified five 'basic elements' of cooperation: positive interdependence, individual accountability, structures that promote face-to-face interaction, social skills, and group processing. A range of activity structures has been developed to support group work, from cooperative learning approaches where students are simply asked to help each other complete individually assigned traditional problem sets, to approaches where students are expected to collectively define projects and generate a single product that reflects the continued work of the entire group. Many approaches fall between these two extremes. Some approaches assign students to management (Cohen, 1994a, 1994b), conversational (O'Donnell, 2006), or intellectual roles in the group (Cornelius & Herrenkohl, 2004; White & Frederiksen, 2005). When designing cooperative group work, teachers should pay careful attention to various aspects of the work process and to the interaction among students. For example, Slavin (1991, 1996) argues that it is not enough to simply tell students to work together. They must have a reason to take part in one another's achievement. Teachers appreciate the cooperation of students and adhere to the attitude that such cooperation provides opportunities for students to get to know themselves and others, to learn from their own and others' experience by sharing it, transferring it and opening up to the experience of others. Teachers also notice their own learning opportunities when they observe cooperative students and discuss with them in the process. Here, one of the important moments is to raise the question of the meaning of learning – acquired knowledge and abilities.

That's learning to learn, the meaning of speaking. We actually talk a lot in class. What is the meaning? And why I need or don't need it at all. Maybe what my heart wants in the true sense of the word, because if I do things only because they are needed and I don't understand why to do what at all, the question would arise, and it is in those moments that you have to listen and learn along with them a lot things for myself. R14

A number of social processes have been identified that help explain why cooperative work supports individual learning. They include opportunities to do the following: share original insights (Bos, 1937), resolve differing perspectives through argument (Amigues, 1988; Phelps & Damon, 1989), explain one's thinking about a phenomenon (Webb et al., 1995), provide critique (Bos, 1937), and listen to explanations (Coleman, 1998; Shirouzu et al., 2002). Learning should be fun and can happen anywhere, here are some ideas to turn everyday moments into a learning adventure. Students' learning is made meaningful through examples of everyday life presented by the teacher, presenting arguments about the use of acquired knowledge in everyday life – at home, at work.

The meaning of learning is that we go through practical things. I say every time: we go through ourselves. For example, at home we cook soups. That's wonderful. We say: this is

the meaning, you will know how and what to cut, what to add, etc. You will know what a carrot is, for example, or not, you will know if you learn about carotenes. The ninth graders. And the twelfth graders will know something about the farm. This is already a project activity. R26

Personalised learning

Personalised learning is becoming a popular way for students to learn in the twenty-first century. Instead of everyone being taught the same lessons, personalised learning allows students to learn in the way that best suits their individual needs and interests. Personalised learning is an educational approach that tailors instruction to each individual student's unique learning needs, strengths, and interests. It is based on the idea that everyone learns differently, and can reach their full potential when teaching is tailored to the individual's specific needs, rather than following a one-size-fits-all approach. Personalised learning is an educational approach that aims to customise learning for each student's strengths, needs, skills, and interests. Each student gets a learning plan that's based on what they know and how they learn best.

Subcategory	Category
Motivating the student to learn through individualised tasks	Personalised learning
Individualised formation of learning goals	-
Individualised assessment of students' learning consistency	-

Tab. 8: Personalised learning: categories and subcategories

Personalised learning can involve a variety of instructional methods, including educational technology, but is primarily focused on creating personalised learning plans and providing hands-on learning experiences. Personalised learning plays an important role in helping the teacher make personal learning meaningful to students. It's about more than just making content available online and allowing them to access it whenever they want; it's about providing learners with a personalised learning path that guides them through the material at their own pace. It is a great way to engage students and help them stay motivated (Nahas, 2022). Personalised learning can be applied to any subject area and any language, and it works regardless of whether you are teaching kids or adults. Teachers motivate students to learn through personalised assignments: <...> one should observe her/his immediate environment, what he likes, and it is through that stimulation <...> to use the context s/he is familiar with <...> to engage and initiate. But you should not start from the highest point. <...> you may know animals well. How could we make digital graphics a classroom pet? Drag through the context. I think there are some better ways. And it affects students. R27

Personalised learning helps students move at their own pace, take initiative over their own education, and learn from each other. It also improves engagement, knowledge retention, and the ability to apply what they've learnt in a practical context. It's also important to consider how personalised learning benefits learners in other ways. For example, it increases engagement by allowing them to take part in discussions and activities that are relevant to their interests, which can improve their knowledge retention because they will be more likely to retain what they learn (Nahas, 2022). Teachers help students make sense of learning by working with them on personalised learning goals:

In our practice, this is the work of class leaders, where there is individual student progress and you have to discuss with each student, but you have to discover those learning goals, because I cannot set one goal for the class as a whole. It automatically looks by student. What s/he can do, where s/he can do it and how s/he can do it. R2

One learning goal for the whole class, according to teachers, is ineffective. Personalised assessment of students' learning consistency is acceptable to teachers. They realistically share experiences that it is time-consuming but effective. The student is not stressed, and the teacher sees the student's individual learning progress:

This is complicated. Because there are a lot of students and it is a very difficult situation for each one, but basically trying to pay attention to that student during the lesson, to see how they are doing, if they are taking those small steps towards the goal, if something changes. R2

Teacher creativity

The creativity of teachers is one of the key factors in helping students to perceive the meaning of learning. The teacher's creativity incorporates her/his intelligence, abilities, skills, qualities, and professionalism.

Subcategory	Category
Integrating media into students' learning to learn	Teacher
Contextual and association-based teaching of students to learn	creativity
A teacher's everyday learning through inquiry in the name of stu- dent motivation	-
Use of interactive training	_
Experiential teaching/learning	_

Tab. 9: Teacher creativity: categories and subcategories

Learning in context can help students appreciate the relevance of disciplinary knowledge and skills, increasing their motivation and engagement. Meanwhile, learning that takes place outside the context in which knowledge and skills are to be applied can limit or reduce a student's capacity to transfer and use that knowledge in the real world or in a new environment. While contextualising learning can present challenges for educators and designers of learning experiences, leveraging context can enhance the learning experience and learner outcomes. The principle of 'Contextual learning' explores how bringing learning into context can make the experience more meaningful to students. As part of the process of exploring content across different contexts and seeing how it is relevant, a contextualised learning experience prepares students for life outside the classroom. Students start to conceptualise how the knowledge they have gained during their studies is relevant to their intended profession, the workplace, other aspects of life, and the world more broadly. Contextualising learning in this way allows a more seamless transition from higher education to the world of work. Putting learning in context can make the learning experience more engaging and internally motivating for the student. This in turn can connect the learning experience more closely to life outside the classroom, thus making it relevant and memorable and reducing difficulty when applying new concepts to unfamiliar situations (Osika et al., 2022). Teachers use contextual learning for students to help them experience and make sense of learning:

Let's say I'm trying to learn that. There are theories and I once tried to present ways of learning to learn, how to connect certain contexts that I learn with existing knowledge.

Maybe if I'm learning some facts that are needed, then maybe the senses can be used. For example, a smell, a taste, maybe some image matches. It's just a question of how much they [students] take those techniques, the ones I try to give them. It's just the idea here that I'm really trying to give as much as I can, so to speak. R14

Teachers associate contexts, associations, senses and applied teaching methods with the topics of a particular subject. This helps students to contextualise and experience not only their learning process, but also learning subjects, topics, acquired knowledge and abilities.

Teachers use experiential learning and see its benefits in professional and student learning approaches. For students, teachers justify the meaningfulness of the topics of the learning subject, talk about the use of acquired knowledge and abilities, encouraging them to try, make mistakes or experience success and learn from experience. Teachers engage in students' experiential learning by demonstrating, asking questions, and at the same time reflecting on their teaching from a professional didactic perspective:

Another thing that works really well, and is highly encouraged, is the demonstration of usefulness. And where can I apply that message? And how do I apply that, right? If we, say, in a group activity, in an educational activity, we explore what leaves are like, then I also go outside as a pedagogue after that, because we still have a daily rhythm. R15

Experiential education is a teaching philosophy that informs many methodologies in which teachers purposefully engage with students in direct experience and focused reflection in order to increase knowledge, develop skills, clarify values, and develop students' capacity to contribute to their communities. Experiential education is related to interactive education, when the student's desire to learn, her/his curiosity, and involvement are awakened. For example, students work in groups, and the teacher creates a context in which students experience interactivity. Students are exposed to attractive learning tools, and learning materials are presented in an attractive way. In this way, students develop creativity, logical thinking, and sociability:

All kinds of tools <...> interactive alternatives that arouse the child's curiosity, are tools that are attractive to the child, the material is presented in an attractive way. There is more context creation, surrounding things. The essential things are that encouragement to go, reinforcement, showing that you are on the right path; go on or not and that testimony will show what I will be able to do with that knowledge. I think these are the essentials. R15

The teacher's support and reinforcement play a very important role. However, teacher support is rational – based on daily learning from contexts, situations, experiences, i.e. by researching and through this finding arguments and ways of motivation for students to learn:

I am an English teacher, it is not difficult to motivate students, why is it necessary to learn English? Although recently, when students come to really hear English, there is a lot of it everywhere, sometimes we still need to find new tools to motivate them, that not only speaking competence needs to be improved, but also writing competence and more everyday words need to be learnt. R28

A teacher's didactic accuracy

Meaningful learning is promoted by actively engaging students to learn by doing. Learning by doing is a theory that places heavy emphasis on student engagement and is a hands-on, task-oriented, process to education (Morris, 2019). The theory refers to the process in which students actively participate in more practical and imaginative ways of learning. This process distinguishes itself from other learning approaches as it provides many pedagogical advantages to more traditional learning styles, such those which privilege inert knowledge (Lesgold & Nahemow, 2001). Learning-by-doing is related to other types of learning such as adventure learning, action learning, cooperative learning, experiential learning, peer learning, service-learning, and situated learning.

Subcategory	Category
Developing student independence by monitoring learning progress	Teacher's didactic accuracy
Empowering students through an enabling environment to solve problems	
Student learning together	_
Teaching based on practical life evidence	_
The use of scientific knowledge in everyday life is based on teaching	_
Integral education	

Tab. 10: Teacher's didactic accuracy: categories and subcategories

After every hands-on learning activity, encourage students to reflect on the experience and process they used to create their own understanding. Here are some examples of hands-on learning activities: group work, open-ended discussion activities, outdoor education, experiments, field trips, projects. onsite, the teacher acts more like a facilitator and allows the students to take control of assignments. Students engage in solo or group projects at home, then write or record their reflections on the process (Ramassa, 2023).

A teacher's didactic accuracy remains an essential professional tool in helping students to understand the meaning of learning. Through didactic purposefulness, the teacher contributes to the development of students' independence by monitoring their learning progress, engaging students through the environment and enabling them to solve problems, bringing students together for learning together, implementing teaching based on practical life evidence in the classroom, proving to students the use of scientific knowledge in everyday life, implementing integral teaching.

The teacher purposefully applies the methodology of independent learning. In the first test, the new material is developed together with the student, and after that the responsibility for independent learning is left to the student. When presenting the learnt material to the teacher, the student evaluates it and opens up to the teacher's observations. In this way, the student's responsibility for independent learning is developed:

I try like this: they play me, I see, I say, this is wrong. We pass. I don't know whether they understand or not, but it is their task to do everything on their own. And then the next lesson comes, they become independent. We then look at what they did and what they didn't. If it doesn't work out, we look at something again, but I always try to move on. R13

Teachers believe that it makes sense to engage the student through the home environment by using terminology that is meaningful to the actualities of the students' lives, talking about relevant topics. This means that the interpretation of the subjects of the subject must be connected with the problematic field and context of students' everyday life. Then students consciously learn, reflect, get involved in learning:

To engage the student through her/his environment, the home environment. Through myself, because, for example, in adolescence, students are very fond of cosmetics, if we are talking about girls, and they are led astray when you say 'beauty'. It is these topics that excite students. Boys, for example, if we are in order in terms of sexuality, well, maybe not so much with beauty, but they like technology more, and if we say that it is not the teacher who comes with the topic, but the student who will come and we will come from the problematic question to exactly this topic and then reflect. R26

Teachers purposefully gather students for learning together in groups, teams. According to them, students' learning together provides opportunities for them to understand subject topics through life experiences sharing case studies, discussions, solving tasks and making decisions. Teachers say that learning together with students is bringing them closer to life:

First of all, it is good when we all learn together. I really emphasise, at least I do, the importance of what they learn, where it will be applied in real life, because I remember an example from my own experience at school when we were learning mathematics. <...> R3

Teachers put a lot of effort into motivating students to learn by connecting subject topics with their applications in everyday life. Such reasoning is inseparable from the teacher's creativity, because it forces the teacher to learn from experience every day, observe, talk with students, raise questions and encourage students to answer them, discuss them:

I try to personalise with the connection of life through various activities. And as far as what I do in my own activities, in the learning process I link each lesson to actualise that this is important for us in life. And in the end, I actualise with life that maybe somewhere you will need to leave and you will need to be told somehow whether it will work out this way or that way. More generally, according to the students, I help to motivate them so that they discover the meaning of learning, and it is important for the class teacher <...> we talked with the children, especially when some subjects were not successful and there was definitely no motivation. I was trying to help you discover this, and why is it important here, why should you still learn? We were just trying to find a connection to life that we could use. And we tried this through such questions and they said that I would not really use it or that I would not need it. Well, it wasn't very easy for me to convince him that there must be some kind of law of physics, but then I remembered Newton when an apple fell on his head. R28

We used to have more free lessons to popularise mathematics. I started to tell my fifth graders about the fact that what they are doing now, how it develops into more complex concepts of mathematics and where it is applicable. It's just, well, when they surf the Internet that there are just vectors, well, vectors are everything and then they understand these things more, maybe it doesn't end with solving math problems. R5

Teachers realise that learning as a process is not easy for either students or adults, so they demonstrate empathic understanding to students. Therefore, examples of the everyday use of scientific knowledge have an impact on the meaningfulness of students' learning:

It seems to me that basically, since my research is related to this, I know that the change is not to say that learning is easy, because it really is not. What is happening to us is complicated. I didn't try to tell the students that, oh, the math here is very easy, and you will understand it very easily. I used to say it's not complicated. That it makes sense because we're behind the one who makes things and, and people who do math, they also make certain things in life that you use. Because mathematics is a subject that I am thankful for, where a lot of what we use in life is based on just optimisation, calculations. It's to show them that, because maybe sometimes you don't understand that just walking into a store and seeing the layout of the goods, that it's calculated mathematically and why it's done that way, again, it's some equations to solve, because when you're just looking at the problem, it looks like maybe very reduced version. They are really like that, well, we used to try to develop a discussion topic with them. R5 Integral learning, according to teachers, motivates students to learn, because the educational subject is presented to students through everyday life experiences, examples, cases, contexts, problems:

I really liked to tell my students, both formally and informally. When they asked about what mathematicians do, I really wanted to pay attention to that practical benefit, and on the other hand, I really liked historical subjects – mathematics because the first mathematicians were also philosophers and how they saw meaning in it, infinity, how they perceived even divinity in it in essence. This was more the case here for those older students who are concerned with existential questions, it also arose when mathematics is also really very related to those existential questions. R5

Integral education responds to the growing desire for learning that integrates all aspects of the person: cognitive, emotional, physical, social, cultural, and spiritual. It is about opening the mind, engaging the body, and freeing the spirit to see and be seen. It also more fully facilitates internal transformation, allowing one to reach their potential and put it to use in the world (Verma, 2008; Pal, 2019; Ashok, & Sindhuja, 2023).

Meaningful learning contains characteristics of intentional learning,¹ cooperative learning,² active learning,³ authentic learning⁴ and constructive learning.⁵

¹ Intentional learning initiates the behaviour to achieve the goal. It triggers the cognitive functions of the learner to acquire skills and knowledge attainment and application. It makes the consciousness in every learning process and aims for high quality of learning. In intentional learning the learner is serious and often involving a lot of action in a short period of time to learn difficult concepts (Kumar, 2023).

² Students, when they cooperate during learning with one another, gain more clarity and knowledge on that learning. Students will start to engage themselves and be able to cooperate in doing their tasks and activities with their friends. Co-operative learning improves affective outcomes. It helps students master traditional skills and knowledge as well as develop the creative and interactive skills (Kumar, 2023).

³ Meaningful learning requires active individual agency and conscious goal setting. Thus, processes that are self-directed, goal oriented, purposeful and immersive are essential. Learners are not passive listeners but play active roles in learning activities, actively manipulating objects and information and observing results from the learning activities (Kumar, 2023).

⁴ A characteristic of authentic learning experiences is that they are personally relevant to the learner and situated within a proper social context. Meaningful learning requires meaningful tasks that emerge from an authentic, or at least simulated, context or experience. Students engage in authentic tasks and problems rather than memorising abstract concepts and ideas; solving real-life problems. Authentic learning is related to the real world activities and complex problems (Kumar, 2023).

⁵ Constructivism is the theory that says learners construct knowledge rather than just passively take in information. As people experience the world and reflect upon those experiences, they build their own representations and incorporate new information into their pre-existing knowledge (schemas). Constructionist learning is the creation by learners of mental models to understand the world around them. Constructionism advocates student-centred, discovery learning where students use what they already know, to acquire more knowledge. Constructivism is an important learning theory that educators use to help their students learn. Constructions with the students learning theory that educators use to help their students learn.

Our research adds personalised learning⁶ to the description of meaningful learning. Both teachers and students get opportunities to interact with experts in a subject. It gives them useful exposure in terms of learning new field thing. It provides students with motivation and inspiration for reaching the top in the learning. The teacher has to maintain a conducive environment in the classroom and provide students with experiences through their own experiences. To promote meaningful learning in the classrooms, teachers should help students to regulate their own emotions and motivation, categorise and label students according to their performance and make ability-grouping, promote dialogue and discussions among students to build multiple perspectives, and not ignore diversity in the classroom by implementing the personalised learning the classroom.

tivism is based on the idea that people actively construct or make their own knowledge, and that reality is determined by your experiences as a learner. Constructivism can help students take a more active role in their learning, giving them a forum to ask questions and take part in discussions about a subject presented to them. This is opposed to a more passive approach where students are expected to listen to a lecture and absorb information (Cakir, 2008).

6 Personalised learning is an educational approach that aims to customise learning for each student's strengths, needs, skills, and interests. Each student gets a learning plan that's based on what they know and how they learn best. The term personalised learning, or personalisation, refers to a diverse variety of educational programs, learning experiences, instructional approaches, and academic-support strategies that are intended to address the distinct learning needs, interests, aspirations, or cultural backgrounds of individual students. Personalised learning is generally seen as an alternative to so-called "one-size-fits-all" approaches to schooling in which teachers may, for example, provide all students in a given course with the same type of instruction, the same assignments, and the same assessments with little variation or modification from student to student. Personalised learning is intended to facilitate the academic success of each student by first determining the learning needs, interests, and aspirations of individual students, and then providing learning experiences that are customised - to a greater or lesser extent - for each student. To accomplish this goal, schools, teachers, guidance counselours, and other educational specialists may employ a wide variety of educational methods, from intentionally cultivating strong and trusting student-adult relationships to modifying assignments and instructional strategies in the classroom to entirely redesigning the ways in which students are grouped and taught in a school (The Glossary of Education Reform, 2023).
References

- Amigues, R. (1988). Peer interaction in solving physics problems: Sociocognitive confrontation and metacognitive aspects. Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 45(1), 141–158. https:// psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1016/0022-0965(88)90054-9
- Arao, B., & Clemens, K. (2013). From Safe Spaces To Brave Spaces: A New Way To Frame Dialogue Around Diversity And Social Justice. The Art Of Effective Facilitation: Reflections From Social Justice Educators. Ed. L. M. Landreman. Herndon, VA: Stylus Publishing.
- Ashok, H. S., & Sindhuja, C. V. (2023). Application of integral education scope, challenges and opportunities. International Journal of Education, Technology and Science, 3(1), 56–73.
- Bos, M. C. (1937). Experimental study of productive collaboration. Acta Psychologica, 3, 315–426. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1016/S0001-6918(01)90007-1
- Cakir, M. (2008). Constructivist Approaches to Learning in Science and Their Implications for Science Pedagogy: A Literature Review. International Journal of Environmental & Science Education, 3(4), 193–206. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ894860.pdf
- Cohen, E. G. (1994a). Designing Groupwork: Strategies for Heterogeneous Classrooms. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Cohen, E. G. (1994b). Restructuring the classroom: Conditions for productive small groups. Review of Educational Research, 64(1), 1–35.
- Coleman, E. B. (1998). Using explanatory knowledge during collaborative problem solving in science. Journal of the Learning Sciences, 7(3–4), 387–427. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1207/s15327809jls0703&4_5
- Cornelius, L. L., & Herrenkohl, L. R. (2004). Power in the classroom: How the classroom environment shapes students' relationships with each other and with concepts. Cognition and Instruction, 22(4), 467–498. doi: 10.1207/s1532690Xci2204_4
- Discovery learning: what it is and how to apply its theory (2023). https://smowl.net/en/blog/ discovery-learning/
- Hattie (2012a). Visible Learning for Teachers: Maximizing Impact on Learning. NYC: Taylor & Francis.
- Hattie (2012b). Know Thy Impact. Educational Leadership: Feedback for learning, 70(1), 18–23. https://ascd.org/el/articles/know-thy-impact
- How To Learn From Your Mistakes and Achieve Better Results (2023). Indeed. https://www.indeed.com/career-advice/career-development/learn-from-the-mistakes
- Katz, S. (2021). Co-creating with students: practical considerations and approaches. Times Higher Education. https://www.timeshighereducation.com/campus/cocreating-students-practical-considerations-and-approaches
- Kolb, D. A. (1984). Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Kumar, A. A. (2023). Meaningful learning among under graduate student-teachers. International Journal of Education, 11(2), 74–82. doi: https://doi.org/10.34293/education.v11i2.5828
- Lesgold, A., & Nahemow, M. (2001). Tools to assist learning by doing: Achieving and assessing efficient technology for learning. Cognition and instruction: twenty-five years of progress. Milton Park, Abingdon: Taylor & Francis Group.
- Moore, D. T. (2010). Forms and Issues in Experiential Learning. In D. M. Qualters (Ed.) New Directions for Teaching and Learning (pp. 3–13). New York City, NY: Wiley.
- Morris, T. H. (2019). Experiential learning a systematic review and revision of Kolb's model. Interactive Learning Environments, 28(8), 1064–1077. doi: 10.1080/10494820.2019.1570279
- Nahas, E. (2022). Impact Of Personalized Learning. eLearning Industry. https://elearningindustry. com/impact-of-personalized-learning
- Najam, F. (2023). Encouraging Students to Ask Questions. https://www.linkedin.com/pulse/encouraging-students-ask-questions-farah-najam/

- Newmann, F. M. (1996). Authentic Achievement: Restructuring Schools for Intellectual Quality. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Newmann, F. M., Marks, H. M., & Gamoran, A. (1995). Authentic pedagogy: standards that boost student performance. Issues in Restructuring Schools, 8, 1–4. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ ED390906.pdf
- Northern Illinois University Center for Innovative Teaching and Learning (2012). Experiential learning. In Instructional guide for university faculty and teaching assistants. https://www.niu.edu/citl/resources/guides/instructional-guide
- O'Donnell, A. M. (2006). The role of peers and group learning. In P. Alexander & P. Winne (Eds.). Handbook of Educational Psychology (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Osika, A., MacMahon, S., Lodge, J. M., & Carroll, A. (2022). Contextual learning: linking learning to the real world. Times Higher Education. The University of Queensland. https://www.timeshighereducation.com/campus/contextual-learning-linking-learning-real-world
- Pal, Ch. (2019). Aurobindonean Approach to seven principles of integral education. Journal of Emerging Technologies and Innovative Research (JETIR), 6(1), 1302–1307. https://www.jetir. org/view?paper=JETIR1901F78
- Phelps, E., & Damon, W. (1989). Problem solving with equals: Peer collaboration as a context for learning mathematics and spatial concepts. Journal of Educational Psychology, 81(4), 639–646. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0022-0663.81.4.639
- Ramassa, L. (2023). Promoting Meaningful Learning Inside And Outside The Classroom. eLearning Industry. https://elearningindustry.com/promoting-meaningful-learning-inside-and-outside-the-classroom
- Shirouzu, H., Miyake, N., & Masukawa, H. (2002). Cognitively active externalization for situated reflection. Cognitive Science, 26(4), 469–501. https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/ abs/pii/S0364021302000666
- Slavin, R. (1991). Synthesis of research on cooperative learning. Educational Leadership, 71–82. https://files.ascd.org/staticfiles/ascd/pdf/journals/ed_lead/el_199102_slavin.pdf
- Slavin, R. E. (1996). Research on cooperative learning and achievement: What we know, what we need to know. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 21(1), 43–69. https://psycnet.apa.org/ doi/10.1006/ceps.1996.0004
- The Glossary of Education Reform (2023). Personalized Learning. Great Schools Partnership is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License. https://www.edglossary.org/personalized-learning/
- Verma, N. (2008). Thiruvananthapuram: Department of Education, A-study-of-Sri Aurobindo's integral education and-its effectiveness in terrms of cognitive learning and non-cognitive learning outcomes at the secondary school level. Doctoral Thesis. Jhansi: Institute of Education, Bundelkhand University. http://hdl.handle.net/10603/10909
- Webb, N. M., Troper, J. D., & Fall, R. (1995). Constructive activity and learning in collaborative small groups. Journal of Educational Psychology, 87(3), 406–423. https://psycnet.apa.org/ doi/10.1037/0022-0663.87.3.406
- White, B., & Frederiksen, J. (2005). A theoretical framework and approach for fostering metacognitive development. Educational Psychologist, 40(4), 211–223. https://psycnet.apa.org/ doi/10.1207/s15326985ep4004_3
- Willis, J.(2021). How Cooperative Learning Can Benefit Students This Year. Edutopia. https://www.edutopia.org/article/how-cooperative-learning-can-benefit-students-year/
- Wurdinger, D. D., & Carlson, J. A. (2010). Teaching for Experiential Learning: Five Approaches that Work. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Education.

9 Teacher Leadership In Promoting Student Motivation To Learn

Teacher leadership can be conceptualised as an intentional and relational action aimed to guide others towards a shared goal: to improve educational practice (Espinosa & González, 2023). Improving teaching and learning is the purpose and focus of teacher leadership, first and foremost for the benefit of the students (Brooks et al., 2019). Although the influence between teacher and learner is reciprocal, in the teaching-learning process it is the teacher, not the learner, who takes on the role of the leader, creating a relational asymmetry between the two (Espinosa & González, 2023). This personal relationship between the teacher and student can be seen as an educational alliance for learning, with the biblical alliance serving as a reference point (Harris, 2002). Pedagogical leadership influences student learning mediated by teaching practice; learning not only cognitive but affective and linked to social behaviour and values (Schott et al., 2020). Teacher leadership in the classroom is associated with the formation of the value and character of the students (Susanto et al., 2019), with the student commitment to ethical goodness (Prickett, 2016). Teaching or pedagogical leadership can be characterised by the teacher's ability to develop a good relationship for student learning (Lumpkin et al., 2014). Teacher-student relationships is critical for students' emotional well-being, motivation, and academic success (Pekrun et al., 2017).

A collaborative leadership culture is more than merely leading a scheduled meeting, sharing lessons, or sitting through common planning-time sessions taking notes. Collaborative leadership requires transparency, honesty, integrity, dependability, accountability, and educators' commitment to shared goals (Matthew, 2018).

Motivation is not only important in its own right; it is also an important predictor of learning and achievement. Students who are more motivated to learn persist longer, produce higher quality effort, learn more deeply, and perform better in classes and on standardised tests. Motivated students are much more likely to achieve their potential and find success. Motivation is an essential ingredient in effective teaching and learning. It not only yields more positive behaviour in students, but it also contributes to a greater sense of wellbeing. Understanding how to motivate children and young people in education is crucial, if we are to provide them with the best possible start in life. Motivation is what 'moves' us. It is the reason we do anything at all. For teachers, a lack of motivation has long been one of the most frustrating obstacles to student learning. While the concept of motivation may intuitively seem fairly simple, a rich research literature has developed as researchers have defined this concept in a number of ways. Social scientists and psychologists have approached the problem of motivation from a variety of different angles, and education researchers have adapted many of these ideas into the school context. While there is a great deal of overlap between motivation theories, researchers differ in their identification of the underlying belief systems leading to motivational variation. Some theorists emphasise belief in oneself and one's competency, others prioritise goal orientation, and a third group argues that the difficulty of the task shapes individual motivation. This resource will provide an introduction to various theories of motivation, explain the importance of motivation for learning, and outline several practical strategies that teachers can use to support and promote student motivation.

The teacher's leadership in the classroom is based on cooperation with the students in promoting students' motivation to learn:

• When the teacher and students solve problems that have arisen together on the basis of mutual dialogue:

I tried to find solutions together with older students. Those students who were written off, they had a lot of gaps, because they were a low-achieving class for many years, from which nothing would come. They had loopholes from ancient times, and they sometimes became clear to me, that we have not been learning this subject since some time ago. That's when we tried to explain with them how to learn at least that level, how what they imagine should be done in order for us to learn. R5

A student-teacher relationship in the classroom is a positive relationship between the teacher and the student in efforts to gain trust and respect from each other. This relationship may consist of getting to know your students better, providing choice and encouraging the students to become stronger learners everyday. By doing this teachers are showing respect to their students, valuing their individuality and being polite. Having a positive relationship with your students helps them become more successful in the classroom as well as makes your classroom a safe and welcoming environment for all (Christine et al., 2022). From a cognitive elaboration perspective (O'Donnell, 2006), interacting with others may encourage students to engage in cognitive restructuring, through which they restructure their own knowledge and understanding. This occurs when students elaborate on their thinking during conversations with others. Specifically, explaining the material to others may promote learning by encouraging the explainers to rehearse information, reorganise and clarify material, recognise their own misconceptions, to fill in gaps in their own understanding, to strengthen connections between new information and previously learnt information, to internalise and acquire new strategies and knowledge, and to develop new perspectives and understanding (Bargh & Schul, 1980).

In the process of formulating an explanation, students may think about the salient features of the problem and generate self-explanations that help them to internalise principles, to construct specific inference rules for solving the problem, and to repair imperfect mental models (Chi, 2000). This process may help them develop a better awareness of what they do and do not understand (Cooper, 1999). In addition, tailoring explanations to the difficulties of other students may push helpers to construct more elaborate conceptualisations than they would otherwise. Receiving explanations may help students to correct their misconceptions and to strengthen connections between new information and previous learning (Wittrock, 1990), as well as to bridge their previous knowledge to the new information (Rogoff, 1990). Giving and receiving non-elaborated help (such as the answer to a problem without any accompanying explanation of how to solve it), on the other hand, is expected to have fewer benefits, because it may involve less cognitive restructuring or clarifying on the part of the help-giver and may not enable help-receivers to correct their misconceptions or lack of understanding (Webb, 2009).

• Encouraging students' creativity as they learn to listen to each other's ideas: Children enthusiastically observe the work done by other students. When one used a balloon, another used a bottle, the third used a straw, the fourth used something else. And then you see that those answers and telling the students you see how it is, that there are no wrong answers. All the students can come up with, and it's very rare that they don't move that situation. Everyone comes up with one way or another. R29

The framework of achievement goal theory highlights personal and contextual aspects of goals, thus the learning environment in the classroom may form students' perceived goal orientation, and their goal orientation may generate learning behaviours and outcomes (Peng et al., 2013). Students' motivation here has the mediating effect of learning goal orientation in linking the creative learning environment and student creativity (Schuitema et al., 2014). Students learn in a group and classroom, interactions among each other are embedded in broader social networks. Then the ties among students within social networks improve the quality of information received (Hommes et al., 2012). It represent students' relationships with their teachers and classmates within the class environment (Chow & Chan, 2008), which make impact on students' learning outcomes. When students share their knowledge, they tend to utilise the knowledge-based resources in the classroom and after class to facilitate their learning activities (Yeh et al., 2012). Students' learning requires various types of knowledge and information (Amabile, 2012), thus improving students' learning is based on knowledge management, which involves the converting knowledge and creating new knowledge (Van Den Hooff & De Ridder, 2004), and the process of sharing relevant information, ideas, suggestions, and expertise with others (Bartol & Srivastava, 2002). The learning environment may directly boost students' motivation. A learning environment in class is characterised as valuing ideas, indicating that students are not only allowed but also encouraged to take sensible risks and make mistakes during the learning process (Mishra 2018). Therefore, students are supported in reaching their learning potential (Chan & Yuen, 2014). A learning environment in a classroom involves students' listening to each other's ideas, thoughts. Listening is often something we take for granted. It is common that people often hear what is being said, but hearing is a lot different to listening.

To listen, teachers need to make a conscious effort not to just hear what students are saying but to take it in, digest it and understand (Worthington, 2008). Not only does listening enhance a teacher's ability to understand better and make the teacher a better communicator, it also makes the experience of speaking to the teacher more enjoyable to students. Listening is an act of empathy, when the teacher is trying to see the world through student's eyes, and to understand her/his emotions (Petress, 1999). That's not going to happen if the teacher is judging the student as s/he is talking. The ability to properly listen can be influenced by a number of things that could be going on in teachers' own lives, or bad habits we have picked up (Willis, 2018). More than ever, it is easy to become distracted by something, or by teachers' own thoughts which disengages them from what is being said (Devito, 1995). Some of the reasons why teachers don't properly listen are: being wrapped up in their own thoughts, being distracted by something, the teacher has already formulated a response, or something conflicting with the student's opinion (Azmi et al., 2014).

Listening plays an integral part in communicating, and the differences from actively listening can be seen in multiple facets of our lives and development. Active listening helps to: learn and understand things better in a learning, social and professional environment, become better at socialising, build stronger relationships by making students feel valued, improve problem solving skills, and absorb information better (Canpolat et al., 2015).

• Encouraging students' creativity by providing them with opportunities to conduct experiments based on simulating real situations:

The enthusiasm of students is when the task is creative. When they need to use all their creativity to create some product or they move from the virtual environment, what con-

nects us, from the environment, makes that model into a small model, that is transformed the real space into the space where is modelling the situation itself. R29

An important part of learning creativity are experiments. Simple experiments, particularly hands-on experiments, have an important role. These experiments allow the creation of new and/or alternative experiments (Jeffrey & Craft, 2004). Experiments based on simulations help students develop the knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed for success in the world at large (De Jong et al., 2013): they provide a safe playing field for students to try new roles, skills, and responsibilities (Tomandl et al., 2015). Simulations have proven to be an important tool to developing many aspects of global competence. They motivate students through real-world, relevant events (Moore et al., 2013). Simulations also compel students to combine content knowledge with critical thinking and reasoning skills (Kirschner et al., 2006). Role-playing is an element of social experimentations with simulations within the classroom. Thus role-playing exercises may be part of the human condition. Experts believe that when children play, they often take on the role of someone older - often a parent or a professional. Child development specialists explain that this is simply a way for children to make sense of the world (Zoupidis et al., 2010). Practising different outcomes makes people, however young, understand variables, and makes them more comfortable in different situations (Lateef, 2010).

It may sound like a cliché, but role-playing exercises that have an international or global dimension help students find commonalities and respect differences. Working with unfamiliar partners or on international conflict resolutions also helps students understand the local-global connection, as well as delve into roots of tradition and conflict (Kilgour et al., 2015). Schools have used simulations for a long time. School newspapers and drama clubs, just to name two examples, mimic the practices of professional institutions as a way for students to learn how to strive for professional-level benchmarks (Campos et al., 2020).

• Encouraging students' learning to learn through self-selected tools for decision-making when performing tasks:

If you don't tell them what to take, there are many remedies. It is connected with the fact that there is the competence of being able to learn, because when you need to be able to choose, to choose a tool, to discover information about what it is, to be able to transfer from one situation to another. R29

In the world of work (industry, military), the term 'collaborative' usually means a group task in which no one member of the group can solve the task alone (Wagner, 2008). Collaborative problem solving involves two different constructs – problem solving and decision-making (Wagner, 2010). The assumption is that collaboration for a group task is essential because some problem-solving and decision-making tasks are too complex for an individual to work through alone or the solution will be improved from the joint capacities of a team (Schmitz & Winskel, 2008). People vary in the information, expertise, and experiences that they can bring to bear in order to jointly solve a particular problem. More specifically, collaborative problem solving requires that people share their resources and their strategies in order to reach a common goal via some sort of communication process (Mohammed & Dumville, 2001).

Whether in an individual or group task, the group can be either face-to-face or virtual. In both cases, some technology is often used to facilitate collaborative problem solving and decision-making. Generally, collaborative problem solving and decision-making have two main areas: the collaborative (e.g. communication or social aspects) and the knowledge or cognitive aspects (e.g. domain-specific problem-solving strategies) (Salas et al., 2008; Wildman et al., 2012). These two areas are often referred to as 'teamwork' and 'task-work' (West, 2000). The primary distinction between individual problem solving and collaborative problem solving is the social component in the context of a group task. This is composed of processes such as the need for communication, the exchange of ideas, and shared identification of the problem and its elements (Wooley et al., 2010).

• Providing opportunities for students to experience success in learning:

Enthusiasm for learning is probably recognised especially when the child experiences success, if the child does not experience that success constantly, then he no longer sees it. R2

It reminds us of the fact that, let's say, about the same result, if the child then managed to experience success, if you strengthen the child, then it also happens that there is a step back, if you can again, that's how it happens, there are often those failures. R2

Traditionally, a teacher in any discipline tells a student what is 'wrong' with their work and gives them reason to correct it. Often, those reasons are based within reward/punishment systems designed to make students focus on their failures (Henderson, 2023)). By definition, a student who needs 'special' education is failing in some way that a typical educational approach can't remedy (Galvis & Carvajal, 2022). So when a student is sent into the special education system, it's because of failure. Good teachers don't focus on their students' failures simply because there are too many of them (Alyahyan & Düştegör, 2020). Focusing on success allows them to inspire their students and motivate them (Galvis & Carvajal, 2022).

The fascinating thing about focusing on success is that lagging skills almost always come along for the ride. The teacher is aware of the lagging skills and takes them into account, but does not ask the student to focus on them (Hogh & Müller-Hilke, 2021). Focusing on success, it turns out, is a more effective way to teach all students. Focusing on success doesn't mean ignoring your students' mistakes, but it does mean appreciating their successes and motivating them to do more (Henderson, 2023).

State-mandated standards and curriculum can give parents the false impression that their student should always achieve in the centre of some designated 'typical' student (Chung-Jen Wang & Hsin-Yun Hsieh, 2022). The truth is, all students learn at different rates. Focusing on success allows students with lagging skills to feel motivated and successful in their areas of strength (Alyahyan & Düştegör, 2020). Focusing on success doesn't mean giving students empty praise (Hogh & Müller-Hilke, 2021). And it doesn't mean ignoring their mistakes and lagging skills. It does mean giving them the energising feeling of making positive forward motion. And that's what learning is all about (Chung-Jen Wang & Hsin-Yun Hsieh, 2022).

• Creating an atmosphere in which students experience the joy of learning: What was it like to ask about the meaning of learning before, if s/he no longer sees that meaning and the student needs to be given the opportunity to be happy, to receive some kind of assessment, and from that comes out, let's say, the same enthusiasm. R2

When we reached the goal that they set themselves, then, of course, they are very enthusiastic, very happy that they understand something, that they can do what they couldn't do before. Yes, it was just that most of the time they showed that they were happy. R5

The research on joy in learning is related to psychology, sociology and ethics. Joy can be understood in relation to desire and interest (Williams & Bauer, 2006), socio-emotional aspects (Sriprakash, 2009) and to entertainment (Kazanci & Okan, 2009) with the focus on how students are influenced by their will, ability, feelings and morals. Central aspects here are socio-emotional aspects, creativity and motivation (Kazanci & Okan, 2009). Meyer and Turner (2002) outline the emotions intertwine with the interaction in the classroom. The teachers' way of interacting with the students when giving instructions and the students' attitudes and behaviour were understood as important for the motivation to learn and experiencing the joy of learning.

Teachers showing their feelings and beliefs when giving instructions can also enhance students' motivation to learn and then children feel the joy of learning. The relationship between emotions, motivation and cognition is expressed in their research. Beliefs and attitudes seem to contribute to interactions between the teacher and students, and among students themselves in the classroom. Seifert (2004) is emphasised on the teacher's function of being supportive and helpful in the interaction with the student in order s/he would experience the joy of learning. In this way, the teacher can contribute to the student's self-confidence, and thereby stimulate motivation and learning. Tobin et al. (2013) draw attention to the dialogic relationship in the teacher-student interaction by focusing on content and words of conversations. Learning is stimulated when conversations flow through the involvement of both students and teachers and when characterised by humour. The study showed that students or teachers exercising power through making other actors passive spectators can counteract learning. The use of drama is cited as a means to elicit humour and laughter in teaching. However, the researchers emphasise that it is not the activity itself but the presence of laughter and joy that contributes to learning and a high guality of teaching (Crongvist, 2021). Meyer and Turner (2002) highlighted that teachers' values have an impact on relationships, feelings and learning. For example, justice is the basis for joy in learning (Ehrhardt-Madapathi et al., 2018). Erhardt-Madapathi et al. (2018) problematised the concept of justice, which can be understood in different ways. The findings about fairness in pedagogy and in the interaction between student child and teacher indicate that the experience of justice is subjective. Educational aspects of justice such as encouraging learning through appropriate tasks and relevant support can entail that the teacher must give more attention to students with a lower level of joy of learning. Thus students who are sensitive to justice aspects can feel unfairly treated, which affects their joy of learning.

• Encouraging students to reflect on personal learning:

If one time you are lucky, you experience success, sometimes you forget to praise or something else, because it happens or not at all, or you don't focus on that child, etc. It really happens that you have to go back, one step at a time. Well, in that sense, to remind you that it was like that and that it suited you, and you liked it. R2

Reflection deepens learning. The act of reflecting is one which causes us to make sense of what we've learnt, why we learnt it, and how that particular increment of learning took place. Moreover, reflection is about linking one increment of learning to the wider perspective of learning – heading towards seeing the bigger picture. Reflection is equally useful when our learning has been unsuccessful – in such cases indeed, reflection can often give us insights into what may have gone wrong with our learning, and how on a future occasion we might avoid now-known pitfalls. Most of all, however, it is increasingly recognised that reflection is an important transferable skill, and is much valued by all around us, in employment, as well as in life in general (Lucy, 2006). Reflection enables learners to generalise the main ideas, principles, and abstract concepts from experience (Kolb, 1984). The process of reflection includes debriefing and reframing to expand students' beliefs and understanding, using journaling as a form of reflection to help students develop conscious aware-

ness, and using prompts and feedback to guide students' reflection (Roskos, Vukelich, & Risko, 2001). Clark and Brennan (1991) thought that reflective dialogue can facilitate learners to create knowledge and generalise practical examples into explicit knowledge. In reflective dialogue, students 'integrate and generalise accepted arguments. They recapitulate actions and draw lessons from their experiences' (Schwarz, Dreyfus & Hershkowits 2004, p. 170), and help students draw conclusions. Knowing what you know and what you do not know is one of the most important skills a person can have. The many difficulties we have in ascertaining our own knowledge.

We are often overconfident in our understanding of material, biased in our self-assessment of knowledge, and blind to gaps in our knowledge (Dunlosky & Metcalfe, 2008). Flavell (1979), Kaplan et al. (2013) focus on the mental processes that influence understanding and memory. Based on this research, teachers should take pains to encourage students to reflect on and evaluate what they have learnt, processes falling under the umbrella term 'metacognition. Metacognition, is knowledge and cognition about cognitive phenomena consists of assessing task goals and requirements, evaluating the status of learning goals, planning a strategy, applying the strategy, and reflecting on and adjusting the strategy as needed (Flavell, 1979). In this definition, there are components to metacognition of which the key element is a reflection on one's own thinking processes. The more teachers help students reflect, the more likely students will become self-regulated learners using cognitive skills that will enhance many facets of life tried many different ways to foster metacognitive skills in the classroom (Major et al., 2016).

Training students to focus on their learning helps. Usually teachers concentrate on covering content in class and assume students should know how to study. To students, 'studying' often means rereading the textbook or notes, instead of practising the many activities encompassed under the metacognition umbrella. In general, students who are prompted to self-explain their learning, essentially unpacking the process of their own learning identifying barriers and insights, have greater knowledge gains than students who received no prompt (Azevedo & Cromley, 2004). Even something as easy to do as asking students to explain a concept from the readings to a classmate/neighbour, fosters metacognition (Dunlosky et al., 2013). There are many possible activities to choose from for addressing students' metacognition at a pedagogical level. In one of the most comprehensive reviews of study techniques, Dunlosky et al. (2013) rated the effectiveness of ten learning techniques most commonly found to influence learning. The researchers found that activities that helped self-reflection of knowledge showed the highest utility. One of the most useful activities was practice testing, also called practice retrieval, which forces students to assess what they know and do not know, consequently enhancing self-reflection.

• Creating an educational environment for students to experience the freedom of learning:

When students feel free, when they don't feel something, well stressed, you do your work very joyfully. This, I think, is what shows that they like it, and how, what kind of work do you respond to the most, I will second it here again, probably the experiential activity for themselves, when they can try something themselves. R3

The freedom for students to learn, explore, and challenge ideas while building and sharing their own opinions is the foundation of what is called academic freedom. The freedom to learn protects students from unfair treatment by instructors based on the student's opinions and beliefs (Daly, 2010). Freedom for students is necessary for effective learning of students for many reasons (Daly et al., 1995; Evans et al., 1995; Mitchell et al., 1997; Nelson, 2003; Misco & Patterson, 2007):

- Freedom to think and voice preferences: students need the freedom to share their thoughts about what they like and don't like, plus the freedom to speak up when something isn't working well or preferences aren't being met. If a class doesn't give students the freedom to express their thoughts and preferences, then they won't be able to do what's best for them.
- Choice of work: if students are expected to complete certain tasks without choice, then the tasks may become uninteresting or fall below the level of the student's skill set. The more freedom you give students when assigning their own work, the more likely they are to find something that is rewarding and meaningful for them.
- Freedom of movement: sometimes students need to move around during class to stay focused, remain calm, or prevent themselves from acting out inappropriately. If students aren't allowed freedom of movement, then they may become restless, begin misbehaving or become distracted more easily.
- Freedom to focus on topics of choice: students need the freedom to learn about what is interesting for them, rather than being forced to research or complete tasks which are outside their interests or skill sets. Imagine you had only one hour each week to play video games – wouldn't it be frustrating if that time were taken up with something you didn't really want to do?
- Freedom from bullying: sometimes students are bullied or harassed by other students. If they aren't able to leave the situation, they won't be able to learn effectively. Even if a teacher is supervising class, sometimes students bully each other when they feel safe, such as during independent work time, or when the teacher is helping another student.

- Freedom to think out loud: when students are asked to solve problems or come up with creative ideas of their own, they need the freedom to express themselves even if they make mistakes. Students need the space to experiment without fear of being ridiculed by others. If you had a problem and needed to solve it, wouldn't you want the freedom and encouragement to think out loud and express your ideas?
- Freedom from overwhelming work: if students are overwhelmed with tasks or assignments, then they may become stressed and frustrated. Even if a task isn't that difficult for them, they won't be able to focus on learning effectively when they are overwhelmed. If you were asked to do something which wasn't that difficult, but was simply too much or too long for you to complete in one night, wouldn't you want the freedom to prioritise and balance your workload?
- Freedom to make mistakes: students need the freedom to experiment with new skills without fearing they will be ridiculed by teachers or peers if they make a mistake. If students are afraid of making mistakes when learning new skills, then they won't feel like they can do their best work until after they've become comfortable with the skill. How do you think it would affect your learning performance if every time you made a mistake, your teacher yelled at you?
- Freedom to ask for help: if students don't feel like they can come to teachers when they're stuck on something, then learning won't be effective because the students won't get the guidance and support that is necessary for them to learn. Asking questions isn't a sign of weakness it's simply what all learners need to do to learn effectively.
- Freedom from over-testing: when students feel that they are being tested too much or too frequently, then this takes away from the time that should be used for learning and practising new skills which makes learning less effective because it's difficult to recall everything a student has been tested on using rote memory. If students were frequently tested on the material, then they would need to spend time reviewing that information rather than learning new things, making it difficult for them to learn effectively.
- Supporting students' learning initiatives:

Sometimes I think that those activities, as I mentioned, don't have to be very complicated either. For example, we had a topic about speed and about looks about speed and somehow there was such a gap of time that we ended up earlier than planned. Didn't want them to fool around there. We decided to do this, I say: 'Ok, let's take a piece of paper, fold the airplane and verbally let the one fly faster'. Well, let's make such a competition. The next day, there was a camp, they say: 'Teacher, we can do it again today'. They really liked it (he speaks with great enthusiasm), but the point is that if he liked this one at all, but that they started to see whose plane flies most likely the way he folded it here. 'You can teach me how to fold here, how you bend, because I see yours is better than mine'. And they also started to cooperate. Started learning eventually. But this is about the one who starts to fly faster, isn't it? It's just that they got really hooked, even though there was such a ten-minute activity to keep them busy, it really worked out. R3

Creating a supportive and understanding learning environment for student initiatives is particularly important when discussion activities deal with sensitive issues in relation to mental health and wellbeing. In order to provide a safe and engaging learning environment for students, it is important for teachers to (Heflin & Macaluso, 2021):

- collaborate with students to develop a group agreement that sets the parameters for class discussions;
- reflect on their own role in discussions acting as a facilitator of the conversation to help to generate many viewpoints;
- value all student contributions and make this known;
- use a range of questioning techniques which open up discussion rather than trying to get to a quick right answer;
- recognise that some students may not feel comfortable sharing;
- explore ways of dealing with this such as using think, pair, share activities;
- explore ways to ensure that all students get an opportunity to speak.
- Creating an atmosphere of experimentation for students in learning:

Sometimes without much planning and thinking, sometimes you manage to get them very interested. And sometimes I need to plan, prepare, but that's not what I like the most, as far as I can tell, the most interesting thing for all children is experiments. This is the magic word. Only fairy experiments. They are insanely willing. It happens to be the cosmos at all and the words are endlessly wanting there. Those experiments are such that I changed the colours there. They pull out their phones there, start taking pictures, filming, saying: 'I want to show my friends here'. You can see that it really worked and they like it very much. R3

Curiosity and experimentation are essential skills for learning, creativity, and problem-solving. They help students explore new ideas, test different approaches, and discover new possibilities.

• One of the simplest and most effective ways to foster curiosity and experimentation is to ask open-ended questions that invite students to think, wonder, and share their opinions. Open-ended questions are those that cannot be answered with a yes or no, or with a single word or fact. They require students to use their imagination, reasoning, and prior knowledge to respond (McDonald, 2019).

- The other way to foster curiosity and experimentation is to provide students with choices and challenges that allow them to exercise their autonomy, creativity, and problem-solving skills. Choices and challenges are opportunities for students to make decisions, express their preferences, and take risks (Atsbury, 2016).
- A third way to foster curiosity and experimentation is for the teacher to model these skills. Students learn by observing and imitating others, especially those they look up to and trust. By showing the teacher's own curiosity and experimentation, you can inspire and influence students to do the same (Li & Wong, 2018).
- A fourth way to foster curiosity and experimentation is to celebrate these skills as positive and desirable outcomes of learning. Students need to feel recognised, appreciated, and encouraged for their curiosity and experimentation, not just for their performance or results. By celebrating these skills, teacher can reinforce their importance, boost students' confidence, and foster a growth mindset.
- A fifth way to foster curiosity and experimentation is to create a safe and supportive environment that allows students to express themselves, make mistakes, and learn from others. Students need to feel comfortable, respected, and valued for their curiosity and experimentation, not judged, criticised, or discouraged.

By creating a safe and supportive environment, a teacher can reduce students' fear of failure, increase their willingness to take risks, and enhance their collaboration and communication skills (McDonald, 2019). A sixth way to foster curiosity and experimentation is to involve students in real-world problems that are relevant, meaningful, and engaging for them.

Real-world problems are those that connect to students' lives, interests, or experiences, or that address current issues or challenges in the world. They require students to apply their curiosity and experimentation skills to find solutions that are effective, ethical, and sustainable (Li & Wong, 2018).

Lessons that incorporate experimentation and student choice can transform the learning experience for students. In these lessons students grapple with complex tasks and set their own goals, and in doing so, develop important transferable skills like time management and how to work well with a team, as well as develop problem-solving strategies. They also learn about the importance of self-reflection, grit, and continued exploration based on their findings (Magee & DeWald, 2018). • Encouraging students' courage in learning:

I don't know the other correct answers, how to do yet how to solve situations there, but basically you see those eyes, really shining eyes, and let's say, well, the questions that arise and, for example, here I say, what was with the same podcasts. R14

Courage is a daily practice, especially in the classroom. Courage is confidently acting in accordance to your beliefs, despite fear, difficulty, or opposition. That can seem like a heavy notion for a classroom full of students, but it's incredibly relevant as students grow into young adults. Teaching students to have courage in the classroom not only increases engagement and academic achievement, but it also helps students learn how to handle adversity. A teacher may not think that students handle many adversities, but they do – they try new things every day at school. The teacher can effectively inspire courage in the classroom by teaching students what it means to be courageous and what it looks like in real-life situations (Dunagan, 2019).

Courage does not need to be a big affair, it can be as small as raising the hand to ask a question. Sometimes courage is quiet, meaning there is not always an applause at the end. It is essential for teachers and parents to encourage, recognise, and celebrate when students show courage, because they might not realise they're doing it. Students also need to learn how to voice their opinions and respectfully disagree with others, which can come in handy when the time comes for them to stick up for what they believe in (Martin, 2011). Teaching courage to students can be done in a variety of ways. One way is to share stories of people who have faced challenges and overcome them. This can help students see that courage is not about being fearless, but about taking action even when we are afraid.

Another way to teach courage is to provide opportunities for students to practise it. This could involve setting up mock challenges or 'courageous' tasks for students to complete. As they work through these tasks, they can reflect on what they felt and why they were successful. Finally, it is important to encourage students to be compassionate towards others. When we see someone else facing a challenge, we can offer them support and understanding. This helps create a community of courage that can inspire and encourage everyone (Birden, 2020).

• Rewarding students for learning:

When they receive an award. The other one also works very well when there is some kind of competition and I come there, for example, what kind of bag is there, what kind of awards are there. There is especially a medal or something, so here it is and they go like this, we say, just don't blow your nose. This is recognition. A modern student needs the visual forms in order something to feel, touch. R15 In educational settings, rewarding has been known as a way to improve student performance and motivation (Baranek, 1996). For example, a teacher may give a student a medal for getting the highest score in an examination. In another aspect, rewards are used to promote and manage behaviour and learning. For example, a teacher may give a student a treat for entering the classroom quietly in the hope that this will increase the chances that the student will enter the room quietly next time.

However, many of these rewards used in classrooms are only delivered to the students who have the highest achievement or ranking, who always win games and classroom activity competitions, and who achieve academic success in the classroom. When giving rewards focuses almost solely on these groups of students, it may adversely affect other students' learning. The other students are probably demotivated when rewards are not used in effective ways. Therefore, 'effective rewarding' is considered as an essential tool to gain motivation and a key role to drive and increase students' motivation and development in learning and it can lead students to have positive and desirable behaviour in the classroom (Ching, 2012).

Rewards are normally referred to as any contingency that may deliver a consequence such as an activity, event, or any object that may be associated with an increase in the future likelihood of a defined behaviour in similar situations In the field of behaviourism, rewarding was initially shown and developed by B.F. Skinner in the 1950s. The theory works on the premise that if reinforcement is delivered after a certain behaviour is performed, then the strength of the behaviour is increased (Hulac et al., 2016). In other words, reinforcement is any stimulus given after a behaviour that increases the chance of the behaviour recurring. For example, many teachers use the principles of operant conditioning when they give out stickers, treats, and praise. Moreover, rewards in the field of language teaching and learning were discussed in the sense of learner motivation theories. In the field of motivation, extrinsic motivation occurs when a person completes an activity because it leads to getting an external reward.

A student who is promised a trip to the movies after cleaning her/his room is said to be extrinsically motivated. Generally, the majority of rewards given in the classroom are extrinsic motivators, however, students will learn most when they are engaged by intrinsic motivation. The students who are intrinsically motivated show a number of behaviours that allow them to perform accordingly with their academic abilities (Payne, 2015). For example, students who are intrinsically motivated become involved in a task and get a feeling of enjoyment (Arkoosh et al., 2009).

However, researchers are concerned about the extent to which extrinsic rewards could decrease intrinsically motivated behaviour when rewards are removed. Receptivity to self-development is increased by teaching people constructive thought processes and by highlighting the value of its characteristics. One characteristic is discussed as goal orientation. This aspect affects how students perceive the goal setting of the class. Goal orientations are individual, trait-like differences that influence motivation and classroom achievement in students and adults (Baranek, 1996).

The use of rewards may motivate students to achieve for an individual reason which impacts the way they engage in and respond to their learning situations. For example, students focus on being rewarded while performing important tasks until they are completed, basing one's actions on clearly defined goals, and starting and finishing tasks in a timely fashion. So, they do not give up easily to accomplish a goal, especially when the goal is important to their identity or sense of self-worth. This will lead to the internalisation of the desire for positive consequences. Thus, external goals are internalised, and behaviour is self-determined. People will be intrinsically motivated when they have a sense of self-competence and they believe that they control their own learning and behaviours (Ching, 2012). Perhaps one of the most significant factors in the use of rewards is how they are perceived by teachers and students. The majority of teachers who use rewards believe that elementary school teachers should use rewards. Many teachers from this study explained that rewards help motivate students to exhibit good behaviour and some mentioned that rewards motivate children to do their best work (Payne, 2015).

Teachers who used rewards for behaviour management also tended to use rewards for academic achievement, with the highest frequencies of rewards being verbal or written praise and prizes (Cameron et al., 2005). Payne (2015) shows that how pupils perceive the use of rewards and sanctions has been found to impact their sense of belonging in their school, and this in turn can affect both academic performance and social behaviour. Similarly, pupils' attachment to school is greater when teachers care, use praise and treat pupils in a way that is perceived to be fair (Arkoosh et al., 2009).

• Encouraging students' curiosity to learn through the questions they ask the teacher and each other:

It's very easy to recognise it because there are immediate emotions. There are smiles and cheers immediately. 'And when are we going to do it here? Are we going to do it here now? And can we take this home?' (imitating the enthusiastic tone of the students). It's just from their phrasing of words like that and in the end you can see when a person smiles, when his eyes smile, it's really somehow, well, recognisable. R3

Maybe I'll give a short answer here, because I've already talked a lot about problem-based teaching, and they then experience that, motivation arises for them, motivation arises in their non-traditional environments. R29 It's no secret that curiosity makes learning more effective and enjoyable. Curious students not only ask questions, but also actively seek out the answers. While it might be no big surprise that we're more likely to remember what we've learnt when the subject matter intrigues us, it turns out that curiosity also helps us learn information we don't consider all that interesting or important.

Once the subjects' curiosity had been piqued by the right question, they were better at learning and remembering completely unrelated information (von Stumm et al., 2011). So if a teacher is able to arouse students' curiosity about something they're naturally motivated to learn, they'll be better prepared to learn things that they would normally consider boring or difficult. For instance, if a student struggles with maths, personalising maths problems to match their specific interests rather than using generic textbook questions could help them better remember how to go about solving similar maths problems in the future (Stenger, 2014).

The teacher should avoid giving dry lectures where you explain everything. Instead, the teacher must try designing the classes so that s/he is posing questions, either implicitly or explicitly and to be sure to leave openings for students to participate and ask questions about what they're learning (Blue, 2022). Studies conducted by Kashdan et al. (2018) found that individuals trigger curiosity in different ways, such as through joyous exploration, deprivation sensitivity, stress tolerance, social curiosity, and thrill-seeking. Joyous exploration refers to the enjoyment of an individual's desire to find new information and knowledge that leads to development and learning (Kashdan et al., 2018). This desire is closely linked to motivation within the individual to strive and conduct behaviour to achieve what it has not yet known. In the context of learning, joyous exploration can be enhanced through the support of teaching and technology assistance (Hochberg et al., 2018).

Teachers stimulate students' exploration by linking the need to design products with issues or problems in their daily life. When a student is given the freedom to explore with the teacher's supervision, the student's ability to develop his idea is wider as the student has the desire to build the product he wants to produce. Social curiosity forms a sense of belonging in an individual. Previous studies showed that individuals with social curiosity tend to obtain good information, understanding, and interaction (Hartung and Renner, 2013).

This causes the formation of togetherness and intimacy, which is required in exploration, especially in pairs or group activities. Individuals with social curiosity are based on their need to know the minds and actions of others through observation, asking questions, listening, or getting information from other parties. Therefore, learning activities that promote collaboration or discussion can provide space and opportunities for students to express their desire to the teachers and their peers through questioning and their behaviour regarding of what they want to know.

• Providing opportunities for students to be co-creators of curriculum:

I think that enthusiasm, that's what they get the most when you let them really choose and film what we can do, where we call those reserve lessons. When I let the children themselves create that educational content, what they would like, what they would like to organise and do, and try to become teachers themselves or present certain projects. It's actually a lot of enthusiasm when you let your children's creativity shine. R28

The teachers view their role in curriculum implementation as an autonomous one. They select and decide what to teach from the prescribed syllabus or curriculum. Since implementation takes place through the interaction of the student and the planned learning opportunities, the role and influence of the teacher in the process is indisputable (Bovill, 2013). Students are also a critical element in curriculum implementation.

While teachers are the arbiters of the classroom practice, the learners hold the key to what is actually transmitted and adopted from the official curriculum. The official curriculum can be quite different from the curriculum that is actually implemented. The student factor influences teachers in their selection of learning experiences, hence the need to consider the diverse characteristics of learners in curriculum implementation (Chaudhary, 2015). Engaging students as partners in the classroom allows for co-creation of teaching, learning and assessment in real-time as classes unfold. Outside of the classroom, engaging students as partners involves co-designing curriculum and assessment before or after semester (Deeley & Bovill, 2017).

• Organising open and honest communication with students:

When I teach them, I directly say, if it's bad, then I say that it's bad. It's not as bad as it should be. It's 'mhm', the other one is crying again, but I don't pay much attention. And then for two weeks, it was better here, but it could be even better, improved. Well, then after those two weeks is fine. R13

Open and honest communication in the classroom is a non-negotiable for the teacher and students. Without open communication, tasks can go uncompleted, students can become disengaged, and classroom learning culture can get lost (Fashiku, 2017).

Having a system of open communication at school and in a classroom will open the door for feedback. The teachers and students will feel more confident about coming forward. Open communication refers to the ability of individuals to freely convey their thoughts and ideas to each other. Within the school and classroom the open communication could be fostered by actively promoting teachers and students to share their feedback and opinions (Bender, 2005). Open communication encourages teachers and students to communicate their feelings, challenges, and feedback confidently.

This behaviour is a better alternative to the passive, aggressive, passive-aggressive, or non-verbal cues that teachers and students resort to when they want to express a disagreement or avoid confrontation (Hollingworth et al., 2017). The point is, open communication is an approach that values every teacher's and student's unique perspective, helps them see things differently, and improves collaboration (Kohler, 2022). So creating a culture of inclusion in a classroom is vital to engage students into learning. And students can handle barriers with cultural knowledge, awareness, and understanding – all of which are hallmarks of open communication (Salamondra, 2021).

• Making students' learning meaningful by creating life-relevant tasks based on good experiences:

You give them that external motivation verbally, and then you stimulate their internal one. Here, I think it is essential that they feel that there is a good example to encourage, those who study and try are encouraged. The tasks are interesting. Activities are meaningful and relevant to their lives. R4

Deep meaningful learning is the higher-order thinking and development through manifold active intellectual engagement aiming at meaning construction through pattern recognition and concept association. It includes inquiry, critical thinking, creative thinking, problem-solving, and metacognitive skills. It is a theory with a long academic record that can accommodate the demand for excellence in teaching and learning at all levels of education. Its achievement is verified through knowledge application in authentic contexts (Mystakidis, 2021). Meaningful learning experiences mean those that the student selects and chooses from her/his prior learning experiences, for their positive or negative impact.

These experiences are the most relevant from the student's point of view, for whatever reason, and are connected to their needs or interests (Gonzalez-Ceballos et al., 2021). Deep learning originates from the research on the mental processing strategies by Marton and Säljö in Sweden (Marton & Säljö, 1997). In a series of experiments, they examined students' approaches to learning when prompted to reply to comprehension questions after reading a text. They discovered two distinct behaviours; some students strove to store isolated facts without any reflection (surface approach). Others processed them critically and attempted to connect the new information with existing knowledge (deep approach). A student employing deep learning approaches directs his/her own learning, attempts to comprehend the learning content and procedure, and modifies accordingly his/her beliefs, behaviour and values (Marton & Säljö, 1997). At the opposite end of the spectrum, a student with a surface approach is rather apathetic towards the studied domain, driven by exam pressure or stress, and hence opts for rote memorisation of facts. Beyond these two orientations, there is evidence of another, superseding pragmatic dimension towards short-term performance dictated by course assessment requirements, namely a strategic approach to learning (Miller & Parlett, 1974). Deep learning happens through active student engagement and especially in meaningful construction activities (Hay et al., 2008). Deep learning is associated with polymorphic thinking (i.e. creative, critical, reflective, and caring) (Valtanen et al., 2008) and problem-solving processes and capabilities (Dolmans et al., 2016).

The notion of in-depth learning should not be confused with deep learning computational processing techniques used for data analysis and representation in the field of artificial intelligence (Mystakidis, 2021). Meaningful learning construction is linked with teaching methods such as inquiry and problem solving, resulting in the ability to identify and analyse the underlying structure and connect existing with new concepts (Mystakidis et al., 2019). Educators who intend to offer meaningful educational experiences to their students are invited to contemplate and design teaching and learning around the following attributes: active, constructive, intentional, authentic, cooperative, or relational (Kostiainen et al., 2018):

- Active: learning is an active cognitive procedure where the student is the protagonist. This dimension signals the active participation of students by interacting with content and the learning environment, and engaging with a subject matter so as to make a personal cognitive contribution.
- Constructive: students are expected to construct continuously their own meaning by interpreting and reflecting on observed phenomena, content and the results of their actions.
- Intentional: students are encouraged to exhibit individual ownership, agency, be self-directed, set goals consciously and commit emotionally.
- Authentic: meaningful learning requires tasks linked to an authentic experience or simulated, realistic context so that they become personally significant and transferable.
- Cooperative/relational: human learning is a social process involving students and teachers. Group collaboration and peer conversation occur naturally in knowledge-building communities. Additionally, engaged, passionate teachers contribute significantly to the emotional involvement of students.

Meaningful learning depends primarily on course design linking theory and practice with strong experiences, where both teachers and students feel free to express their positive or negative emotions (Delotell et al., 2010).

• Using teaching methods for student engagement and surprising:

With younger children, for example, when writing with six-year-old pre-schoolers, they write such scribbles, dictations, they dictate letters, syllables. In the spring they start dictating the words. But the teacher changes her clothes every time there. She becomes a completely different person and she has such glitter, and with those glitters she covers all their leaves there. They know that it will happen. It's not that children have to do something like in the circus every time. Not really, but you learn to know them, to be able to surprise and involve them. This is perhaps the teacher's way. The teacher must be able to do that. R4

These are unconventional teaching methods – or learning, if you prefer – drawn from the experience that fulfils teaching-learning activities (Bel-Ann Ordu, 2021):

- Learning by doing. Dewey's (1938 a, b) famous formulation of the 'Learning by Doing' theory is a surprisingly versatile and effective unconventional teaching method (Bruce & Bishop, 2002). At its base are the ideas of getting close to the object of studies, and of purposefully engaging in a conscious learning process that involves reflection and self-assessment. This makes it so that students can learn almost anything 'by doing' – even the most theoretical subjects – if the student has the right mindset.
- Critical pedagogy. Critical pedagogy is there to remind us that education should not involve dutiful memorisation of pre-established content – it should rather prioritise actual understanding and reflection of content that is relevant to the lives of the students themselves – and to the society they live in. Henry Giroux (1988, 2020), one of the main theorists of critical pedagogy, goes as far as to consider teaching an inherently political act – and schools places where students ought to learn to analyse and critique the power relations and structural issues of their society. In practice, critical pedagogy can take many shapes – from reading and commenting on the news together, to interesting debates, to studying critical voices from the past and the present. Quite any professional choice in the scope of critical pedagogy, really, will not fail to result in some inspiring unconventional teaching methods.
- Travel to learn. Learn to travel, travel to learn because we couldn't refrain ourselves from including it here. Study trips, if well done, can be an incredible learning opportunity, to the extent of sometimes being life-changing experiences. Travelling creates the perfect context for effective learning. Travelling places the learner in close contact with their object of studies, they allow to go beyond theory and form new skills, memories and opinions, make the whole process engaging and exciting. Things learnt on a trip stick in a person's memory together with the vivid flashes of the places s/he

saw, the people s/he talked to, and the unique sensations of such an intense experience. Most importantly, they most often expose the learner to the relevance of what you are studying – inescapably proven by the situations you meet and witness the self.

- Investigations. Investigations are in fact investigative researches that go beyond the pure consumption of second-hand content and extend to experiencing the topic the student is studying hime/herself – or to getting close to whoever does. Naturally, this goes very well with study trips: imagine finding oneself in a foreign country and learning about the local culture not by reading about it in books or on the internet – but by meeting the people who share that culture and getting an insight into their lives. But investigations don't necessarily entail foreign settings and exotic topics: thinking about investigating the causes of climate change in the local countryside, for example – or any other topic that's appropriate for a learning situation.
- Collective learning. An unconventional teaching method that is quite often overlooked is as simple as it sounds to make learning a collective responsibility, rather than an individual one. For the teacher, this will mostly mean promoting group work and experimenting with similar ideas, such as group exams and tests. Team-based pedagogy: teams of around 10 students are together about taking decisions over their own education, for example, and they only go for exams after making sure that everyone in the group is prepared for it. This trains everyone's social and collaborative skills, and opens the space for a number of activities that would otherwise not be possible such as organising big scale events and travelling together safely.
- Applying information and communication technologies in lessons:

It is clear that the enthusiasm was really great when we used those information technologies. Later on, at first I brought tablets, the whole closet applauded, they hugged and kissed each other, such joy was here for the very first year. Later we will study and watch YouTube and play games. Well, I really had to form the opinion that a tablet computer is a textbook of the 21st century. This is not free time here, not only for free time. So after half a year, I observed their enthusiasm. That's where enthusiasm comes in. R27

ICT integration in education generally means a technology-based teaching and learning process that closely relates to the utilisation of learning technologies in schools. Due to the fact that students are familiar with technology and they will learn better within technology-based environment, the issue of ICT integration in schools, specifically in the classroom, is vital (Ghavifekr & Rosdy, 2015). This is because the use of technology in education contributes a lot in the pedagogical aspects in which the application of ICT will lead to effective learning with help and support from ICT elements and components (Jamieson-Procter et al., 2013). It is right to say that almost all ranges of subjects, starting with mathematics, science, languages, arts and humanities and other major fields, can be learnt more effectively through technology-based tools and equipment. In addition, ICT provides the help and complementary support for both teachers and students where it involves effective learning with the help of the computers to serve the purpose of learning aids (Jorge et al., 2003). Computers and technology do not act as replacements for quality teachers, but instead they are considered as add-on supplements, needed for the better teaching and learning. The need for ICT integration in education is crucial, because with the help of technology, teaching and learning is not only happening in the school environment, but also can happen even if teachers and students are physically at a distance.

However, ICT integration is not a one-step learning process, but is a continual process of learning that provides a proactive teaching-learning environment (Young, 2003). Technology-based teaching and learning offers various interesting ways, which includes educational videos, stimulation, storage of data, the usage of databases, mind-mapping, guided discovery, brainstorming, music, and World Wide Web (www), that will make the learning process more fulfilling and meaningful (Finger & Trinidad, 2002). On the other hand, students will benefit from ICT integration where they are not bound to a limited curriculum and resources; instead, hands-on activities in technology-based courses are designed to help them to stimulate their understanding about the subject. It also helps teachers to design their lesson plans in an effective, creative and interesting approach that would result in students' active learning. Previous research proved that use of ICT in teaching will enhance the learning process and maximise students' abilities in active learning (Jamieson-Proctor et al., 2013). Hermans et al. (2008) have identified three main stages for ICT to be highly valued and regarded by the teachers; integration, enhancement and complementary.

The integration approach is about implementing the right use of ICT in a particular subject area that involves complex concepts and skills to improve student's achievement and attainment. Besides, the review of curriculum is also needed, so that only related ICT resources and appropriate software will be installed for the main aims and objectives of curriculum to be achieved. The enhancement approach is about using ICT to give greater emphasis on the topic introduced. For instance, Microsoft PowerPoint can be used to present a topic in a very innovative and creative way, that will lead into discussion and exchanging ideas and thoughts. Finally, the complementary approach is when the ICT is used to aid and support the student's learning. This approach allow students to be more organised and efficient in which they can make notes on a computer, submit their work by email from home as long as they meet

the deadline, and search for information from various sources provided online to fulfil the task given to them. Teachers' readiness and skills in using ICT are playing an essential role in the use of ICT in education. Teachers need sufficient ICT skills to implement the technology and to have a high level of confidence to use it in a classroom setting. Besides, teachers require insight into the pedagogical role of ICT, in order to use it meaningfully in their instructional process (Ghavifekr & Rosdy, 2015). According to Winzenried et al. (2010) teachers who have gone through ICT training are more effective in teaching by using technology tools as opposed to those that have no experience in such training. A school in Ireland reported that teachers who did not develop sufficient confidence avoided using ICT. A similar case happened in Canada, where some teachers admitted they were reluctant ICT users because they were worried they might get embarrassed that the students knew more about the technology than they did (Ghavifekr & Rosdy, 2015).

A collaborative leadership culture is more than merely leading a scheduled meeting, sharing lessons, or sitting through common planning-time sessions taking notes. Collaborative leadership requires transparency, honesty, integrity, dependability, accountability, and educators' commitment to shared goals. A school or district that supports collaborative leadership must be fostered and supported by administration for lasting success (Matthew, 2018). An important role in the promotion of students' learning motivation is played by the creation of an educational connection between them:

• Creating an atmosphere of open dialogue in the classroom:

And the other thing is that I accept everyone. I have even said: my door is open to anyone who wants to. There have been situations where students from Russian and geography classes run to me, that's it. Well, it's just not fun for me in front of my colleagues, sometimes there are situations like that. R14

I tried to create such an atmosphere where they could express their opinion, and if they think it's difficult or scary or something like that, it takes time, especially if there are older children and you're just coming to teach them. They have some kind of confidence, comfort, so they can say what they feel, help themselves, but they tell me it's fun, it's not interesting, this subject is scary, and then we try to make it not so scary. R5

Oh, well, if they are small, then they say and in general it depends a lot on the class. I have noticed that if there are generally very strong students in the class, they often avoid showing emotions. Maybe this is just my very personal experience. When I worked in the district, they were sincere and they said: 'But this is some nonsense, teacher, you need our help to understand'. R10

One of the challenges of open dialogue in the classroom is the teacher's lack of control: What if a student says something unacceptable? What if some students are misinformed? Another challenging aspect of open discussion is the teacher's ability to create a safe and judgment-free environment in which all students feel free to express their opinions. In this case, 'judgment-free' refers to a teacher's judgment of her students' character just as much as to students' judgements about their peers (Mercer, 2008; McKenney, 2017).

Classroom dialogue is a spectacular tool for student learning. A great discussion is one of the best ways to engage students, monitor student learning, and to create student enthusiasm. Many teachers, however, find that dialogue and discussion fall apart in their classrooms, particularly at the elementary and junior high levels.

Many times, conversations and dialogue in classrooms lag because of a lack of good questions. If a question is too simple or has only one right answer, students will have difficulty engaging in deeper discussion. Teachers need to prepare a list of questions on topics of choice to spur student dialogue when students falter and run out of their own ideas to share.

While it may seem like the teacher is waiting forever for a student response, giving students time to think before they speak is a critical component of a good classroom discussion. Students, particularly younger students, may require more time to put together a response than an experienced adult. The teacher needs to be patient, and try to give several seconds of time before prompting with a new question or follow up question.

While it is possible to attempt a classroom discussion on any topic, topics with a strong level of student interest are more likely to generate discussion and dialogue in the classroom. The teacher needs to choose current events, topics of debate, or sections of reading that students can really engage in. Strategies such as the Socratic seminar and debate are best fuelled by topics where students may have multiple viewpoints and ideas.

Often, teachers don't want to release control of the classroom to the students. However, great student dialogue is based on student freedom. The teacher needs to let students question one another and share their opinions freely. Setting ground rules helps to maintain good classroom behaviour such as not interrupting others and active listening. Keeping too tight control on the dialogue, however, stifles student freedom and enthusiasm. While teachers can and should guide the conversation with probing questions, the teacher needs to let students explore the topic and their own thinking without needing to call on each student and maintaining complete control.

Using student conversation and dialogue to encourage learning can be a rewarding experience for both students and teachers. Great dialogue encourages critical thinking, social skills, and deep exploration. • Creating an atmosphere of safety when talking about sensitive topics in the classroom:

I make it possible for them to be as open as possible. For the most open about what hurts him or not, about where they are today...R14

Some students may even see themselves as being judged smart or not smart (Dweck, 2008). Students with this mindset are less likely to become involved with learning that involves risk, including making mistakes; when they do make mistakes, rather than correct them, they try to hide them (Nussbaum & Dweck, 2007). These learners will benefit from opportunities to learn in psychologically safe learning environments.

Changing what a person knows requires critical reflection. In turn, critical reflection requires a trustful atmosphere where people can make mistakes without worrying about suffering negative consequences (Brookfield, 1995). When the teacher cannot create a safe learning environment, s/he must always be aware of the alternatives, including learners being lost in groupthink because nobody is willing to take the risk of asking questions or sharing knowledge that can make all the difference. In fact, groupthink may be the very reason why change is often difficult, as learners both young and old protect themselves from unfamiliar concepts and the possibility of looking bad.

Teachers and other professionals may feel like they are imposters when they are in a group of like professionals (Brookfield, 1995). This means that the teacher may not ask questions or provide input that may be outside what others may be thinking because s/he does not want others to think that the teacher slides through the system somehow, and is not really supposed to be there in that learning session. The teacher may begin with explaining the imposter syndrome and what it means. The safe learning environment is especially important for students. Negative learning experiences can affect future learning, and teachers need only reflect on our own experiences to realise how true this is. All students need to be safe. Teaching should be adapted to the student with tenderness and affection, with reward instead of punishment, and with a goal of meaningful learning, rather than rote memorisation (Cremin, 1957). A threatening learning environment can cause the brain to (Jensen, 2008, pp. 43–44):

- Lose its ability to correctly interpret learning clues from the environment.
- Stay with tried and true behaviours.
- Lose its ability to index, store, and access information.
- Become limited in its responses.
- Lose ability to perceive relationships and patterns.
- Become less able to use higher-level thinking.

- Lose long-term memory capacity.
- Overreact to stimuli in a phobic-like manner.

In an unsafe learning environment, the student is more aware of the need for survival and protection of self from embarrassing or humiliating situations than on learning. Increasingly psychological safety becomes more important as we move through our educational journey.

 Paying attention to the students' abilities and shaping the tasks accordingly: That's when I would like them to be the most enthusiastic, so that we, students of different abilities, can feel great in those activities, because according to different abilities they can discover what they are good at, let's say to deliver or perform some activities, etc. In fact, what they like, what is close, what you allow to plan together. Of course, maybe you adjust it a little, but because it's such an invisible hand, you don't give it away. This is definitely the most enthusiastically welcomed thing by children. R28

Different students have their optimum learning method. Some will learn pretty fast when they read texts, while others prefer to listen to the teacher. There is yet another group of students that will need a practical demonstration for whatever they have learnt to stick. The teacher is left with the difficult task of finding the balance that will be favourable to every student (Poedjiastutie & Oliver, 2017).

Students' needs can be classified into different domains of learning, and these needs are never one-dimensional. The three domains that there is general agreement about are (Smets et al., 2022):

- the cognitive (thinking),
- the affective (social/emotional/feeling), and
- the psychomotor (physical/kinesthetic) domain

The affective is often subdivided into affective (feeling/emotion) and social. The learning need of students is usually a product of diverse factors including socioeconomic factors, individual learning history, and background language. A student who is taught in a language that is not their primary language has an increased chance of encountering more difficulty than a student learning in their mother tongue (Lim, 2022). There are students who are highly gifted or talented: they may be gifted in a single subject or across several areas and tend to score high on achievement tests. Most gifted students benefit more from a learning method that encourages the use of higher thinking skills, independent study, and faster-paced learning. This explains why the first task of every teacher is to know their students (Smets et al., 2022). One of the key factors that can transform gifts to talent is the student's educational environment. Every teacher is likely to have a range of students in their class. The teacher needs to make sure to carry all the students along, and to divide the lesson

into different sections to accommodate the various learning preferences that each of the students may have. This strategy is perfect if the teacher is new to the students, and has not had time to get to know them on a personal level (Nasution et al., 2021).

Unfortunately, there are teachers that are hostile to students with one or another form of disability, when we all know that it is important to treat all students with dignity, as well as giving them the opportunity to enjoy all the benefits of education in a supportive environment (Poedjiastutie & Oliver, 2017). If the teacher has a student with any form of disability, the first step is to make necessary adjustments to accommodate them in that class. Such adjustments should be geared towards helping students with disabilities to participate in training and learning just like their counterparts without disabilities. Before making such adjustments, the teacher should determine the nature of the student's disability, if there has been any previous adjustment, and the student's preferred adjustment (Lim, 2022).

A teacher's leadership in motivating students for learning in a classroom is based on the following aspects:

- solving problems that have arisen together on the basis of mutual dialogue;
- encouraging students' creativity as they learn to listen to each other's ideas;
- encouraging students' creativity by providing them with opportunities to conduct experiments based on simulating real situations;
- encouraging students' learning to learn through self-selected tools for decision-making when performing tasks;
- providing opportunities for students to experience success in learning;
- creating an atmosphere in which students experience the joy of learning;
- encouraging students to reflect on personal learning;
- creating an educational environment for students to experience the freedom of learning;
- supporting students' learning initiatives;
- creating an atmosphere of experimentation for students in learning;
- encouraging students' courage in learning;
- rewarding students for learning;
- encouraging students' curiosity to learn through the questions they ask the teacher and each other;
- providing opportunities for students to be co-creators of the curriculum;
- organising open and honest communication with students;

- making students' learning meaningful by creating life-relevant tasks based on good experiences;
- using teaching methods which engage and surprise students;
- applying information and communication technologies in lessons;
- creating an atmosphere of safety when talking about sensitive topics in the classroom;
- paying attention to the students' abilities and shaping tasks accordingly.

Teacher leaders are characterised by their ability to lead others in every role they hold at their school. Teacher leadership produces intermediary outcomes that improve teaching and learning, such as creating positive learning relationships between teachers and students and among students, establishing classroom routines and expectations that effectively direct student energy, engaging the student in the learning process, and improving curricular, instructional, and assessment practices, which ultimately result in high levels of student learning and achievement.

Teacher leadership is leading within and beyond the classroom. Teachers can be leaders as they model best practices. Other teachers and students are watching what they're doing, so really, it's this idea that they're influencers. The influence of teacher leadership on student motivation can be explained that a good relationship between teachers and students is a factor that has a direct impact on student motivation. Teachers who have good leadership will hold certain values in carrying out their profession, have good discipline values, be hardworking, dedicated to the institution, and committed to develop together with colleagues. Teachers who teach with certain values will affect the comfort and motivation of student. Teacher leadership is the characteristic of teacher professionalism in the classroom that has a mission to produce and improve student learning outcomes effectively. This shows the ability to influence others. Teacher leadership, as an interpersonal influence, is carried out in a situation and directed through the communication process in pursuit of certain goals or objectives.

References

- Alyahyan, E., & Düştegör, D. (2020). Predicting academic success in higher education: literature review and best practices. International Journal of Education Technologies in Higher Education, 17, 3. https://doi.org/10.1186/s41239-020-0177-7
- Amabile, T. M. (2012). Componential theory of creativity. Harvard Business School, 12(96), 1–10. https://hbswk.hbs.edu/item/componential-theory-of-creativity
- Arkoosh, M., Weber, K., & McLaughlin T.F. (2009). The Effects of Motivational/Reward System and a Spelling Racetrack on Spelling Performance in General Education: A Case Report. The Open Education Journal, 2, 17–20. https://benthamopen.com/contents/pdf/TOEDUJ/TOEDUJ-2-17. pdf
- Atsbury, M. (2016). How to experiment with new ideas in the classroom. British Council. https:// www.britishcouncil.org/voices-magazine/how-experiment-new-ideas-classroom
- Azevedo, R. & Cromley, J.G. (2004). Does training on self-regulated learning facilitate students' learning with hypermedia? Journal of Educational Psychology, 96(3), 523–535. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.96.3.523
- Azmi, B.M.,Yidliz, N, & Tugrul, M. C. (2014). Listening comprehension difficulties encountered by students in second language learning class. Journal of Educational and Instructional Studies in the World, 4 (4), 1-6. https://arastirmax.com/tr/system/files/dergiler/116392/makaleler/4/4/arastirmax-listening-comprehension-difficulties-encountered-students-second-language-learning-class.pdf
- Baranek, L. K. (1996). The Effect of Rewards and Motivation on Student Achievement. Masters Theses. 285. https://scholarworks.gvsu.edu/theses/285
- Bargh, J. A., & Schul, Y. (1980). On the cognitive benefit of teaching. Journal of Educational Psychology, 72, 593–604. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0022-0663.72.5.593
- Bartol, K. M., & Srivastava, A. (2002). Encouraging knowledge sharing: The role of organizational reward systems. Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 9(1), 64–76. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1177/107179190200900105
- Bel-Ann Ordu, U. (2021). The Role of Teaching and Learning Aids/Methods in a Changing World. New Challenges to Education: Lessons from Around the World BCES Conference Books, 19. 210–216. Sofia: Bulgarian Comparative Education Society.
- Bender, Y. (2005). The Tactful Teacher: Effective Communication With Parents, Colleagues, and Administrators. Norvich, Vermont: Nomad Press.
- Birden, E. M. (2020). Courage in the classroom: the impact of social emotional learning on student perceptions of courage. Education Dissertations. 91. https://repository.wcsu.edu/education-dis/91
- Blue, J. (2022). The engine of achievement: The role of curiosity in learner engagement. World of Better Learning. https://www.cambridge.org/elt/blog/2022/02/22/engine-achievement-role-curiosity-learner-engagement/
- Bovill, C. (2013) Students and staff co-creating curricula a new trend or an old idea we never got around to implementing? In Rust, C. (Ed) Improving Student Learning through research and scholarship: 20 years of ISL. (p. 96–108). Oxford: The Oxford Centre for Staff and Educational Development.
- Brooks, E., Brant, J., & Lamb, M. (2019). How can universities cultivate leaders of character? Insights from a leadership and character development program at the University of Oxford. International Journal of Ethics Education, 4(2), 167–182. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40889-019-00075-x
- Bruce, B. C., & Bishop, A. P. (2002). Using the web to support inquiry-based literacy development. Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy, 45(8), 706–714. https://www.researchgate.net/ profile/Bertram-Bruce/publication/248286639_Using_the_Web_to_support_inquiry-based_

literacy_development/links/543bb7d20cf24a6ddb978e40/Using-the-Web-to-support-inquiry-based-literacy-development.pdf

- Cameron, J., Pierce, D., W., Banko, K., & Gear, A. (2005). Achievement-Based Rewards and Intrinsic Motivation: A Test of Cognitive Mediators. Journal of Educational Psychology, 97, 641–655. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.97.4.641
- Campos, N., Nogal, M., Caliz, C., & Juan, A. A. (2020). Simulation-based education involving online and on-campus models in different European universities. International Journal of Educational Technologies in Higher Education, 17(8). https://doi.org/10.1186/s41239-020-0181-y
- Canpolat, M., Kuzu, S., Yıldırım, B.,& Canpolat, S. (2015). Active listening strategies of academically successful university students. Eurasian Journal of Educational Research, 60, 163–180. doi: 10.14689/ejer.2015.60.10
- Chan, S., & Yuen, M. (2014). Personal and environmental factors affect- ing teachers' creativity-fostering practices in Hong Kong. Thinking Skills and Creativity, 12, 69–77. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.tsc.2014.02.003
- Chaudhary, G. K. (2015). Factors affecting curriculum implementation for students. International Journal of Applied Research, 1(12), 984–986. https://www.allresearchjournal.com/archives/?-year=2015&vol=1&issue=12&part=N&ArticleId=2023
- Chi, M. T. H. (2000). Self-explaining expository texts: The dual processes of generating inferences and repairing mental models. In R. Glaser (Ed.). Advances in Instructional Psychology: Educational Design and Cognitive Science (pp. 161–238). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Ching, G. S. (2012). Looking into the issues of rewards and punishment in students. International Journal of Research Studies in Psychology, 1, 29–38. doi: 10.5861/ijrsp.2012.v1i2.44
- Chow, W. S., & Chan, L. S. (2008). Social network, social trust and shared goals in organizational knowledge sharing. Information & Management, 45(7), 458–465. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. im.2008.06.007
- Clark, H. H., & Brennan, S. E. (1991). Grounding in communication. In L. B. Resnick, J. M. Levine, & S. D. Teasley (Eds.). Perspectives on Socially Shared Cognition (pp. 127–149). Washington DC: American Psychological Association.
- Cooper, M. A. (1999). Classroom choices from a cognitive perspective on peer learning. In A. M. O'Donnell & A. King (Eds.). Cognitive Perspectives on Peer Learning (pp. 215–234). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Cronqvist, M. (2021). Joy in Learning: When Children Feel Good and Realize They Learn. Educate, 3, 54–77. doi: 10.24834/educare.2021.3.3
- Daly, J. (2010). Learning about Teacher and Student Freedom. Social Education 74(6), 306–309.
- Daly, J., Roach, P., Evans, S., & Mitchell, G. (1995). Building support for Intellectual Freedom. Contemporary Education, 66(2), 92–95.
- Deeley, S. J., & Bovill, C. (2017) Staff student partnership in assessment: enhancing assessment literacy through democratic practices, Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 42:3, 463–477, DOI: 10.1080/02602938.2015.1126551
- De Jong, T., Linn, M. C. & Zacharia, Z. C. (2013)/ Physical and virtual laboratories in science and engineering education. Science, 340, 305–308. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1126/science.1230579
- Delotell, P.J., Millam, L.A., & Reinhardt, M.M. (2010). The Use of Deep Learning Strategies in Online Business Courses to Impact Student Retention. American Journal of Business Education, 3, 49–56. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1058303.pdf
- Devito, J. A. (1995). The interpersonal communication book. New York, NY: Harper Collins CollegePublishers.
- Dewey, J. (1938a). Experience and education. New York: Macmillan.
- Dewey, J. (1938b). Logic: A theory of inquiry. New York: Henry Holt.

- Dolmans, D.H.J.M., Loyens, S.M.M., Marcq, H., & Gijbels, D. (2016). Deep and surface learning in problem-based learning: A review of the literature. Advances in Health Sciences Education, 21, 1087–1112. doi: 10.1007/s10459-015-9645-6
- Dunagan, T. (2019). How to Inspire Courage in the Classroom. National Heritage Academies. https://www.nhaschools.com/en/blog/Parent-Room/How-to-Inspire-Courage-in-the-Classroom

Dunlosky, J. & Metcalfe, J. (2008). Metacognition. Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

- Dunlosky, J., Rawson, K.A., Marsh, E.J., Nathan, M.J., & Willingham, D.T. (2013). Improving students' learning with effective learning techniques: Promising directions from cognitive and educational psychology. Psychological Science in the Public Interest, 14(1), 4–58.
- Ehrhardt-Madapathi, N., Pretsch, J. & Schmitt, M. (2018). Effects of injustice in primary schools on students' behavior and joy of learning. Social Psychology of Education, 21, 337–369. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-017-9416-8
- Else-Quest, N.M., Hyde J.S. & Hejmadi A. (2008). Mother and Child Emotions during Mathematics Homework. Mathematical Thinking and Learning, 10(1), 5–35. doi: 10.1080/10986060701818644
- Espinosa, V. F., & González, J. L. (2023) The effect of teacher leadership on students' purposeful learning, Cogent Social Sciences, 9(1), 2197282. doi: 10.1080/23311886.2023.2197282
- Evans, S., Mitchell, D. G., & Roach, P. (1995). Preparation of Preservice Teachers to Deal with Academic Freedom Issues. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association of Teacher Educators, Detroit.
- Fashiku, C. O. (2017). Effective communication: Any role in classroom teaching-learning process in Nigerian schools? Bulgarian Journal of Science Education Policy, 11(1), 171–187. https:// doaj.org/article/d3262819a89e45f29b82e3ee9f02bbe7
- Finger, G., & Trinidad, S. (2002). ICTs for learning: An overview of systemic initiatives in the Australian states and territories. Australian Educational Computing, 17(2), 3–14. https://www. researchgate.net/profile/Glenn-Finger/publication/296808755_ICTs_for_learning_An_overview_of_systemic_initiatives_in_the_Australian_States_and_Territories/links/56df53c908aec4b3333b70ad/ICTs-for-learning-An-overview-of-systemic-initiatives-in-the-Australian-States-and-Territories.pdf
- Flavell, J.H. (1979). Metacognition and cognitive monitoring: A new area of cognitive- developmental inquiry. American Psychologist, 34(10), 906–911. https://psycnet.apa.org/ doi/10.1037/0003-066X.34.10.906
- Galvis, Á.H., & Carvajal, D. (2022). Learning from success stories when using eLearning and bLearning modalities in higher education: a meta-analysis and lessons towards digital educational transformation. International Journal of Educational Technologies in High Education, 19(23). https://doi.org/10.1186/s41239-022-00325-x
- Ghavifekr, S. & Rosdy, W.A.W. (2015). Teaching and learning with technology: Effectiveness of ICT integration in schools. International Journal of Research in Education and Science (IJRES), 1(2), 175–191. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1105224.pdf

Giroux, H. (2020). On Critical Pedagogy. UK: Bloomsbury Academic

- Giroux, H. (1988). Schooling and the Struggle for Public Life: Critical Pedagogy in the Modern Age (American Culture Series). USA: University of Minnesota.
- Griff, E. R., & Matter, S. F. (2013). Evaluation of an adaptive online learning system. British Journal Of Educational Technology, 44(1), 170–176. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8535.2012.01300.x
- Gonzalez-Ceballos, I., Palma, M., Serra, J. M., & Esteban-Guitart, M. (2021). Meaningful Learning Experiences in Everyday Life During Pandemics. A Qualitative Study. Frontiers in Psychology, 12. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.670886
- Harris, A. (2002). Effective leadership in schools facing challenging contexts. School Leadership & Management, 22(1), 15–26. https://doi.org/10.1080/ 13632430220143024a

- Hartung, F. M., & Renner, B. (2013). Social curiosity and gossip: Related but different drives of social functioning. PLoS ONE, 8(7), 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0069996
- Hay, D.B., Kehoe, C., Miquel, M.E., Hatzipanagos, S., Kinchin, I.M., Keevil, S.F., & Lygo-Baker, S. (2008).Measuring the quality of e-learning. British Journal of Educational Technologies, 39, 1037–1056. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8535.2007.00777.x
- Heflin, H, & Macaluso, S. (2021). Student initiative empowers engagement for learning online. Online Learning, 25(3), 230–248. doi:10.24059/olj.v25i3.2414

Henderson, P. (2023). What is Successful Learning? Life Learning Magazine. https://www.life.ca/ lifelearning/1406/what-is-successful-learning.htm

- Hochberg, K., Kuhn, J. & Müller, A. (2018). Using smartphones as experimental tools—Effects on interest, curiosity, and learning in physics education. Journal of Science Education and Technology, 27(5), 385–403. doi: https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10956-018-9731-7
- Hogh, A., & Müller-Hilke, B. (2021).Learning strategies and their correlation with academic success in biology and physiology examinations during the preclinical years of medical school. PLoS One, 16(1), e0245851. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0245851.
- Hollingworth, L., Olsen, D., Asikin-Garmager, A., & Winn, K. M. (2017). Initiating conversations and opening doors: How principals establish a positive building culture to sustain school improvement efforts. Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 46(6), 1014–1034. https://doi.org/10.1177/174114321771046
- Hommes, J., Rienties, B., de Grave, W., Bos, G., Schuwirth, L., & Scherpbier, A. (2012). Visualising the invisible: A network approach to reveal the informal social side of student learning. Advances in Health Sciences Education, 17(5), 743–757. doi: https://doi.org/10.1007/s10459-012-9349-0
- Hulac, D., Benson, N., Nesmith, M. C., & Wollersheim Shervey, S. (2016). Using Variable Interval Reinforcement Schedules to Support Students in the Classroom: An Introduction With Illustrative Examples. Journal of Education Research and Practice, 26, 90–96. doi: 10.5590/ JERAP.2016.06.1.06
- Jamieson-Proctor, R., Albion, P., Finger, G., Cavanagh, R., Fitzgerald, R., Bond, T., & Grimbeek, P. (2013). Development of the TTF TPACK Survey Instrument. Australian Educational Computing, 27(3), 26–35. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Robert-Fitzgerald-8/ publication/259644162_Development_of_the_TTF_TPACK_survey_instrument/links/00b-4952d0a6e01870e000000/Development-of-the-TTF-TPACK-survey-instrument.pdf
- Jeffrey, B., & Craft, A. (2004). Teaching Creatively and Teaching for Creativity: distinctions and relationships. Educational Studies, 30(1), 77–87. https://doi.org/10.1080/0305569032000159750
- Jorge, C. M. H., Gutiérrez, E. R., García, E.G., Jorge M. C. A., & Díaz, M. B. (2003). Use of the ICTs and the perception of e-learning among university students: A differential perspective according to gender and degree year group. Interactive Educational Multimedia, 7, 13–28. https:// core.ac.uk/download/pdf/39131027.pdf
- Kaplan, M., Silver, N., Lavague-Manty, D., & Meizlish, D. (2013). Using reflection and metacognition to improve student learning: Across disciplines, across the academy. Sterling, VA: Stylus.
- Kashdan, T. B., Stiksma, M. C., Disabato, D. D., McKnight, P. E., Bekier, J., Kaji, J. and Lazarus, R. (2018). The five-dimensional curiosity scale: Capturing the bandwidth of curiosity and identifying four unique subgroups of curious people. Journal of Research in Personality, 73, 130–49. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2017.11.011
- Kazanci, Z. & Okan, Z. (2009). Evaluating English language teaching software for kids: Education or entertainment or both? Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology – TOJET, 8(3), 30–38. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ859490.pdf
- Kilgour, P., Reynaud, D., Northcote, M. T., & Shields, M. (2015). Role-playing as a tool to facilitate learning, self-reflection and social awareness in teacher education. International Journal of Innovative Interdisciplinary Research, 2(4), 8–20. https://research.avondale.edu.au/edu_papers/73

- Kirschner, P. A., Sweller, J. & Clark, R. E. (2006). Why minimal guidance during instruction does not work: An analysis of the failure of constructivist, discovery, problem-based, experiential and inquiry-based teaching. Educational Psychology, 41, 75–86. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/ s15326985ep4102_1
- Kohler, M. (2022). Collaboration and communication in blended learning environments. Frontiers in Education, 7. https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2022.980445
- Kolb, D. A. (1984). Experiential Learning: Experience As The Source Of Learning And Development, 1. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Kostiainen, E., Ukskoski, T., Ruohotie-Lyhty, M., Kauppinen, M., Kainulainen, J., & Mäkinen, T. (2018). Meaningful learning in teacher education. Teaching and Teacher Education, 71, 66–77. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2017.12.009
- Lateef, F. (2010). Simulation-based learning: Just like the real thing. Journal of Emergency Trauma Shock, 3(4), 348–352. doi: 10.4103/0974-2700.70743. PMID: 21063557; PMCID: PMC2966567.
- Li, R., & Wong, T. (2018). Teaching Them before We Teach: The Effectiveness of Conducting Classroom Experiments before Teaching the Underlying Theory. IAFOR Journal of Education, 6(3), 79–92. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.22492/ije.6.3.05
- Lucy P. (2006) Encouraging reflective practice amongst students: a direct assessment approach, Planet, 17:1, 37–39, doi: 10.11120/plan.2006.00170037
- Lumpkin, A., Claxton, H., & Wilson, A. (2014). Key characteristics of teacher leaders in schools. Administrative Issues Journal, 4(2), 59-67. https://doi.org/10.5929/2014.4.2.8
- Magee, E., & DeWald, Ch. (2018). Using Experimentation to Engage Students in the Goal Setting and Reflection Process. BetterLesson. https://betterlesson.com/blog/engage-students-goal-setting-experimentation
- Major, C. H., Harris, M. S., & Zakrajsek, T. (2016). Teaching For Learning: 101 Intentionally Designed Educational Activities To Put Students On The Path To Success. New York: Routledge.
- Martin, A. J. (2011). Courage in the Classroom: Exploring a New Framework Predicting Academic Performance and Engagement. School Psychology Quarterly, 26(2), 145–160. https://psycnet. apa.org/doi/10.1037/a0023020
- Marton, F., & Säljö, R. (1997). Approaches to Learning. In The Experience of Learning. Marton, F., Hounsell, D., Entwistle, N. (Eds.). (pp. 39–58). Scottish Academic Press: Edinburgh, UK.
- Matthew, J. (2018). How to be a collaborative leader. eSchool News. https://www.eschoolnews. com/educational-leadership/2018/01/30/collaborative-leader/
- McDonald, L. (2019). How to Create Rich Experimental Learning Units. TeachHub.com https:// www.teachhub.com/classroom-management/2019/12/how-to-create-rich-experimental-learning-units/
- McKenney, Y. (2017). Creating a Space for Open Dialogue. ASCD. https://www.ascd.org/el/articles/creating-a-space-for-open-dialogue
- Mercer, N. (2008). The Seeds of Time: Why Classroom Dialogue Needs a Temporal Analysis. The Journal of the Learning Sciences, 17(1), 33–59. https://doi.org/10.1080/10508400701793182
- Meyer, D. & Turner, J. (2002). Discovering emotion in classroom motivation research. Educational Psychologist, 37, 107–114. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/S15326985EP3702_5
- Miller, T.M. & Geraci, L. (2011). Training metacognition in the classroom: The influence of incentives and feedback on exam predictions. Metacognition Learning, 6, 303–314. https://psycnet. apa.org/doi/10.1007/s11409-011-9083-7
- Miller, C.M.L., & Parlett, M.R. (1974). Up to the Mark: A Study of the Examination Game. In Research into Higher Education Monographs. Guildford, UK: Society for Research into Higher Education.
- Misco, T., & Patterson, N. C. (2007). A Study of Pre-Service Teacher's Conceptualizations of Academic Freedom and Controversial Issues. Theory and Research in Social Education, 35(4), 520–550. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00933104.2007.10473349

- Mitchell, G., Evans, S., Daly, j., & Roach, P. Academic Freedom and the Preparation of Social Studies Teachers. Theory and Research in Social Education, 25(10), 54–66. https://teachingsocialstudies.org/2022/08/31/academic-freedom-are-american-teachers-free-should-they-be/
- Mohammed, S., & Dumville, B. C. (2001). Team mental models in a team knowledge framework: Expanding theory and measurement across disciplinary boundaries. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 22, 89–106. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.86
- Moore, E. B., Herzog, T. A., & Perkins, K. K. (2013). Interactive simulations as implicit support for guided-inquiry. Chemistry Education Research and Practice, 14(3), 257–268. doi: 10.1039/ C3RP20157K
- Mystakidis, S., Berki, E., & Valtanen, J.-P. (2019). The Patras Blended Strategy Model for Deep and Meaningful Learning in Quality Life-Long Distance Education. Electron. Journal of e-Learning, 17, 66–78. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.34190/JEL.17.2.01
- Mystakidis, S. (2021). Deep Meaningful Learning. Encyclopedia, 1(3), 988–997. https://doi. org/10.3390/encyclopedia1030075
- Nelson, J. (2003). Academic Freedom, Institutional Integrity, and Teacher Education. Teacher Education Quarterly, 30(1), 65–72. https://teqjournal.org/Back%20Issues/Volume%2030/VOL30%20PDFS/30_1/nelson-30_1.pdf
- Nilson, L. B. (2013). Creating Self-regulated Learners: Strategies To Strengthen Students' Self-awareness and Learning Skills. Sterling, VA: Stylus.
- Noack, P. (2004). The family context of preadolescents' orientations toward education: Effects of maternal orientations and behavior. Journal of Educational Psychology, 96, 714–722.
- O'Donnell, A. M. (2006). The role of peers and group learning. In P. Alexander & P. Winne (Eds.). Handbook of educational psychology (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Payne, R. (2015). Using rewards and sanctions in the classroom: pupils' perceptions of their own responses to current behaviour management strategies. Routledge Taylor and Francis Group, 67, 483–504.
- Pekrun, R., Elliot, A. J., & Maier, M. A. (2017). Achievement goals and achievement emotions: Testing a model of their joint relations with academic performance. Journal of Educational Psychology, 109(3), 326-339. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0013383
- Peng, S.-L., Cherng, B.-L., Chen, H.-C., & Lin, Y.-Y. (2013). A model of contextual and personal motivations in creativity: How do the class- room goal structures influence creativity via self-determination motivations? Thinking Skills and Creativity, 10, 50–67. https://psycnet.apa. org/doi/10.1016/j.tsc.2013.06.004
- Petress, C.K.(1999). Listening: A vital skill. Journal of Instructional Psychology, 26(4), 261–262. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1076695.pdf
- Prickett, T. P. (2016). A study of relationships between teacher leadership, student trust, and student commitment to ethical goodness. Liberty University. https://digitalcommons.liberty.edu/ cqi/viewcontent. cqi?article=2314&context=d
- Rogoff, N. (1990). Apprenticeship In Thinking: Cognitive Development In Social Context. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Roskos, K., Vukelich, C., & Risko, V. (2001). Reflection and learning to teach reading: A critical review of literacy and general teacher education studies. Journal of Literacy Research, 33(4), 595–635. doi: 10.1080/10862960109548127
- Salamondra, T. (2021). Effective Communication in Schools. BU Journal of Graduate Studies in Education, 13(1), 22–26. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1303981.pdf
- Salas, E., Cooke, N. J., & Rosen, M. A. (2008). On teams, teamwork, and team performance: Discoveries and developments. Human Factors, 50(3), 540–547. doi: http://dx.doi. org/10.1518/001872008X288457
- Schott, C., van Roekel, H., & Tummers, L. G. (2020). Teacher leadership: A systematic review, methodological quality assessment and conceptual framework. Educational Research Review, 31, 1–24. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. edurev.2020.100352

- Schmitz, M. J., & Winskel, H. (2008). Towards effective partnerships in a collaborative problem-solving task. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 78(4), 581–596. https://psycnet. apa.org/doi/10.1348/000709908X281619
- Schuitema, J., Peetsma, T., & van der Veen, I. (2014). Enhancing student motivation: A longitudinal intervention study based on future time perspective theory. The Journal of Educational Research, 107(6), 467–481. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00220671.2013.836467
- Schwarz, B., Dreyfus, T., & Hershkowits, N. H. R. (2004). Teacher guidance of knowledge construction. Proceedings of the 28th Conference of the International Group for the Psychology of Mathematics Education, 4, 169–176. Retrieved from http://www.kurims.kyoto- u.ac.jp/EMIS/ proceedings/PME28/RR/RR175_Schwarz.pdf
- Seifert, T. (2004). Understanding student motivation. Educational Research, 46(2) 137–149. https://doi.org/10.1080/0013188042000222421
- Sriprakash, A. (2009). 'Joyful Learning' in rural Indian primary schools: an analysis of social control in the context of child-centred discourses. Compare, 39(5), 629–641. doi:10.1080/03057920903125677
- Stenger, M. (2014). Why Curiosity Enhances Learning. Edutopia.org https://www.edutopia.org/ blog/why-curiosity-enhances-learning-marianne-stenger
- Susanto, R., Syofyan, H., & Rachmadtullah, R. (2019). Teacher leadership in class on the formation of school values and characters of school-ages. WMA, 1 (1), 3–7. https://doi.org/10.4108/eai.11-12-2019. 2290861
- Tobin, K., Ritchie, S., Oakley, J., Mergard, V. & Hudson, P. (2013). Relationships between emotional climate and the fluency of classroom interactions. Learning Environment Research, 16, 71– 89. doi: 10.1007/s10984-013-9125-y
- Tomandl, M., Mieling, T., Losert-Valiente Kroon, C. et al. (2015). Simulated Interactive Research Experiments as Educational Tools for Advanced Science. Scientific Reports, 5, 14108. https:// doi.org/10.1038/srep14108
- Valtanen, J., Berki, E., Kampylis, P., & Theodorakopoulou, M. (2008). Manifold Thinking and Distributed Problem-Based Learning: Is There Potential For ICT Support? In Proceedings of the e-Learning'08 Conference, Las Vegas, NV, USA, I, 145–152.
- Van den Hooff, B., & De Ridder, J. A. (2004). Knowledge sharing in context: The influence of organizational commitment, communication climate and CMC use on knowledge sharing. Journal of Knowledge Management, 8(6), 117–130. https://doi.org/10.1108/13673270410567675
- Von Stumm, S., Hell, B. & Chamorro-Premuzic, T. (2011). The Hungry Mind: Intellectual Curiosity Is the Third Pillar of Academic Performance. Perspectives on Psychological Science, 6 (6), 574 doi: 10.1177/1745691611421204
- Wagner, T. (2010). Creating Innovators: The Making of Young People Who Will Change the World. New York, NY: Scribner.
- Wagner, T. (2008). Rigor redefined. Educational Leadership, 66(2), 20-24. https://ascd.org/el/articles/rigor-redefined
- Wang, CH.-J., & Hsieh, H.-Y. (2022). Effect of Deep Learning Approach on Career Self-Efficacy: Using Off-Campus Internships of Hospitality College Students as an Example. Sustainability, 14(13), 7594. https://doi.org/10.1080/0309877X.2021.1890701
- Webb, N. M. (2009). The teacher's role in promoting collaborative dialogue in the classroom. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 79, 1–28. https://psycnet.apa.org/ doi/10.1348/000709908X380772
- West, M. A. (2000). Reflexivity, revolution and innovation in work teams. In M. M. Beyerlein, D. A. Johnson, & S. T. Beyerlein (Eds.). Product Development Teams, 5, 1–29. Stamford, CT: JAI Press.
- Wildman, J. L., Thayer, A. L., Pavlas, D., Salas, E., Stewart, J. E., & Howse. W. (2012). Team knowledge research: Emerging trends and critical needs. Human Factors: The Journal of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society, 54, 84–111. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018720811425365

- Willis, J. (2018). The Value of Active Listening. Edutopia. https://www.edutopia.org/article/value-active-listening/
- Williams, N. L. & Bauer, P. T. (2006). Pathways to affective accountability: Selecting, locating, and using children's books in elementary school classrooms. The Reading Teacher, 60(1), 14–22. https://doi.org/10.1598/rt.60.1.2
- Winzenried, A., Dalgarno, B., & Tinkler, J. (2010). The interactive whiteboard: A transitional technology supporting diverse teaching practices. Australasian Journal of Educational Technology, 26(4), 534–552. doi: https://doi.org/10.14742/ajet.1071
- Wittrock, M. C. (1990). Generative processes of comprehension. Educational Psychologist, 24, 345–376. https://www.jstor.org/stable/1001814
- Worthington, D. (2008). Exploring the relationship between listening style and need for cognition. International Journal of Listening, 22, 46–58. doi: 10.1080/10904010701802154
- Yeh, Y.-C., Yeh, Y.-L., & Chen, Y.-H. (2012). From knowledge sharing to knowledge creation: A blended knowledge-management model for improving university students' creativity. Thinking Skills and Creativity, 7(3), 245–257. https://www.learntechlib.org/p/89082/
- Young, S. C. (2003). Integrating ICT into second language education in a vocational high school. Journal of Computers Assisted Learning, 19, 447–461. doi: https://doi.org/10.1046/j.0266-4909.2003.00049.x
- Zoupidis, A., Pnevmatikos, D., Spyrtou, A., & Kariotoglou, P. (2010). The gradual approach of the nature and role of models as means to enhance 5th grade students' epistemological awareness. In G. Cakmakci & M.F. Tasar (Eds.). Contemporary Science Education Research: Learning and Assessment. (pp. 415–423). Ankara, Turkey: Pegem Akademi.

k linkhardt

This leadership practice oriented book brings together empirical qualitative research and teaching / learning approaches.

The monograph consists of nine original parts, which present empirical evidence that teachers implement creative and servant leadership, also through leadership they help students express themselves, create opportunities for students utilise their ideas in the name of better learning achievements, teacher leadership helps to create meaningful learning for students and strengthen their motivation to learn. This book is empirical evidence that the essential vector of teacher leadership is student learning.



The Author

Vilma Žydžiūnaitė is PhD (education and nursing), Full Professor at Education Academy and Director of Educational Research Institute at Vytautas Magnus University, Lithuania. She founded the

School of Social Researcher and is the pioneer of academic publicity of qualitative research methodology in Lithuania. She has conducted over 180 seminars, published over 170 articles, over 10 books on research methodology and leadership.

978-3-7815-2708-9

