

Suitably Adapted Education in an Inclusive Educational Setting or A Curricular Approach to Inclusive Education Some Thoughts concerning Practice, Innovation and Research

Key note lecture, 27. Annual International Conference of Integration and Inclusion Studies
University of Leipzig 20-23. February 2013

Berit H. Johnsen, Department of Special Needs Education, University of Oslo

Abstract

Suitably Adapted Education in an Inclusive Educational Setting or A Curricular Approach to Inclusive Education - Some Thoughts concerning Practice, Innovation and Research

Berit H. Johnsen, Department of Special Needs Education, University of Oslo

What is inclusion? What are necessary prerequisites for educational inclusion? And how is it possible to construct a bridge between the principle of inclusion and practices related to the multiplicity of different pupils in the joint class or group? The questions challenge practitioners as well as researchers to consider what “professional tools” are available in order to plan, practice, assess and revise in the process towards full inclusion.

This article presents a curricular or didactic approach which has been applied as a professional tool for innovation towards inclusion. Within research the same main topics or aspects set the perspective for research on practice, such as in classroom studies. The approach is founded on a guiding curriculum relation model consisting of eight; or seven + one main areas of the teaching-learning situation and -process; the pupil/s - assessment - educational intentions - educational content - methods and organisation - communication – care – and context or frame factors.

Angepasste Bildung im Inklusiven Klasse oder Ein Lehrplanübergreifenden Ansatz zur Inklusiven Bildung - Gedanken über Praxis, Innovation und Forschung

Berit H. Johnsen, Institut für Heilpädagogik, Universität Oslo

Was ist Inklusion? Was sind notwendige Voraussetzungen für pädagogische Inklusion? Und wie ist es möglich, eine Brücke zwischen dem Prinzip der Inklusion und Praktiken in Bezug zu konstruieren, in Zusammenhang mit der Vielzahl von verschiedenen Schülern in der gemeinsamen Klasse oder Gruppe? Die Fragen fordern Praktiker sowie Wissenschaftler zu überlegen, was für "professionelle Werkzeuge" sind verfügbar, um zu planen, praktizieren, bewerten und zu überarbeiten, im Prozess zur vollständigen Inklusion.

Dieser Vortrag präsentiert einen lehrplanübergreifenden oder didaktischen Ansatz, der als professionelles Werkzeug für Innovation zur Inklusion angewendet wurde. Die gleichen Themen oder Aspekte gesetzt die Perspektive für Forschung an der Praxis, wie im Klassenzimmer Studien. Der Ansatz ist auf einem führenden lehrplanübergreifenden Modell gegründet bestehend aus acht oder sieben + ein Hauptbereiche der Lehr-Lernsituation und

Prozess; der Schüler/n - Bewertung - - pädagogische Absichten - pädagogische Inhalte - Methoden und Organisation - Kommunikation - Achtsamkeit - und Kontext oder Rahmen Faktoren.

Introduction

What is inclusion? What are necessary prerequisites for educational inclusion? And how is it possible to construct a bridge between the principle of inclusion and practices related to the multiplicity of different pupils in the joint class or group? The questions challenge politicians as well as researchers and practitioners.

Focus in this presentation is on development towards educational inclusion in the local school for all. Educational inclusion is seen as the global policy prescribing development towards a local regular school that welcomes all children with their unique individual characteristics, interests, abilities and learning needs; all children with and without special needs and disabilities; a school combating discriminatory attitudes, and offering a meaningful and individually adapted education to every pupil within the community of the class (Frederickson & Cline, 2002; Johnsen, 2000; 2007; UNESCO, 1994). This description of main characteristics of inclusion was baseline of a common project plan for international comparative classroom studies towards the inclusive school; a joint research project between the universities of Belgrade, Ljubljana, Sarajevo, Skopje, Tuzla, Zagreb and Oslo (WB 04/06). This understanding of educational inclusion is in line with Stainback and Stainback's (1990 in Igrić & Cvitković, in press 2012) description of an inclusive school as a place where everyone belongs, is accepted, supports, and is supported by his/her peers and other members of the school community in the course of having his/her educational needs met. Together the two statements are complementary. They are both in accordance with and more rich on details than UNESCO's introductory outlines of inclusion in the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (1994). The conceptual descriptions support and supplement each other with additional nuances.

The mentioned UNESCO statement on inclusion and the later UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006), confirming the principle of inclusion, is accepted by a large majority of governments. However, questions about how to implement the principle of educational inclusion in single states and local schools have not yet found satisfactory

answers in spite of a large number of innovation- and research projects worldwide¹. To change from the deep-rooted tradition of competitive whole class teaching to inclusive practices based on cooperation across diversities in the multitude pupil group, represents a major turn in professional knowledge, skills and attitudes of the regular teacher, special needs educator and other stakeholders in school. It is fair to say that no country has reached fully inclusive schooling practices. Development towards inclusion is in its beginning phase in a continuous struggle for dominance amongst a variety of different and even contradictory educational trends. The attention of research and innovation towards inclusion has been directed from many angles such as national policies, financial priorities, reorganisation of educational structures and educational strategies.

This presentation focuses on the school's inner activity and development of inclusive practices. The main question concerns how to construct a bridge between the principle of inclusion and practices related to individual pupils as partners of the joint class or group. The question challenges practitioners as well as researchers to consider what “professional tools” are available in order to plan, practice, evaluate and move on in the process towards full inclusion. In the following a curricular approach is presented which has been applied as a professional tool for innovation towards inclusion, and by researchers as a set of main topics or aspects setting the perspective for research on practice. The approach is founded on a curriculum relation model consisting of eight; or seven + one main areas of the teaching-learning situation and -process. The curricular main areas or aspects are all in continuous interrelationship with each other - and with the intended users of the tool, the practitioner and the researcher. The main areas are:

- the pupil/s
- educational intentions
- educational content
- methods and organisation
- assessment
- communication
- care

- context / frame factors

¹ UNESCO's homepage contains some information, discussions and practical guidelines towards Inclusive Education (<http://portal.unesco.org/education/en/ev.>)

The seven aspects are concerned with the inner activity of schooling; of the teaching-learning situation and process on micro level, and have as the point of departure in what may be called a bottom-up perspective, where the individual pupils and their curricula are at the core of attention. The seven aspects are embraced by contextual aspects within which the inner activity of schooling is situated; a context consisting of several frame-factors, which tend to be perceived in a top-down perspective, interrelating with each other and with the seven main aspects.

The chapter continues with further discussions of the transition from the general principle of inclusion to inclusive practices, followed by preliminary clarifications of key concepts. Then the Curriculum Relation Model is presented, before each of the eight main aspects are discussed and exemplified with some potential sub-aspects and practical applications. After that the text revisits the transition from principle to practice and concludes with some reflections on innovation and research on inclusive practices.

From general principles towards a curricular approach to inclusive practices

After more than a century with segregated institution building for persons with disabilities throughout Europe and on other continents, an ideological turn took place in the decades after the Second World War. The backdrop of this turn was the disclosure of the Nazi genocide of Jews, Romani and disabled as part of the realization of racist and eugenic ideology.

This ideological turn started as a Nordic phenomenon related to the social-democratic welfare system that had developed through the twentieth century. Denmark and Sweden opened the new discourse. Normalisation became a key concept at this early stage. The first known implementation of the principle of normalisation was initiated in Denmark by Niels Bank-Mikkelsen as early as 1959 in collaboration with parents of children with developmental impairment. Holding a leading position in the Danish Ministry of Social Affairs, Bank-Mikkelsen listened to the voices of parents who did not want to leave their disabled children to institutions. Instead they asked for local services in order to make them able to bring up their children at home with professional support to cater for habilitation, learning and development. Bengt Nirje from Sweden gave the first systematic description of the concept.

Normalization means sharing a normal rhythm of the day, with privacy, activities, and mutual responsibilities; a normal rhythm of the week, with a home to live in, a school

or work to go to, and leisure time with a modicum of social interaction; a normal rhythm of the year, with the changing modes and ways of life and of family and community customs as experienced in the different seasons of the year” (Nirje in Flynn & Nitsch, 1980:32-33).

These first ideas spread to the rest of the western world. In USA Wolf Wolfensberger adapted the concept of normalisation to American society. Syracuse University, where Wolfensberger worked, became an incubator of scholars arguing and doing research in the field of normalisation (Bank-Mikkelsen, 1980; Kirkebæk, 2001; Johnsen, 2001; Wolfensberger, 1980).

A huge wave of system critic rolled into international discourse, focusing on the vulnerability of institutions to neglect, abuse and cover up, and of isolated life conditions for children and adults with disabilities. The wave hit institutions for disabled hard on both sides of the Atlantic Ocean; as it also did with orphanages. In Norway, journalists revealed harsh and unethical conditions for children with developmental disabilities. Parents started to organise in NGOs (nongovernmental organisations). NFU - Norwegian Association for People with Developmental Disabilities, which was founded in 1967, had and has on their main agenda equal rights, the local school and society for all and inclusion.

Concerning education, Norway fronted the Nordic turn towards the school for all² with the so-called *Blom Report* (KUF, 1970). Here the principle of integration was introduced explicitly based on the following criteria of individual rights:

- a) Belongingness in a social community
- b) Participation in the benefits of the community
- c) Joint responsibility for tasks and obligations

Following up the *Blom Report*, the last Norwegian “special school” law was abolished and matters of special education were integrated into the Educational Act in 1975. The new main principle was that all children should refer to one and the same educational act. These principles were described in more details in the Act of 1969/75 and in current act (Education

² The concept «the school for all” is rooted back to early Modernity, and has appeared in educational debate on different occasions. The Czech educational scholar Johan Amos Comenius (1592-1670) described how to “teach everybody everything”, and argued that education needs to include everyone regardless of position. The German Lutheran theologian and educational scholar August Hermann Francke (1663-1727) carried on Comenius’ thoughts and realised them in a major schooling project in Halle. The Danish and Norwegian non-payment school was inspired by Francke’s project, and the first Educational Act regarding what is currently the Norwegian elementary school, from 1739, stated that the school should be “for each and everybody” (Forordning, 1739; Francke in Kramer, 1885; Kroksmark, 1987; Johnsen, 2000; Myhre, 1970). When the concept “the school for all” appears through history it is, however, always reason to ask what is meant by “all”. Who are all? This is also a crucial question in current discourse.

Act; 1969/75; 1999/05). Three main pillars in Norwegian education acts and national curricula after the turn in 1975 outlines the principle of the school for all, or the inclusive school in the local society for all. Those are:

1) The School shall have room for everybody and teachers must therefore have an eye for each individual learner. The mode of teaching must not only be adapted to subject and content, but also to age and maturity, the individual learner and the mixed abilities of the entire class (L, 1997:35)

This passage secures the right for all children to attend their own local regular school. This right was pronounced in the Educational Act (1969/75. See also Educational Act, 1999/2005, section 13-1).

2) Teaching shall be adapted to the abilities and aptitudes of individual pupils, apprentices and trainees (Educational Act, 1999/2005, section 1-2)

3) Pupils who either do not or are unable to benefit satisfactorily from ordinary instruction have the right to special education (Educational Act, 1999/2005, section 5-1).

The right to special education is described in more details in following sections of the Act. With its statements in current Education Act (1999/2005) and National Curriculum, Norwegian educational policy has taken fundamental steps towards equal rights to meaningful and individually adapted education within the collective of the local regular school. The principles are related to preschool, primary, lower and upper secondary education. Thus the general principles concerning the school for all and educational inclusion are laid down in laws and related policy documents.

Relevant legislation is important, but not sufficient to realise educational inclusion. The next key question therefore concerns how to transfer general policy principles of inclusion to inclusive practices in school. This chapter discusses how the eight curricular aspects introduced above provide a basis for this transfer. Focus on the eight curricular aspects as an approach to create meaningful learning conditions adapted to every single pupil and to the joint community of the class, may be seen as a milestone developed during more than three decades through practical work, innovation and research. Current curricular focus is assumed to go through further changes in years to come, since developing inclusive practices is a dynamic and flexible venture. My engagement in this development started in the two Nordic countries, Iceland and Norway, who followed each other with similar educational legislation, and later in cooperation with a number of other countries in Europe and on other continents. One of these countries is Croatia. I have worked together with teachers, school leaders,

parents and pupils as special needs educational advisor. I have been responsible for developing, leading and lecturing in higher education and international Master programs in special needs education. My research is focused on what I choose to call the inner activity of schooling, and is based on curricular-didactic theory. During the years Lev Vygotsky and followers' cultural-historic theory on the relationship between teacher and pupil through communication, mediation, learning and development in context came to be an important contribution to understanding the inner activity of schooling. Relationships between deep-rooted curricular-didactic traditions and cultural-historical approach have therefore been explored and comparison and transfer of concepts between the two main theories have been attempted (Vygotsky, 1978; Cole, 1996). One of my larger works in this field is a historical study of ideas about a school for all (Johnsen, 2000). Another is a longitudinal classroom study of inclusive practices, which is also the Norwegian contribution to an international comparative classroom study towards inclusion consisting of contributions from seven European universities (Johnsen, in press 2012). The publication process of this comparative study is on-going.

The international comparative classroom study applied the current eight curricular main aspects as a common denominator (Johnsen, in press, 2012). Choice of curricular main categories and their interrelationship as well as sub-categories had then been in development through educational practice, innovation, research and dialogue with a number of groups of students, teachers, special needs educators and researchers in and from several countries. Dialogues with practitioners and students were especially fruitful in the continuous process of revision and clarification of curricular focus in different contexts.

In the following the curricular main aspects and interrelationships is illustrated as a curriculum relation model. Some main areas of application are suggested, and each curricular main area is made the subject of description and discussion, but before that some main concepts used in this chapter are given short clarifications.

Key concepts

A set of key concepts are in the forefront in this chapter and are therefore given specific attention and clarification. They are the diverse class, the school for all and inclusion; individually adapted education and differentiation; curriculum and didactic.

The diverse class and school in relation to the school for all and inclusion. It is necessary to clarify the difference between inclusion and a diverse class, meaning a class consisting of pupils with different levels of mastery and needs for educational support. The reason is that diverse classes all too often are called inclusive classes. What characterises an inclusive class is that all pupils with their diverse educational needs are taught in accordance with their individual needs.

Inclusion is one of the main concepts highlighted in the title of the chapter. Since it is frequently used and, as just mentioned, in different interpretations, it is important to clarify how it is applied in this chapter, as was done in the very beginning of the chapter. Inclusive practices have also already been mentioned. They represent educational and special needs educational practices that support the belongingness to the class for all its members. They may be actions directed towards one, a group or all the pupils in the class. An example of inclusive practice is to plan one joint topic consisting of a number of differentiated learning tasks in accordance with the proximal learning possibilities (Vygotsky, 1978) of each and every pupil in the class.

The concepts representing the eight curricular main areas are clarified and discussed in later sections of the chapter. It applies for these as for all concepts that they are not given a definition once and for all, but are discussed, clarified and revised as new aspects are revealed. Thus concepts are seen as dynamic and flexible and their meaning varies in different contexts (Johnsen, 2000). Two central pairs of concepts are shortly clarified; the first pair is individually adapted education and differentiation, the second is curriculum and didactic.

Individually adapted education and differentiation. As pointed out earlier, in Norway, and similarly in Iceland, the school shall provide equitable and suitably adapted education for everyone in a co-ordinated system of education, based on the same national curriculum (Johnsen 1998; Royal Norwegian Ministry of Education, Research and the Church 1996:21-22). This is possible because the national curricula of the two countries are so-called framework plans, meaning that they are open to flexibility and adaptation related to local contexts as well as individual differences. All pupils are entitled to education that gives due consideration to individual aptitudes and abilities. This is called the principle of individually or suitably adapted education. It relates to all pupils and calls for a more or less detailed individual educational plan or curriculum for each single pupil together with flexibility in the classroom teaching managed within the regular recourses assigned to the class. In accordance

with this principle, pupils with disabilities and special educational needs are in addition to regular resources, entitled to special education provisions and resources. The point of departure is the making, implementing and continuous revision of the individual pupil's educational curriculum in tight, but flexible connection with the curriculum for the class. Focus on individual curricula resembles a bottom-up perspective to educational flexibility with its starting point on the needs of the single pupils.

Conversely, and as an important overlapping perspective to the focus on individual curricula, is what may be called the top-down perspective of educational differentiation. Differentiation means to give different learning tasks to pupils with different proximal learning possibilities. Variation in study content, learning task, length of study content and length of time to solve a learning task are traditional ways of differentiating. Darlene Perner and her international project group (UNESCO, 2004: 14) describe differentiation in the following way:

Curriculum education, then, is the process of modifying or adapting the curriculum according to the different ability levels of the students in one class. Teachers can adapt or differentiate the curriculum by changing: the content, methods for teaching and learning content (sometimes referred to as the process), and, the methods of assessment (sometimes referred to as the products)

This understanding is in line with the proclamation of the right of all pupils to meaningful and individually adapted education found in Norwegian and Icelandic educational policy and national curricula. Thus Perner's wide definition of differentiation practices is compatible to the use of individual curricula, when these are planned and implemented within the joint frames of all pupils in a class. The art is to make plans that are at the same time meaningful to each pupil and also function for the whole class.

The metaphor "concerted actions" is a beautiful illustration of the combined practicing of individual adaptation and differentiation in order to create meaningful learning processes for all pupils in a class or group (Booth, 2000). The metaphor views the class as an orchestra, where the pupils have different roles, but together they create a holistic learning performance, like musicians in a symphony orchestra.

Curriculum³. In this chapter the individual curriculum or the individual plan and program is seen as a basic tool in the implementation of individually adapted education. The two concepts, curriculum and **didactic**, are used similarly. Even though applied with somewhat

³ The concept individual curriculum is used synonymously with individual plan and program, which is more often applied in West Balkan discourse, and which may also be seen in other international texts.

different points of departure and used unevenly in different educational discourses and countries (didactics is seldom used in English discourse and, when used, often with negative connotation), current extended use encourages to use them similarly (Johnsen, 2000).

Curriculum is also a key concept for Perner and colleagues as seen in the quotation above. Let us take a look at how they describe the concept and how they point on a serious dilemma many teachers all over the world experience related to their national curriculum.

Curriculum is what is learned and what is taught (context); how it is delivered (teaching –learning methods); how it is assessed (exams, for example); and the resources used (e. g. books used to deliver and support teaching and learning). [...]

Often we, as teachers base our curriculum content, the “formal curriculum”, on a prescribed set of educational outcomes or goals. Because this formal curriculum may be prescribed by authority, teachers feel constrained and often implement it rigidly. Teachers feel that they cannot make changes to or decisions about this type of prescribed curriculum including the predetermined textbook selection. As a result teachers are bound to teaching from textbook and to the “average” group of students. In many countries teachers do this because the system has content-loaded examinations that students must pass and teacher success is measured by students’ performance on these examinations (UNESCO, 2004: 13).

This wide interpretation of the concept curriculum gives space for both details and perspective. It contains similar details on micro- or classroom level as the curriculum relation model presented below⁴. The wide interpretation of curriculum also gives room for a micro-macro dimension similar to the classic ecological curricular model of Goodlad (1979). In accordance with this understanding, curricula are developed on different levels. National curriculum is developed within the frames of educational acts and other superior policy papers (this is what Perner and colleagues call “formal curriculum” above). Local or school curriculum is developed within the frames of national curriculum and the particular social-economic and cultural characteristics of the local community. Class curriculum is developed within the frames of the national and local curriculum and – in the perspective of inclusion - in accordance with the level of mastery and proximal learning possibilities of all the pupils in the class. Individual curriculum is developed within the frames of the class curriculum and in accordance with the level of mastery, proximal learning possibilities and mediation needs of the individual pupil. However, when a national curriculum is too rigid to allow necessary adaptation to individual learning needs, as Perner and colleagues also pointed out above,

⁴ The Curriculum Relation Model was first presented outside the University of Oslo at Pedagoška Akademija, current Faculty of Education, University of Sarajevo, in a different version (Johnsen, 1998; 2001; 2007).

adapting the individual curriculum within the frames of national curriculum is not sufficient. Then individual and joint class curricula need to extend national curriculum.

A Curriculum Relation Model

The eight main curricular aspects or arenas; the pupil/s – assessment - educational intentions - educational content - class organisation and teaching methods – communication - care – context or frame factors; are rooted in educational and special needs educational traditions. The aspects, the pupil/s, assessment, educational intentions, educational content, and methods & classroom organisation, are classical categories rooted back to Plato and ancient Greek traditions. They are commonplace categories and parts of a joint European educational heritage (Johnsen, 2000).

The aspects communication and care represent an extension of the curriculum field, arising out of current humanistic special needs educational discourse with links to regular education, psychology and other related research disciplines (Befring, 1997; Johnsen, 2001; 2007; Noddings, 1992; 2003). The emphasis on communication in relation to the other seven curricular aspects stems from culture-historical approach to learning in context. Vygotsky (1978) argues that to know the pupil's level of mastery is necessary, but not sufficient. The educator also needs to know the level of potential development, which is found through assessing the pupil's problem solving under the teacher's guidance or in cooperation with more competent peers. Vygotsky states that learning is a social activity based on interaction between learner and environment, that the main mediating tool for learning is communication, and that the optimal quality of learning is determined by the learner's cultural-historical environment. His concept 'the proximal zone of development' represents a core argument underlying the development of current Curriculum Relation Model as a professional tool. Related concepts, developed by Vygotsky and post-Vygotskian scholars, such as dialogue (Bakhtin, 1986; Rommetveit, 1992), mediation (Rye, 2001; Wertsch, 1991), apprenticeship (Rogoff, 1990; 2003) and scaffolding (Berk & Winsler, 1995; Rogoff, 1990; Sehic, Karlsdóttir & Guðmundsdóttir, 2005) are embedded in the culture-historical discourse and contributes with knowledge within the same arena of education as curricular-didactic discourse, namely the teaching-learning relationship.

Culture-historical approach together with the related discourse on educational ecology (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Goodlad,1979) highlights the important connection between the inner activity of the school and context, which is the eighth main aspect of the Curriculum Relation Model. This aspect deals with the relation between individual and class curricula on micro-level, and local as well as national and international contextual factors on macro-level, such as national policy and curriculum, economic and physical factors and a number of different cultural and historical aspects, that create possibilities and barriers for inclusive practices.

The important interrelationship between the eight aspects may be illustrated with a model. The model is inspired by North American curricular discourse from the mid-twentieth century on (Herrick, 1950; Tylor, 1949; Johnsen, 2000) It is a modification and further extension of Bjørndal and Lieberg's (1978) *Didactic Relation Model*; a well-known model in different modifications to Norwegian teachers, special needs educators, officials on all levels of educational governance and researchers. Their model has been further extended and revised, basic focus is moved to the individual pupil in the class together with special needs educational aspects. In its current form the model is also known to participants in the former Bosnia- and West Balkan projects (SØE 06/02; WB 04/06; Johnsen, 2001; 2007; in press 2013).

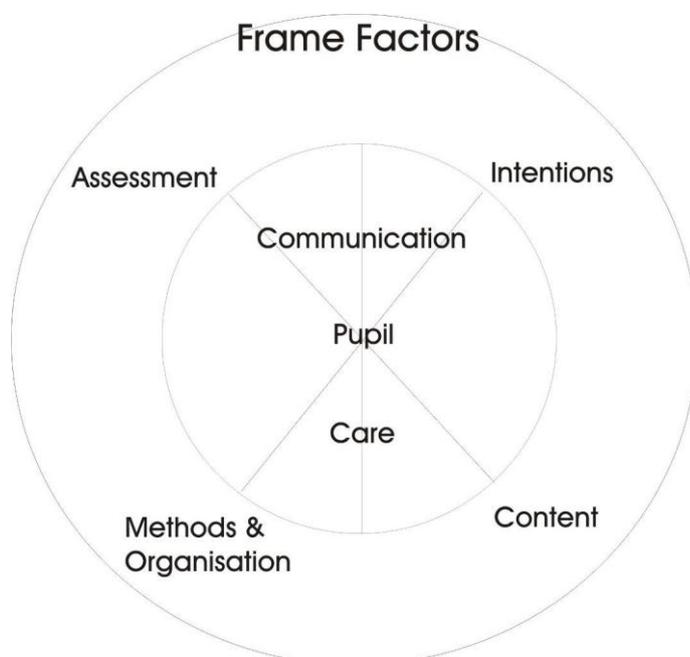


Figure: *The Curriculum Relation Model revised in Johnsen (2007)*

Some modifications are necessary when a model is applied. First and foremost it is important to have in mind that no model is able to illustrate reality with all its complexity. Models are always simplifications and every model is a result of priorities of some aspects of reality and at the same time opting out of other. What models can do, and this model specifically, is to contribute to an overview of the complex area of curriculum making. This model also indicates relationships between the different curricular main aspects as is discussed below. But before each aspect is described further, different areas of application are highlighted.

Areas of application. The Curriculum Relation Model and its eight main areas is an example of a professional tool to help create relevant learning and teaching situations promoting the plurality of individual and special needs of all the pupils in a classroom setting⁵. It can be applied in connection with different educational questions and problems:

- As a guide to an overview of vital aspects and processes related to learning and teaching
- To support awareness of the continuous interrelationship between the above mentioned aspects and processes
- As a guide to asking necessary questions, to discovering important sub-aspects and processes, to gathering relevant knowledge and to training teaching skills within and between each of the main aspects, aiming towards fulfilment of the plurality of different educational needs and capacities of the pupils in the inclusive class and school
- As a guide to long-term as well as to short-term curricular planning
- As a frame for systematic work in planning, implementing and evaluating the relationship between teaching and learning for individual pupils as well as for groups and whole classes
- As arenas of focus, clarification and delimitation in research on practice and theory

The following presentation mainly focuses on how each main aspect of the Curriculum Relation Model may contribute to inclusive practices. The discussions are based on my articles presented in 1998 and 2001. New experience and knowledge is added from the mentioned long-term innovation project in Bosnia-Herzegovina (Johnsen, 2007), further knowledge is generated from idea historic research as well as longitudinal classroom studies (Johnsen, 2000; in press, 2013; unpublished) and from the international comparative

⁵ Some has asked: “Where is the teacher in the model?” The answer is that the teacher is not in the model. The teacher applies the model as a tool in planning, implementing and revising individual and class curricula.

classroom studies implemented together with my colleagues from the universities of Belgrade, Ljubljana, Sarajevo, Skopje, Tuzla, Zagreb and Oslo (WB 04/06).

The pupil and pupils

Why does the teacher and special needs educator need to know their pupils in order to make a meaningful and individually adapted curriculum? And what do they need to know about their pupil? The main attention in this discussion is on the single pupil. However, it is important to have in mind all single pupils in the group or class as well as the diverse class as a joint holistic entity.

The pupil or the learner is, of course, the ultimate user of education and therefore the main agent in focus in the Curriculum Relation Model. The experience, knowledge, skills and attitudes of the learner, the mastery, capacities, possibilities, interests and mentoring⁶ needs, but also worries and fears have to be seen in relation to the education she or he is a part of. This view is in accordance with classical child-centred educational traditions, and I accepted my Master students' arguments for placing the pupil in the centre of the Model as a reminder of this fundamental educational principle (Dewey, 1916/2002; UNESCO, 1994). The opposite position is found in discipline-centred education, with its overall focus on teaching in accordance with the logic and content of the discipline. Discipline-centred education seems to have a deep-rooted and strong position within teaching, often combined with one-sided discipline or norm related assessment of the pupils' learning results. This kind of teaching and assessing is in opposition to individually adapted education in a diverse pupil group.

Development towards inclusion therefore calls for the following changes:

- From narrow discipline-centred towards learner-centred education
- From narrow assessment of the pupils' learning products towards an extended assessment of all aspects of the teaching-learning situation, process and results.

When we focus on the pupil, there are many factors influencing our understanding as teachers and special needs educators. These factors are derived from a number of different and even antagonistic ideas and traditions, from theoretical and practical knowledge and also from

⁶ Mentor is originally a Greek word, meaning an experienced and trusted adviser. Knowles (1975) uses the concept in his description of the teacher as a facilitator for adult learners, but it may be used learners of all ages. Of the three terms, teacher, mentor and mediator, applied here, the term mediator is taken from socio-cultural approach and applied by Feuerstein and his associates (1991), Rye (2001;2005).

concrete experience with pupils. Our views of the nature of mankind, of childhood and of learning are fundamental to what we are looking for concerning the pupil, and how we interpret our findings. Such basic views are historically and culturally determined as well as subjectively constituted and therefore different from culture to culture and from educator to educator. They are also more or less conscious (Johnsen, 2000). An important component in reflecting on our understanding of the pupil (and of all other issues, for that matter) is therefore to focus our attention on, to be conscious of and to put into words our own view of mankind, of childhood and of the nature of learning. Accordingly, professional educational and special needs educational understanding of the learner is based on knowledge on the following levels:

- General knowledge about learning and development
- Knowledge about disability-specific learning strategies
- Knowledge about individual learning strategies, interests and communication types and styles.

Our stand in general theory of learning and development mirrors our self-concept as teachers. Thus, within socio-cultural theory the teacher is presented as a mediator (Feuerstein, 1990; Rye, 2001). Rogoff (1990) describes the teacher – pupil relationship as that between a master and a novice or apprentice, where the apprentice strives to reach the level of mastery of the teacher through using the mediating or cultural tools the teacher demonstrates for her or him. How do we learn and how do we develop? Different traditions have different answers to these questions. In this chapter Vygotsky's (1978:84) discussion of learning and development is in focus. He stated that "... in making one step in learning, a child makes two steps in development, that is, learning and development do not coincide". He explained his point in the following way:

Once a child has learned to perform an operation, he thus assimilates some structural principle whose sphere of application is other than just the operations of the type on whose basis the principle was assimilated (Vygotsky, 1978:83-84).

So, according to Vygotsky, development is a consequence of learning, which again "... presupposes a specific social nature and a process by which children grow into the intellectual life of those around them" (Vygotsky, 1978:88). Learning takes place within what Vygotsky called the zone of proximal development. He described this zone in the following way:

It is the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through

problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978:86).

According to this statement, educator, classmates and the adaptation of the learning and teaching situation and process as a whole are crucial to learning. Consequently, assessing only the pupil's independent learning achievement gives but a part of all the information that is necessary in order to plan for further learning and development. A whole range of influencing factors concerning the learning and teaching environment needs to be considered. The Curriculum Relation Model is an example of a "professional tool" offering an overview of some of the main aspects of this complex phenomenon.

How can we learn to know the pupil? This question will be answered to some extent related to assessment. In the following the question is limited to three key informants and co-operation partners concerning the pupil in relation to learning and school; the learner, parents and teachers. The most important informant is of course **the pupil**. Learning and teaching needs are assessed through regular communication and through formal and informal assessment of the learner's work and working strategies. It is important to encourage pupils to participate in a dialogue about their education. Even more important is to listen carefully to the pupils' voices, to listen to what their interests, priorities and worries are, and to understand what learning strategies they manage and prefer.

Parents are essential partners in assessing pupils' needs and interests; in reflecting over long-term aims as well as other aspects of making and re-evaluating individual curricula. As a rule they have a great deal of information about their children. Moreover parents need information from teachers about their children's rights and possibilities. Regular exchange of information and co-operation with the parents proved to be important and fruitful in individual curricular cooperation with parents in a higher education program in special needs education for practicing teachers on East Iceland (Johnsen, 1988). There are several ways to arrange co-operation and exchange of information with parents. If circumstances allow, it is a great advantage to prepare the first meeting carefully. In my experience, no matter how small the difficulty may seem to us educators, parents feel sorrow and are concerned about their child's future. In addition many parents are insecure to school and uncomfortable before their first meeting with teachers, special needs educator and other possible advisers or experts. If there is a prepared written document with proposals for an individual curriculum, this might help focusing the attention on the matter, which is the learning and teaching of the pupil.

The teacher is a third key source to an overall overview of individual learning potentials and possible special needs in a class setting. By teacher is here meant all who have worked with or are working with the pupil; **regular class teachers, subject teachers, special needs educators and assistants**. Ideally they should be part of a working team with regular meetings and clear co-ordination of responsibility (Dalen 1982; Dyson, 1998; Fox & Williams, 1991; Johnsen, 2007; Strickland & Turnbull, 1993). Assessment and reassessment of individual special learning needs is one of their issues. In Norwegian primary schools the classroom teacher has the formal responsibility for all pupils in the class, but special needs educators often carry out large parts of the individual curriculum planning. In my classroom study the head master played a key role in cooperation with all the teachers, parents and external advisory institutions. She was said to know the name of every pupil in her school. During the study the school started a resource team consisting of head master, special needs educator and teacher, in order to cater for vulnerable pupils (Johnsen, in press 2013)⁷. Such resource teams are currently usual in Norwegian schools. My colleagues at the University of Zagreb carried out an innovation project where regular teachers got additional support in the diverse classroom in cooperation with NGOs. Assistants were hired to participate in the classroom work and special needs educators gave advices regarding individual educational plans and practicing (Igrić & Cvitković, in press 2013). In several countries external institutions support and participate with schools in gathering relevant knowledge about pupils. The institutions differ between countries and may be local or more central educational-medical, educational-psychological or special needs educational service teams and support centres, which are potential or obligatory co-operative partners with schools. Members of other professions like medical practitioners, child welfare and social workers and in some cases even representatives of police forces, religious leaders or sport coaches may be potential co-operating partners in some cases. Co-operation may vary from one brief meeting, to partnership in regional, national or international network over several years. Special needs educational work often calls for cross-disciplinary team work. It is important that ordinary teachers are self-evident participants in such networking for the school to develop towards the principle of inclusion.

What do teachers need to know about their pupil? The question is related to ethical principles of privacy for pupils and families. An important first aspect of this principle is that teacher

⁷ References to the seven classroom studies participating in the WB 04/06 project relate to research plans since the results are not published in English yet.

and school should not contact external advisers without informed consent of parents. This leads the attention to “the important conversation or conversations” with parents, building trust and inviting to co-operation. Another important point is that not all information about the pupil is relevant to the school. Many aspects belong to the pupil’s and the family’s privacy. It takes a sensitive ethical balancing to distinguish between relevant information and private information that should not be used or remember. Only in cases when there is reason to suspect child negligence or abuse the school should inform the child welfare service, which according to Norwegian law is the only institution which may override parental decision-making rights over their children.

Assessment

To assess and evaluate is to gather, interpret and reflect on a variety of information in order to adjust the direction towards a future aim. Educational assessment and evaluation consists of considerations and judgements about teaching and learning environments, processes and results, and about their contextual relations. In special needs education assessment and evaluation draw attention to specific barriers, possibilities and adaptations concerning teaching and learning environments, processes and results, and their contextual relations. Thus, much information about the learner is derived from assessment.

Traditionally the pupils have been in the focus of assessment. Their learning achievements have been measured and given marks in comparison with the other pupils in the class as well as in nation-wide relational product assessments. At the bottom of – or even below – such norm referenced marking scales, we find pupils with a variety of individual and special learning needs. In this way some pupils are stigmatised and even degraded from “the good company” of the class or school, often with serious consequences for their educational and personal self-image. Assessment has also played a decisive role in decisions concerning placement of children outside ordinary classes in special classes and units, in special schools, or even outside the educational system in social or health institutions. This kind of assessment for segregation purposes is still more or less practised in all countries, despite international and national official intentions about the promotion of diversity in the inclusive school.

According to the principle of inclusion and the basic ideas underlying the Curriculum Relation Model, the purpose of assessment and evaluation is neither to give marks nor to

place pupils in segregated environments. On the contrary it is characterised by being extensive, flexible and dynamic.

- Extensive because it concerns more than assessing the pupils' learning products
- Flexible because form and content of assessment is supposed to be adapted to individual pupils as well as classes and schools.
- Dynamic because the assessment is intended to take place in dialogue between teachers, special needs educators, pupils and parents.

In spite of the critique of assessment traditions above, co-operation aiming towards inclusion, indicates that schools discover new ways of using assessment tools they already possess, as well as developing new ones. In my experience as special needs educational supervisor, lecturer and leader of innovation and research projects, the school has developed a number of different assessment procedures of more or less informal character in addition to formal tests. Many and different assessment practices have been described focusing on individual learning processes, such as observation of activities in school, homework and dialogue with pupil and parents. Concerning product assessment the school also have demonstrated a series of practices concerning step by step evaluation. Schools have been genuinely interested in developing individual curricula, or plans and programs, and have showed interest in adapting assessment practices to this development. This applies to co-operating schools in Iceland and to the Norwegian school participating in my longitudinal study (Johnsen in press 2013). 72 Bosnian teachers, special needs educators and researchers who participated in an innovation project from 2003 to 2005, reported a number of assessment tools and approaches which they applied in their assessment of individual curricula (Johnsen, 2007). When the different assessment methods were summed up the number of categories related to questions was⁸:

- How do you assess the pupil's level of mastery and nearest possibilities to learn and develop?: 13 assessment methods or approaches
- How do you assess and revise relevant long-term goals and short-term objectives of learning-teaching?: 4 assessment methods or approaches
- How do you assess and revise learning strategies - teaching methods and classroom organisation?: 3 assessment methods or approaches
- How do you assess and revise communication between pupil – teacher/s and pupil-pupil/s?: 7 assessment methods or approaches
- How do you assess and revise the care given to the pupil in the class?: 4 assessment methods or approaches

⁸ For detailed presentation of each category, see Johnsen, 2007, chapter 5.

- How do you assess and revise the long-term individual curriculum for a pupil with special needs in the class?: 9 assessment methods or approaches
- How do you assess and revise the long-term class curriculum in relation to revised curricula for an individual pupils with special needs in the class?: 3 assessment methods or approaches
- Assessing professional needs for upgrading: Whom (professions, institutions, etc.) would you seek cooperation and support from in discussing and answering your professional questions?: 5 different suggestions.

The first category presented with the question “ How do you assess the pupil’s level of mastery and nearest possibilities to learn and develop?” points directly to the two levels of mastery needed to be assessed according to Vygotsky’s (1978) arguments for the zone of proximal development. It is necessary to know the level of independent mastery in order to plan for the next educational steps, but it is not sufficient. We also need to know what the pupil is able to master “with a little help of a friend”; be it a fellow pupil or the teacher; in other words the pupil’s learning process together with others. In addition to clarify the importance of assessing both product and process of pupils’ learning, the statement of the proximal zone of development also places responsibility for adaptation of the learning process on the teacher and the making of all aspects of individual and class curricula. Consequently the purpose of assessment and evaluation might also be described as curriculum review; of all aspects and on all levels. This means review of individual curricula of all the pupils in the class, of class curricula, of school and local curricula, of specific curriculum programs, of the national curriculum and of curriculum debates at all levels (Johnsen, 2001). According to the Curriculum Relation Model what is to be assessed are all the eight main aspects with relevant sub-aspects, and the interrelationship between these aspects.

As indicated in examples above, a number of traditional assessment methods may be applied, not with the narrow goal of giving grades, but with extended intentions of reviewing the curriculum as a whole and shed light on relevant aspects of the teaching and learning process, of the nearest zone of development (Vygotsky, 1978) and of specific needs for support. When needed, more specialised assessment tools may be added and administered by special needs educators. The pupil, parents, teachers and special needs educator of the school working together on daily basis are in the best position to assess the concrete teaching and learning process. However, dialogue with external supporters with specific knowledge and experience

in relevant fields may shed new light and depth on the understanding and thereby result in alternative learning and teaching approaches.

The following are general examples of methods and approaches in individual assessment:

- Interviews and conversations
- Questionnaires
- Pupil's self evaluation
- Assessment as part of mediating
- Achievement tests
- Specific mastery or ability tests

Several of these may be recognised in the list of examples of assessment in group or class settings:

- Checklists
- Dialogue with the pupils
- Observations
- Logbook or diary
- Pupils' works
- Screening tests
- Portfolios

As pointed out above, the pupil is not the only part of the educational process that needs assessment. Parallel to assessing the pupil in relation to other aspects of curriculum, all curricular aspects need to be assessed in relation to the adaptation of the teaching and learning environment to the different needs of the pupils. This parallel thinking is in line with the principles and future aims this text is heading towards, which is inclusion and promotion of the diversity of individual educational possibilities and needs. Assessment of individual curriculum is both a continuous non-stop process and a series of "milestones" or long-term assessments. The continuous assessment process takes place through everyday teaching and assessing in a dialogue with individual pupils and the whole class, with the use of checklists, observations, gathering in portfolios and the use of logbook or diary. Regular systematic long-term assessment and revision of the individual curriculum may be implemented every semester and related to revision of class curricula. The "milestone" revisions should build on the foregoing short-term assessments and logbooks in teamwork between class-teacher, subject teachers and special needs educator. Some educational teams prefer to do long-term assessment more often than each semester.

The Curriculum Relation Model opens up for a contextual and ecological assessment of the quality of individually adapted education. Each of the eight curricular main areas is open to examination, and relevant and important sub-aspects may be identified and assessed in relation to the educational needs of the pupil. Thus the individual curriculum is tailored for each pupil in relation to the collective curricular levels represented by the class curriculum as well as local and national principles and conditions. Some pupils have specific needs in relation to a whole range of educational aspects, and consequently their individual curriculum needs to be extensive, while other individual curricula are more modest and less time-consuming to assess and revise.

When assessing school-related information, all involved teachers and special needs educators are important key informants as well as the pupil and the pupils' nearest environment outside school, as discussed in previous section. Background information gives access to contextual and ecological connections. The following questions might function as "door openers" for more accurate and detailed curriculum assessment:

- Is there a need for changing priorities within some of the frame factors?
- Should the concrete educational intentions be changed or repeated?
- How does the content suit the pupil's zone of proximal development, interests and need for support?
- How does the adaptation of content and learning environment correspond to the pupil's communication and learning strategies and speed?
- Does the individual curriculum lack any aspects of importance to the individual learning process?
- Are there any aspects of the individual curriculum that are not essential to the learning process and consequently should be taken away?
- Are the individual curricula and the class curriculum sufficiently related to make inclusion possible?

As already mentioned, in order to secure individually adapted education, the class curriculum needs to be assessed and revised in relation to the individual curriculum of all the pupils in the class. This does not mean that educational principles laid down in statutes and policy documents are neglected, since they are given space within the curriculum model in the two main areas 'frame factors' and 'intentions'. However, the starting point or base line for assessment and revision of the class curriculum is in a so-called bottom-up direction, starting with the educational needs of the pupils. This is contrary to traditional ordinary class curriculum planning, which has been based on a top-down perspective (Johnsen, 1998).

Educational intentions

Institutionalised education as in schools is as a rule built on intentions described in education acts and other policy documents. An important part of the professional work of teachers and special needs educators is to change general intentions into concrete and manageable goals through adapting them to the learning needs and possibilities of the pupils.

Society has a need to hand over traditions to new generations, supporting them to be responsible adult citizens and to develop new knowledge and skills for future society.

National education Acts reflect this in their aims⁹. On the other hand pupils have their own more or less clear-cut personal aims and preferences, distant future dreams and also concrete, immediate objectives. Choosing learning goals and objectives in an individual curriculum is therefore reasonably based on the three components:

- Aims and goals stated in education Acts and other official documents
- Individual aims, goals and objectives
- Assessment of the learner's knowledge, skills and learning potentials (Vygotsky's zone of proximal development discussed earlier).

Thus goals and objectives are expected to be “operationalised” or adapted to concrete educational actions within the framework of existing policy. If existing legislation and regulations are too limited to meet the educational needs of a pupil or a class, an exception from the legal requirements could be a short-term solution. In this process of adaptation dialogue and co-operation with the pupil is of essential importance. So, too, is co-operation with parents, co-teachers and other partners. Dialogue and co-operation are specifically important when the pupil has special needs. In addition to co-operation on concrete educational goals, alternative aims and goals concerning future personal and vocational possibilities also need to be discussed continuously.

As mentioned, many parents of children with special needs are anxious about their children's future. Regular dialogue between parents and school is important for development of realistic long-term plans. In cases of severe disabilities, co-operation also needs to be extended to other linking services. There is a need for holistic co-operation at local level in order to cater for future housing, employment, possible needs of social- and health services, leisure-time activities and social network, to mention a few important aspects of general human activities and needs. There are great differences between and within countries in the organisation of

⁹ Please, note that legislation and policy documents are discussed both as frame factors and as intentions.

local service networks. Cross-departmental future planning for pupils with special needs also has to be adapted to local conditions. Then information about “good cases” of co-operation may be useful sources of new ideas¹⁰. However, seemingly good ideas are not fit to be transferred directly and without adaptation from one community to another. On the contrary, it is important that ideas are discussed thoroughly and adapted in accordance with local context.

Moving back to the school situation for pupils with special needs, it is important that individual goals and objectives are stated in all educational subjects and themes and not only where the barriers are found. A limited focus on the area where a child has special educational needs magnifies the barriers in the mind of the pupil, at the expense of successful learning in other areas. Howard Gardner’s (1993; 1993a) idea of multiple intelligences strongly supports this view. He criticises the narrow focus on linguistic and logical-mathematical intelligence in modern education, arguing that in addition there are musical intelligence, spatial intelligence, bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence, personal intelligence and social intelligence. All these “intelligences” need to be catered for in school. Education is not only a matter of producing subject-bound knowledge and skills. It aims at developing active and responsible independent individuals in good societies. There are general aims for developing positive self-esteem, sense of responsibility, communication and co-operative skills, tolerance, solidarity and care. In literature on individual curricula there is a growing tendency to emphasise developmental aims of this general human character. This is also the case in the more traditional literature on individual educational programmes (Fox & Williams, 1991; Gunnestad, 1992; Nordahl & Overland, 1996; Putnam, 1993; Strickland & Turnbull, 1993; Vedeler, 1990).

As further help to an overview in curriculum planning some sub-categories of educational aims, goals and objectives may be introduced. In the following, four different categories are presented by examples, concerning training of certain skills, concerning bringing about certain knowledge, concerning possibilities to develop attitudes and concerning ensuring access to learning experiences. To take goals and objectives concerning reading acquisition as an example of specific **skills**, this may again be divided into many small steps of developing skills, each with a specific learning intention. Activities of Daily Living (ADL), such as getting dressed or setting the table independently, are also often trained through small step objectives. Goals and objectives in different subjects such as biology, literature and history

¹⁰ The innovation process in the municipality of Meland on the west coast of Norway, starting three decades ago, may be mentioned as a “classical good example” of holistic local co-operation (Meland/NFPU 1987).

may be stated in terms of **knowledge** that will be brought to the pupils by a variety of means. Although some skills and types of knowledge might be rather easily transferred to concrete and measurable items for assessment, educational goals concerning **attitudes** are often more difficult to describe. Moreover there are serious ethical problems tied to stating attitudinal objectives in terms of expected pupil behaviour, simply because they are not measurable – either in terms of marks or written statements about the learner’s supposed attitude. Nevertheless to develop acceptable attitudes is an immensely important educational goal. They may therefore not be neglected because of lack of measurability. In a curriculum plan they can be described as opportunities offered to develop attitudes through literature, films, poems, role-play, and visits to museums or through discussion and dialogue, to mention some activities connected to other curricular main aspects such as content, organisation and methods. The fourth category of goals concerns equal **access to experiences**. To take an increasingly popular example, several city schools have among their goals visits to farms, so that the children may be able to see and touch animals “for real”, and not only look at them in picture books and on television. To create opportunities for pupils to listen to different kinds of music, look at paintings and visit theatres is also an example of goals concerning access to experiences. Some pupils with special needs do not have access to different kinds of experiences unless we make special arrangements. Touchable art is developed for people with visual impairment, music is played so that people with hearing impairment may feel the vibration, and mobility is assured to art centres, theatres and athletic stadiums for people with physical impairment. Those are examples of educational as well as general societal goals for creating equal access to experiences.

This is only a very limited description of a few of the many aspects and levels of educational intentions that need to be considered when we are working with individual and class curricula.

Content

There is close relationship between educational intentions and content. Together these two main aspects are expected to answer questions on **what** a certain education is about.

Educational content may be understood as substance and values that are supposed to form the

pupil into an educated¹¹ person. This statement from educational theory raises questions about what is meant by “an educated person” and consequently also questions about what kind of substance and values to choose for educational purposes. In this connection the German scholar, Wolfgang Klafki, points out:

... , that a double relativity constitutes the very essence of contents of education, in other words their substance and values. What constitutes content of education, or wherein its substance and values lie, can, first, be ascertained only with reference to the particular children and adolescents who are to be educated and, second, with a particular human, historical situation in mind, with its attendant past and the anticipated future (Klafki 1999:148).

Bjørndal and Lieberg (1978) also stress the relativity of educational content when they highlight the socio-cultural and the pupil-centred dimensions together with the qualitative and quantitative dimensions as the four main criteria for choosing educational content. However, Klafki and his Norwegian colleagues, all outstanding scholars in the field of ordinary education, limit the interrelation to a matter between content and different groups of pupils, like classes and levels. By turning the focus towards the individual pupil in the classroom, the special needs education tradition directed towards inclusion represents an extended view of great importance, as illustrated in the Curriculum Relation Model.

Debate and decisions concerning educational content have deep historical roots and take place on macro and micro levels. Political choices are taken on macro level and stated in statutes and other policy documents and, in many countries, in national curricula. The way the educational content is prescribed varies greatly. Some national curricula describe the content in general terms, leaving space for flexibility to local schools and teacher teams, while others give detailed directions. On micro level teacher and special needs educator have the professional responsibility to bridge the gap between official curricula statements and the concrete learning situation in the individual classroom.

A variety of concepts are used to describe content in educational literature and national curricula. A widely used categorisation is to divide the content into school subjects and themes, which may in turn, be divided into main parts and subparts. An important part of the bridging process from macro to micro level, may be to make plans for different alternative

¹¹ Neither of the two English concepts ‘form’ and ‘educate’ covers exactly the meaning of the German concept ‘Bildung’ (Norwegian: danning), which is a basic concept in the discourse on educational content. Therefore the German word is often used even in English texts discussing this educational fundament.

learning activities and consequently also for teaching activities. Based on co-operation with practising teachers, Bjørndal and Lieberg (1978:116-118) present a set of general quality criteria for a learning activity:

- Consistency with the whole teaching program
- Adequacy compared to goals
- Variety and multiplicity
- Adaptive to individual pupils and group
- Balancing and cumulative
- Relevance and meaning
- Open to optimal integration with other learning activities
- Open to the pupils' choices.

Also as a result of the widely known co-operation project between psychologists and practicing teachers, *Index of Inclusion* (Booth et. al. 2000:77) a number of questions are put forward to monitor choice of educational content in a classroom, such as the following:

- Do lessons extend the learning of all pupils?
- Do lessons build on the diversity of the pupils' experiences?
- Do lessons reflect differences in the pupils' knowledge?
- Is the way opened up for different subjects to be learnt in different ways?

These two sets of criteria for choosing educational content are examples of considerations when planning a curriculum. However, the daily plan for the educational content also consists of even more concrete considerations, such as choice of phenomena, situations, experiments, concrete examples, resource persons, illustrations. Learning materials, equipment and learning environment may be seen as concrete manifestation of educational content. Methodological considerations also strongly affect choice of material, equipment and specific aids, together with considerations within the other main aspects of the curriculum model. Teacher, books and blackboard constitutes together "the classical triangle of teaching content". In addition a large variety and number of material is at hand in schools; bought externally or hand made in the schools. In all schools I have visited I have found a lot of additional teaching and learning material; a large part hand made by teachers and special needs educators at school. This applies to schools on the European and African continent, and the case school of research cooperation in Addis Ababa is a good example of a school with its own production of teaching and learning material (NUFU 32/2002).

Selecting curriculum content for an individual as well as for a group is based on societal aims and needs, the educational needs of individual pupils and of the group or class. A main question becomes how to **adapt** subjects and themes from national and local curriculum to the variety of individual learning needs. This calls for another question: How can we **create** learning environments, plan learning sequences and obtain materials and equipment to suit the needs of every pupil? And how can we **co-ordinate** these differentiated individual learning tasks so that the whole class can co-operate in learning tasks within a common theme or subject? The “we” mainly refers to teachers and special needs educators; those who use the Curriculum Relation Model or other approaches to planning and implementing teaching in the diverse and inclusive class. In Vygotskian terms they are mediators and in the pupils’ learning process, together with mediating tools such as the Model, all kinds of manifestations of learning content, as well as methods, organisation and other factors that may serve as adaptation to learning (Cole, 1996; Vygotsky, 1978).

Teaching methods and classroom organisation

Not only content, but also teaching methods and organisation has to be considered in planning group and classroom activities involving the plurality of individual learners. As mentioned above, methods and classroom organisation are also considered as mediating tools in the teaching-learning process, adapting the pupil’s apprenticeship within the zone of proximal development. However, these considerations need to be based on knowledge about the pupils’ preferred learning strategies. Therefore the following discussion starts with illustrative examples of learning strategies or -methods, before proceeding with consequences for teaching methods and classroom organisation.

Pupils learn through different strategies, activities, media and methods. Some master generalisations through literature, while others learn the same thing more effectively from observing and experimenting. Some need to write things down to remember them, others learn faster by concentrating on listening. Some need to use paper and pencil in order to “think in relations”, some remember well what they see, while touching is of great help to others. Some prefer to study for themselves while others prefer studying in a group. The old master, Hilda Taba (1962:307), pointed out that different individuals need different learning techniques for their self-development. To day terms like learning strategies and learning styles

are in focus of educational discourse. They refer to individual strategies of communication, attention focusing, memorising, problem solving, learning and development.

Barriers to learning may be caused by biological, psychological or environmental factors or, as in most cases, from a combination of these. To take some examples again, sensory impairment is a barrier to input of external information. Attention deficit, depression and several other conditions may have severe impact on concentration. Research on reading and writing difficulties focuses on barriers in using learning strategies such as short-term memory and meta-linguistic operations. Learning strategies are also related to arithmetic difficulties, general learning difficulties and developmental impairment. Most types of learning difficulties are related to communication problems between learner and environment.

Research and development of modes of communication and equipment is therefore crucial to many learners, such as with multiple impairments, cerebral palsy and functional deaf-blindness (Lyster, 2001; Nafstad, 1993; Ostad, 1989; 2001; Rye, 1993; 2001). The concept learning difficulties used in connection with teaching methods and classroom organisation is not unproblematic. In light of the principle of inclusion it raises questions like:

- When does an individual way of learning become a learning difficulty?
- To what extent is the organisation of the environment - the class teaching – or other curricular factors the main reason for labelling a specific way of learning a difficulty, instead of looking at it as an example of the plurality of different ways of learning?

A serious problem concerns labelling of a small group of pupils as “owners of difficulties”, as “deviations from the normal”, in other words as not belonging fully to the pupil group. The principle of a school for all offers an alternative attitude, which is the inclusion of all pupils in the recognition of the plurality of individual differences, and the positive use of these differences as a source for joint learning and understanding in the class.

In order to cater for the diversity of different individual learning strategies, teacher and special needs educator need to adapt the learning environment, so that each learner is able to develop and use a battery of learning strategies and methods that are suitable for her or him. At the same time we have to create individual and joint possibilities to use different preferred strategies and styles in the process of learning. To handle such a variety is not an easy task, not the least in view of the many programs advocating that “they represent the best solution to most educational challenges”. My argument is that no method or program is so complete that it fits all pupils or all teachers and special needs educators. On the contrary, it is the

professional duty and freedom (!) of every teacher and special needs educator to create and develop her or his own arsenal of different methods, programs, knowledge and skills to select from in making and revising curricula for individual pupils and classes.

As indicated, the field of **educational methodology** is so immense and varied that it is difficult if not impossible to grasp a holistic overview. To update our professional knowledge in the field is a lifelong challenge. In this article there is only room to mention a few aspects and examples, starting with some old “evergreens”, since methodological discussion is not a new phenomenon. In the eighteen-thirties the Danish educational and theological scholar, Gerhard Brammer (1838) discussed the following four main teaching methods in his detailed work on didactic and pedagogic methods:

- The prescribing method: lecturing, dictation and demonstration
- The achromatic method: uninterrupted lecturing
- The dialogic method: conversation with questions and answers
- The heuristic method: The teacher asks questions and the pupils answer with independent activities

Brammer’s classification was by no means the first methodological discussion. Such discussions may be traced back to antiquity (Brammer, 1838; Johnsen, 2000). The methodological categories discussed by Brammer are illustrations of different kinds of interaction between teacher and pupil. The emphasis on dialogue is classical, and has currently been revitalised within cultural-historic and related theories. It is good reason to believe that Brammer’s understanding and use of the concept dialogue within his historical context was not the same as today. Bakhtin (1986) and Rommetveit (1992) situates the dialogue in the subject’s meeting with another subject or subjects and with other cultural phenomena, such as between mediator and learner, between peers or between pupil and text or other cultural mediating tools for learning. Thus the dialogue is understood as between different subjects, like master and apprentice, with their own interpretation of the phenomenon in focus. Educational intention with a dialogue may be to construct a joint inter-subjective understanding, which, put simply, means that the apprentice has become a master. Henning Rye’s (2001) eight themes for caregiver-child and teacher-pupil interaction represent a modern elaboration of the dialogue principle, based on new research on attachment, communication and mediation. They follow here in a slightly modified version:

1. To demonstrate positive feelings
2. To adapt to the pupil(s)
3. To talk with the pupil(s)

4. To give relevant praise and acknowledgement
5. To help the pupil(s) to focus the attention
6. To assist in giving meaning to the pupil's (pupils') experience
7. To elaborate and explain
8. To help the pupil(s) achieve self-discipline

Another methodological concept, scaffolding is a metaphor from building construction frequently used within cultural-historic education elaborating on Vygotsky's theory of education. Wood, Burner & Ross (1976, in Sehic, Karlsdóttir & Guðmundsdóttir, 2005) describe scaffolding as structured and systematic assistance in the zone of proximal development through social interaction between an expert and a novice. Several scholars have contributed with detailed descriptions of scaffolding through applying concepts from didactic literature, mostly regarding teaching methods, and sometimes adapted to cultural-historic terminology (Berk & Winsler, 1997; Cole, 1996; Rogoff, 1990; Sehic, Karlsdóttir & Guðmundsdóttir, 2005; Tharp & Gallimore 1988).

Story telling is another teaching method with old roots that has recently been revitalised. What characterises a well-told story is that it reaches the feelings of the listeners, creates interest and involvement, and is therefore well suited to change attitudes and increase knowledge. But is it possible that one and the same story reaches the attention and interest of a group of pupils with different educational needs? In the eighteen fifties the Norwegian scholar, Ole Vig, described storytelling, or "the living word" as he preferred to call it, with the following characteristics:

It was very important that the teacher did not tell directly from the book, but used his or her own free oral presentation. The content of the story had to meet the children's understanding. It should be illustrative, with the use of examples, explanations and repetitions. The story telling should be fluid, lively, amusing, preferably like a tale. This would awaken interest and engagement in the children, and then their learning would be free and not forced (Johnsen, 2000:174, translated by the author).

Like quality literature, quality story telling reaches an audience with different levels of acquisition and various background experiences, simply because the good story is told on different levels. However, that does not mean that we do not have to take special precautions when we have members of the audience with individual needs that are not catered for. To take an example, if any of the pupils are dependent on sign language, the story might be told simultaneously by an oral and a sign storyteller. Alternatively one person tells the story orally and with signs. The use of sign language will enrich the presentation for the whole audience,

not least because of its lively use of gestures and mimicry. Storytelling might also be supplemented with pictures, with requested movements and questions to be answered by the pupils, to give some further examples.

Special needs education has a number of classical methodological aspects, like breaking down learning tasks into small steps, systematic repetition and variation in use of examples. In general, adapting methods and approaches to the plurality of different educational needs consists of the following aspects:

- Continuous acquirement of new methods and approaches
- Overview of different methods and approaches
- Flexible application of methods and approaches
- Multiple uses of methods and approaches in a joint classroom setting.

As mentioned earlier, methodological considerations strongly affect choice of material and equipment, such as literature, paper and pencil, computers and programs, videos, material for painting, drawing, and sewing, cooking and doing physical exercises. Some pupils need special learning materials and equipment. To take some examples again, pupils who are functionally blind need machines for printing in Braille and, when possible, access to computerised Braille transcription technology. Some pupils with cerebral palsy need access to Bliss-tokens and, if possible, to computers with special communication programs. Pupils with reading difficulties need special books, books on DVD and other training materials. Pupils with developmental impairment need concrete learning materials and circumstances. But, as Vygotsky (1978) pointed out, first and foremost they need guidance in the direction of more abstract and general cognitive functioning.

Choice of content and application of methods is closely connected to **classroom organisation**. The classical learning environment is the classroom. In literature about inclusion, creating classrooms that welcome pupils with special learning needs is emphasised. In addition there are also other possibilities of creating learning environments, like gardening, excursions, study visits and field work (Johnsen, 2001; Klafki, 1999; Smith, 1998; Putnam, 1993). A fundamental criterion of inclusion is that all pupils belong to a class or a group. In a Nordic context this means that all pupils of the same age are organised together in classes. Age is then the only criterion for placement in a class. However, although this is a fundamental principle underlying the idea of inclusion, it does not mean that the classroom as an organisational entity is untouchable. It is wise to have in mind that the classroom has not always been part of the school. In earlier history schools were founded on street corners and

market places, in churches and other buildings. People of all ages gathered in groups, even up to some hundreds, listened, practised and learned, or home tutors gave lessons to one or a small number of pupils. So, although the class is important as a main organisational entity, as the educational home space of all pupils so to speak, additional arrangements should also be taken into consideration, like the following:

- Organising into big classes (Two or more classes together)
- Organising into groups
- Individual teaching
- In and out of the classroom

Together with the whole-class structure, these organisational entities are arenas for a variety of possible approaches to teaching and learning. To take an obvious example, individual learning might be arranged as independent learning or as a dyad consisting of one teacher or special needs educator and one pupil. Dyadic teaching might create excellent possibilities for a variety of quality-teaching approaches, from effective training to creative dialogue.

However, individual teaching also has its serious pitfalls. Extended use of the teacher-pupil dyad might be a way to avoid radical changes in traditional ordinary classroom management. The consequence is that the pupil with special needs is separated from the rest of the class activities for a considerable part of the school day and thereby loses important opportunities to learn and take part in peer socialisation. This problem is, however, limited to economically rich school environments.

Flexible organising of pupils in the class is closely connected to physical frame factors of the classroom and how we are able to utilise them to create flexible solutions and – most important of all – a friendly and welcoming learning environment with room for all.

According to the principle of inclusion the groups are expected to mirror the diversity of different mastery and learning possibilities in the class.

Group work and collaborative learning takes into account Vygotsky's (1978) focus on peer support in the learning process, as argued in his theory on the zone of proximal development. Pupils divide tasks between them, discuss, assist each other, reach conclusions and evaluate (Dzemedzic, 2007). This kind of organisation may be applied to a variety of tasks. In addition to encouraging learning of facts and cognitive development, it also supports creative thinking, critical thought, the art of arguing as well as listening, appreciation of working together with others and recognition of a variety of barriers that may appear during co-operation. Last but not least it may encourage solidarity and care connected to the joy of joint problem solving.

Ultimately collaborative learning is an extremely important approach to developing democratic skills and attitudes. However, collaborative group work is not learned over night. There are many pitfalls to successful co-operation. Collaboration has to be learned step by step, under close supervision of the teacher.

Collaborative learning calls for collaborative teaching, where more than one teacher and/or special needs educator are working together in the classroom, possibly with the help of an assistant (Johnsen, 2001; Igrić & Cvitković, in press 2012). This, however, calls for a change of professional attitude and teaching style. Traditionally teachers as well as special needs educators are used to being self-sufficient, taking independent responsibility of a class or group. To teach together with one or more colleagues means that the lessons have to be prepared and evaluated together, so that the capacity of all educators is effectively used, and nobody is passive while one of the teachers takes the traditional responsibility of the whole class. However it also means that the preparatory work and teaching tasks are divided between colleagues. In addition to collaboration in the class, systematic teamwork involving all teachers, special needs educators and possible assistants is necessary (Bigge & Stump, 1998; Dalen, 1982; Dixon-Krauss, 1996; Dyson, 1998; Johnsen, 1998; 2000; Mittler 2000; Booth, 2000; Skrtic, 1995).

An important aspect of flexible class organisation is to use the classroom as a base combined with different activities outside. Pupils get tasks where they have to go elsewhere to find solutions, like the school library to search handbooks, or another classroom to interview a pupil or to assist a group. They might be asked to go out into the schoolyard to measure the circumference of some trees or to the local grocery store to practise shopping. Currently pupils mostly go out of the classroom for special needs education. Therefore many pupils experience this as labelling. The inclusive school needs to be open for a great extent of “in and out of classroom activities”. Ideally it should be a natural everyday matter that individual pupils or groups go out of the classroom to other learning activities. Such flexibility and openness in organisation will enrich the learning environment for all pupils. It will open up for possibilities of specific studies and support adapted to a variety of individual interests and levels of mastery. Another highly important reason for “in and out of classroom activities” is that children and young people need space in order to thrive and learn and develop. Even the nicest classroom is too small to be an ideal permanent learning environment.

Communication

Communication and care, two main aspects of the Curriculum Relation Model, represent an extended view of education, compared to the traditional main aspects or commonplaces - assessment, intentions, content, methods and organisation. The two are placed inside the circle of the classical didactical aspects, as bridges to the pupil. This symbolises the necessary relation between planned learning and the learner. Without communication there will be no education, no matter how qualified and relevant the adaptation of intentions, content, methods and organisation seems to be.

The concept of communication covers a wide range of aspects. It is one of the educational core concepts in related to education for democratic citizenship called for by Englund (1997), together with experience, creation of common or inter-subjective meaning and training in argumentation or discursive practices. In this way Englund develops further educational practice rooted in the Socratic dialogue of ancient Greece. In Freire's education for empowerment (1972) communication is a basic concept together with joint experience, dialogue and reflection. Communication is certainly at the core of interaction and mediation, as pointed out by Vygotsky (1978), Bruner (1996) Feuerstein (1991), Rommetveit (1992) and Rye (2001, 2005), as exemplified in connection with educational methods. They focus the attention on the following factors:

- Pupils learn through interaction with their fellow human beings and with their environments
- Language and communication are essential tools in learning and cognitive development
- Parents, teachers and peers may function as mediators and discourse partners in joint teaching and learning processes.

Communication and mediation theories, like these, contribute to give direction to individual and class curriculum activities. Therefore they are of great importance when preparing concrete educational intentions, content, methods and organisation based on assessment of individual learning possibilities and needs for support.

Communication may be divided into two aspects, a technological and human relation side. Some communication technological considerations are illustrated with the following examples:

- Do we hear and see each other (light and level of noise in the classroom)?
- Do we, or some of us, need special hearing aid?

- Do we need special communication media such as sign language, signed speech, Bliss-signs, icons, computer communication programs or other augmentative devices?
- Do we need systematic step-by step support in learning to understand and apply a language?

The human relation aspect of communication has to do with our ability to see and hear the single pupil, every pupil and the whole class. According to Rye (2001, 2005) research and development of theory during the last decades indicates the following traits in human nature and child development:

- The child has an inborn social nature and potential for development of communication and social interaction
- The child has a fundamental need for establishing a reciprocal social relationship in order to survive, develop physically and socially, and to learn to understand and relate to the physical and social world
- The child – particularly throughout the early years - learns through social interaction with the caregivers, who normally become the child's important mediators and supporters in the process of socialization and mastery of her/his relationship to the surrounding world.

Human relationship is based on being seen, listened to and taken seriously. Let us take ourselves as examples; we tune in to each other's awareness. This is so in the family, between man and wife, between friends – and in school. However, I guess we all have experienced that we are not seen or we do not see all of our family members, friends or every single pupil in the class. And when we feel that someone does not really see us over a long time, our relationship to that person may fade away little by little. Thus, a pupil that is not seen in the school, will lose sight of the meaning of school.

To see and be seen is a fundament for human relationship and communication.

Communication or the communication act may be illustrated with Martin Buber's (1947) discussion of the concept 'inclusion'. Buber relates 'inclusion' to concepts similar to communication, namely 'dialogue' and 'dialogical relation', and argues that 'inclusion' is the opposite of 'empathy'. He proceeds with his clarification:

It (inclusion) is the extension of one's own concreteness, the fulfilment of the actual situation of life, the complete presence of the reality in which one participates. Its elements are, first, a relation, of no matter what kind, between two persons, second, an event experienced by them in common, in which at least one of them actively

participates, and, third, the fact that this one person, without forfeiting anything of the felt reality of his activity, at the same time lives through the common event from the standpoint of the other.

A relation between persons that is characterized in more or less degree by the element of inclusion may be termed a dialogical relation (Buber, 1947: 124-125).

In this way Buber places 'dialogical relation' described as open, positive and profound communication, as what today may be called an inclusive practice. I believe that through the history of schooling there have been many dialogical relations between teachers and pupils, and that teachers that have created such relationships are saved in our memories as "The good teacher". Last, but not least the kind of dialogical relation or recourse-based communication act clarified here goes beyond the spoken or signed words and incorporates non-verbal communication (Aðalsteinsdóttir, 2000).

Care

Care is another main aspect of fundamental importance for the whole educational process. Like communication it represents an extended professional understanding compared to traditional limited discipline or knowledge and skills related education. It emphasises that positive learning depends on the satisfaction of basic human needs (Rye, 2005) like touch, belongingness, love, acceptance and recognition. Therefore we need to be aware of – not only the learner – but the whole child and young person within her or his social and cultural context, and with his or her personal history. We also need to be conscious about the joint cultural heritage and conditions that we share with our pupils, with its potentials and joys as well as barriers and possible traumatic conditions. Involvement in personal conditions and the whole range of developmental potentials and needs is an important and often difficult part of our challenge as teachers. In this light it was impressive to witness, in my longitudinal classroom study, the comprehensive and thorough knowledge the class teacher in elementary grades had of all the children in her class, and how careful she handled these vulnerable insight (Johnsen, in press 2013). Our pupils need to find our care. It shows in our attitudes, in small informal talks, in eye contact or a light touch on the shoulder, in some nice words about what was good in the homework as well as in concern. Care and involvement show themselves in how we plan, implement and evaluate all aspects mentioned in the Curricular Relation Model.

Recently the ethics of care have gained renewed interest both from ordinary and special needs education perspective. Nel Noddings (1992; 2003) discusses the challenge to care in school. She argues that there is a need for a radical change in both curriculum and teaching, to reach all children, not just the few who fit our conception of the academically able. In her interpretation, care is a form of relationship, rooted in receptivity, relatedness and responsiveness of both the care-giver and the cared-for. It has to do with recognition of the concrete needs from the point of view of the cared-for. She argues that care has a long tradition as a feminine matter. Women have cared for children, old people, sick people and people with disabilities. She refers to Carol Gilligan (1993), who concluded from interviews that women had an immanent moral imperative to care in concrete situations.

Care and involvement seem to have been a driving force in many of the pioneers – men as well as women – developing special schools for children who were deaf, blind or with developmental impairment in the latter part of the nineteenth century. It was also strongly focused in early inclusion debate in Norway in the nineteen sixties and seventies, as may be seen in the national curriculum of that time (M 1987: 16-17). However, in the late seventies and eighties the conception of care was criticised as naive pitying, and there was a shift of terminology in educational discourse, which may also be found in the new Norwegian national curriculum (L 1997), where the term care is hardly used. However, as already mentioned, recently the ethics of care have gained renewed interest both from a general educational and a special needs educational perspective. In Norway Edvard Befring (1996; 1997; 1997a) discusses care from a special needs perspective. In his view care and learning are complementary functions. To care in an inclusive school means to support and encourage play and learning. It also means to adapt for meta-learning through encouraging the pupils to create interests, self-confidence and competence, self-reflection and what he calls ethical intelligent behaviour.

Care is manifested in concrete actions in the way we as teachers and special needs educators interact with individual pupils and the class, in our choice of content, methods, classroom organisation and not least how we choose to assess and give feedback to our pupils on their work and progress. Gross (1996) and Webster-Stratton (1999) describe a number of concrete caring actions that are in line with Befring's and Nodding's earlier mentioned recommendations. Here are some examples of activities to promote care in interaction with individual pupils as well as the whole class:

- Encouragement and participation in play activities with the pupils
- Listening to the pupil(s)
- Sharing personal experiences with the pupil(s)
- Creating opportunities for feelings to be expressed and discussed through play and through a variety of creative activities, like drawing, painting, drama and role-play, literature reading and discussions, writing logbooks, dialogue books and essays, to mention a few examples.
- Giving support to pupils who have experienced disappointments, traumatic events and losses
- Supporting the pupils to develop positive coping and mastering strategies
- Promoting self-confidence through self-talk and other empowerment strategies
- Showing the pupil(s) trust.

These examples of caring activities are all in line with Rye's (2001, 2005) principles for teacher and pupil interaction described earlier. The general message in the literature referred to above supports the basic philosophy of this chapter, pointing out that care means to see and support each pupil as a unique individual with her or his personal possibilities and needs (Johnsen, 2001).

However, as Maslow (1954) and Vygotsky point out from different philosophical positions, as persons we are not only individuals, but also members of a group or collective. Care therefore must be extended to support the individual pupils as members of the collective entity, which is the class, as well as to develop the class as a caring environment for all pupils. Gross (1996) points out the importance of organising the caring classroom through measures that allow the pupils personal autonomy and development of self-esteem hand in hand with respect, involvement and caring for the others. She points out that the teacher is an important model for the pupils concerning their development of involvement and care. Tetler (2000) presents a number of recommendations concerning the development of an inclusive and caring classroom culture under the metaphorical heading "Didactics of Generosity"¹². Her main point is that in order to develop an inclusive classroom it is necessary to turn from categorisation and grouping of pupils towards focusing on how to plan and practise classroom activities that meet the plurality of different needs of all the pupils in the class.

To care for each pupil in the inclusive class also has another aspect that is important for the internal work in the class, and perhaps even more so outside the classroom and the school,

¹² Didactics of Generosity has been translated from the Danish "rummelighedens didaktik" by the author of this article, who regrets that the English translation does not fully grasp the Danish concept.

and that is advocacy. As teachers and special needs educators we have a professional ethical duty to defend and argue for our pupils' rights to a suitably adapted education in an inclusive school. This is still especially important for pupils with needs that have traditionally not been catered for in the ordinary school. The French-Bulgarian philosopher and psychoanalyst, Julia Kristeva, revitalises and extends the slogan of early French Enlightenment in her ethical-political project on liberty, equality, community¹³ – and vulnerability. Her expansion is based on recognising the community of vulnerability as well as of liberty (Johnsen, 2010; 2012; Kristeva, 2010). Her point of departure stems from her observations of the all too common avoidance of persons with disabilities, especially those with severe intellectual challenges, by individuals and society. She situates the reason for this avoidance in single persons' sub-consciousness, where the meeting with a disabled evokes uneasiness; an uneasiness that we need to confront in ourselves in order to meet the disabled as an equal citizen in our joint society of vulnerable individuals. In this way she applies psychoanalytic analysis arguing for individual ethical choices, which are related to the ethical mentality of the community.

Like the art of communication, to care is an ability that can be made conscious, learned and developed, but where we will never be fully qualified.

Context

Michael Cole presents a thorough discussion and continuation of Vygotsky's (1978) pioneer argumentation for the culture-historic context of any learning in his large work on *Cultural Psychology. A Once and Future Discipline* (1996), where he relates Vygotsky's theories to contemporary and current scholars, such as Rogoff (1990; 2003), and Bronfenbrenner, who's theory of ecology (1979) is mentioned above together with Goodlad's (1979) curricular ecology. According to Rogoff (1990:140) Vygotsky emphasises that development is a process of learning to use the intellectual tools provided through social history. Thus so-called scaffolding, a term frequently used by cultural-historic or socio-cultural scholars, consists of finding or developing and adapting the intellectual tools available at any time, be it the pen

¹³ The formulation liberty, equality and fraternity, became a motto for the French Revolution from August 26, 1789. Kristeva refers directly to this. The emphasis on the community of brothers was, however, quickly criticised by contemporary women's rights activists. The French Olympe de Gouges pronounced the Women's Rights Declaration in 1793, and the English philosopher and educational scholar, Mary Wollstonecraft, argued for gender equality (Rustad, 2007). Against this background the initial slogan becomes less faltering by being rewritten to liberty, equality and community. The transformation from fraternity to community was done by the author of this chapter.

and inkwell of yesterday or apps (application software) of tomorrow. These are what in the deep rooted science of didactics or curriculum, may be categorised as educational intentions, assessment, content, methods and organisation, and the most classical and furthermore the most important intellectual tool at all times; the teacher. Each in their own way, Bronfenbrenner and Goodlad bring the attention to the cultural and curricular context of the local school with its opportunities and barriers; called frame factors in sociology of education. Thus, the school as an institution depends upon and operates within a framework consisting of several frame factors, such as legislation, economic and human resources and a number of physical, social and cultural aspects. Frame factors set limits and give direction, and they also open up for new possibilities. Therefore context and frame factors are in focus as a main area of the Curriculum Relation Model, embracing the inner activity of schooling. This is indicated by placing context as a second circle around the other main areas in the model.

As mentioned, educational **legislation** and **policy** “have two faces”, one as educational intentions on macro level and the other as frame factors. In most countries the documents describe official educational rights, duties and general aims. These are in many cases, but not all, related to internationally agreed principles, like the principle of education for all and the inclusive school. However, national educational acts and curricula tend to have a set of different aims and goals that do not necessarily correspond to each other. On the contrary they might modify or even contradict each other. This is not least usual in countries that have a self-image as actively performing political democracies and one reason for this may be that legislation is the result of a number of compromises between different interests and ideas (Englund 1986; Johnsen 1998/2000). In the making of individual and class curricula, national legislation and policies therefore need interpretation in the process of adapting them to concrete educational situations. They also need to be related to other frame factors and curricular main aspects.

Annual national budgets are nicknamed “The law above the law” in some countries, because budget items influence the possibilities to implement intentions of educational policy.

Economy is the most discussed – and complained about - of frame factors. What is too often forgotten is that the division of available economic resources depends on what priorities are made by central and local politicians and officials and ultimately the local school and even class.

Professional quality is perhaps the most important element in the development towards an inclusive school. Prevalence of qualified teachers and special needs educators as well as the quality and perspective of their education are important frame factors. The process from principle to reality of an inclusive school needs strong professional advocacy as well as solid craftsmanship, flexibility and creativity in the art of educating. Consequently, educators of ordinary teachers and special needs educators have a great responsibility for preparing future professionals for adapting the schools and the classes for all children, with and without special needs. The same is the case for research and research policy.

The school building, its surroundings and neighbourhood all belong to what are called **physical frame factors** or **context**. The physical framework of schools varies enormously both within and between countries. Classrooms may be dark and cold, with doors too narrow for wheelchair. The schoolyard may be small and dirty, surrounded by streets with heavy traffic. Buildings may be small, but in secure surroundings, with trees, grass and beautiful flowers, and with ample opportunity for children to play and learn. Or the building may be clean and nice, with rooms of different sizes, tables and chairs adapted to the changing size of the pupils, with modern teaching equipment and secure surroundings. In some localities the school building functions as the heart of the community; a place for education and the cultural centre of the community. In some places caring for the school and for suitably adapted education for all is given high priority by local politicians as well as teachers and parents. Often small changes in the physical surroundings may eliminate or decrease barriers to learning. As an example a dark classroom may be secured more light, so that it is easier for pupils to read the texts and see the blackboard. Another example may be when a pupil who is hard of hearing is placed in the room so that she or he is able to see the mouth and facial expressions of the teacher. The equipment of the classrooms as well as the working conditions for teachers is certainly also an important frame factor. New technology developed during the last decades has increased the teachers' possibilities radically to create flexible and suitably adapted individual curricula in the class setting. However, new technology is dependent on economic frame factors as well as infrastructural factors like constantly available electricity in the area. There is a danger that the gap between western schools and educational possibilities in the south will increase further, as a consequence of the new possibilities accompanying computer technology, because of the great differences in economic possibilities to utilise these "new helpers".

There is a whole range of **social and cultural frame factors** or **contextual aspects** influencing the internal activity in the school. Bronfenbrenner (1979) takes into consideration the local community with its social and economic structures, its occupational possibilities and natural environment as important influential factors for learning and schooling. A Norwegian local innovation project (Høgmo, 1981) in lower secondary school showed contradictions and dilemmas when a centralised national curriculum heavily biased by social and cultural factors from the capital city was implemented in the small fishery villages to the north of the country. Following criticism and alternative curriculum development demonstrated in the project strongly influenced Norwegian educational discourse and the next national curriculum (M 1987) introduced local curriculum development as an obligatory part of educational planning. The intentions were that general national guidelines should be suitably adapted in accordance with the local environment of each school. Accompanying this turn from centralised to locally based curriculum development was the principle of meaningful and suitably adapted education for the individual pupil.

A number of more or less concrete and easily discovered social and cultural factors influence the school and learning possibilities of the pupils. Bilingualism and the fact that the children are expected to learn to read in a language other than their mother tongue, is a well known barrier to reading acquisition. Parents' illiteracy is another factor that needs to be catered for in planning school curricula. Priorities in educational matters may be seen as consequences of social and cultural contextual factors both at local and national level. Attitudes are important aspects of this context that influence how information is interpreted and choices are made consciously as well as unconsciously. Prejudices also exert influence. To take a few examples of attitudes, perhaps the main view in a local society is that the school should give "bright pupils" high priority? Perhaps special needs are looked upon as dangerous or shameful conditions? Or maybe they are viewed as natural states of human diversity?

The short descriptions and examples indicate that socio-cultural contexts consist of many vague as well as clear and concrete aspects. Some are even quantifiable, such as economic factors or number of qualified teachers. Others are much more diffuse and difficult to see, while there may be aspects that stay undiscovered as hidden frame factors. Some frame factors are objects of official debate at macro level about long-term aims and effects on education. Generally speaking they are also important contributors to development and preservation of democracy. Moreover, they are not less important from the micro level point of view of the single teacher- and special needs educator team in assessing how they influence

educational possibilities and create barriers for individual pupils and for concrete classes and schools. Therefore it is important to develop awareness about, analyse and take informed decisions concerning how contextual factors relate to other factors of the Curricular Relation Model.

Practical considerations

After these short discussions of each of the eight main aspects of the Curriculum Relation Model we return to some unifying considerations regarding purposeful use. As discussed in the introduction, the model has been used in research, innovation and professional-practical work in school. The following discussion is delimited to practical considerations, starting with two fundamental questions:

- How can we organise our work as teachers and special needs educators, so that relevant main aspects of importance for the individual pupils and the whole class are considered?
- How can we assure enough flexibility in our work, so that the variety of individual needs is met?

At first the Curriculum Relation Model is placed in the context of a number of curriculum forms and checklists existing at the time when it was developed. Many books and articles on individual curricula conclude with pre-produced checklists and fill-in forms to use as prescriptions for working with learners with special needs. Teachers and special needs educators are invited to follow the checklists and fill in the forms. A serious problem with these is that they are static. They invite to one concrete and detailed understanding of curriculum making. Such pre-produced forms may be of great help for insecure beginners in curriculum making, but soon they find that adapt the curriculum to the form and not to the pupil. Of all the fill-in forms and checklists in circulation, I have never seen a form that fits every pupil, every teacher team and every school, with all varieties of individual and special educational needs within different contexts. Inflexible use of pre-produced forms may limit our work and overlook important needs, possibilities and barriers. In this way pre-produced individual curriculum forms may function as obstacles instead of positive professional tools for the suitable adaptation to individual learning processes.

The Curriculum Relation Model was developed as dynamic and flexible alternative to pre-prepared forms. That is why the model only consists of eight main aspects in interrelation with each other and no detailed checklist. When teachers and special needs educators develop their own personal-professional **list of important curriculum keywords** related to each of the main aspect, the Model is adapted to the professional context, knowledge and attention of the maker of curriculum. The list is to be reviewed and supplemented throughout our whole professional career as we gather new knowledge and judge some formerly listed keywords as irrelevant. To take a concrete example, when we are working with a pupil with visual impairment, the list will supposedly be supplemented with several sub-aspects concerning special knowledge about mobility and educational needs of pupils with visual impairment. When working with a pupil with reading difficulties, we apply and possibly also supplement our personal-professional list with keywords concerning approaches to reading acquisition. Thus, in the planning and re-evaluating of each individual curriculum our list of keywords contribute to an overview of the field of individual learning and teaching, and thus serve as a fundament for tailor-making individual curricula adapted to our pupils' needs. To create and revise our own personal-professional list of curricular keywords does not require any sophisticated and expensive material or forms. On the contrary, because of the expected continuous changes it is well suited to write it on some pages or, if we have access to a computer, it is convenient to save the list as a special document. The working principle is that the list is under continuous revision and so are individual curricula as well as the class curricula. Therefore it is practical to place our list with curricular keywords as the first pages in a loose-leaf notebook and in as a document in a joint folder for curriculum development practice. The participants in the Bosnian curricular innovation project (SØE 06/02), developed individual lists of key words related to the curricular main aspects, and discussed and summarised their lists in working groups before they presented them in plenary. Their contributions are presented in the innovation report (Johnsen, 2007).

In addition to the personal-professional list of curricular keywords and the loose-leaf notebook, the **diary** or the logbook is a third strongly recommended practical aid in the continuous curriculum development. In the diary we gather in one place some information about the pupils' daily educational process and about how far she or he has come in relation to concrete intentions and learning content. Here we write down thoughts that may be of importance about progress, barriers, needs and surprises. We also comment on the efficiency of our teaching methods, aspects of the individual curriculum and communication with other

pupils, co-teachers and possibly also parents and other collaboration partners. To take five to ten minutes every day to write down observations in our diary, may prove of great importance next time we make long-term curricular revisions. However, it is necessary that diaries and notebooks with curricula are stored in a safe place, to ensure that unauthorised persons do not get access to our highly important, but also sensitive information about individual and class curricula. (As mentioned, it is also a matter of ethical considerations to decide what kind of information should be written down in these documents, and what is better stored in our memory or not at all).

Concluding reflections

Finally there are three matters that I would like to give some thoughts. The first is my choice of curricular main aspects. Secondly I want to comment on some problems and dilemmas of special needs education, by using some examples discussed by Dyson (1998). Lastly I want to stress the need to develop perspectives that are in favour of suitably adapted education in inclusive schools.

As stated earlier, the eight curricular aspects described here, are intended to focus on some, but not all, important aspects and relations of learning and teaching processes. My assumption is that no model or list of keywords is able to cover all aspects of reality. The keywords chosen are important factors in deciding which parts of reality are being focused on, and which parts are not discussed and therefore remain taken for granted and less visible. As mentioned, several of the main aspects commented upon in this article are classical curricular aspects or commonplaces. By commonplaces is meant that there is a common understanding and agreement on the importance of these aspects in educational and special needs educational discourse. Intentions, content, methods, organisation, assessment and learning have been classical focus points as far back as the history of educational ideas can tell (Johnsen, 2000). However, context, communication and care are aspects that are in the process of gaining attention at least within some educational and special needs educational traditions. There is also a rising criticism of “the taken for grantedness” of the mentioned educational commonplaces. Both their content and focusing effect are seen as problematic (Englund, 1997; Popkewitz, 1997). Some critics argue for replacing them with other concepts. Tomas Englund states his view in the following way:

... in didactics and curriculum theory we are often too entrenched in concepts like schooling, planning, teaching and learning. Instead, I think we need a language which uses concepts like experiences, communication, meaning-creating, discursive practices and so on (Englund, 1997:22).

This important criticism is met by adding main aspects, such as communication, which contains much of what Englund (1997) advocates, to the classical and commonplace ones. An argument is that explicit reflections on commonplace construction and aspects of education, are necessary parts of a purposeful changing process of schooling. This argument is also related to Rye's (2001, 2005) eight themes for resource based communication and mediation, applied as good example in this article. The themes' focus on caregiver's attitude, communication and mediation skills is necessary parts of development towards inclusion. However, in school settings educational intentions, content, organisation and other methods also have to be problematized in relation to the diversity of pupils. However, communication and care have been introduced and given central positions in the Curriculum Relation Model because the ability to communicate and care is viewed as so fundamental that all other important educational aspects depend on them in order to be activated from the very beginning and all through the process of learning and teaching.

As repeatedly mentioned the field of education and special needs education is complex and in some respects also contradictory. Consequently there are a number of dilemmas that are important to face in practical curriculum work. Dyson (1998:11) states that "... the notion of dilemmas offers a powerful lens through which education generally and special education in particular can be viewed". In his view, dilemmas are not merely accidental and temporary difficulties, arising in particular situations. Education and special needs education are characterised by a series of dilemmas tied to special aspects of the field. As an example, Dyson points out the dilemma of commonality versus difference, or how to offer learners, who are different from each other, and education, which is supposed to be in a way the same for all. He goes on by showing that many different resolutions to this dilemma have been tried. The dilemma, however, does not disappear, but becomes apparent in new ways.

Such dilemmas are supposed to be found in each of the eight main aspects pinpointed here. To mention two examples, there is a dilemma between the teacher's need to assess special learning needs and the danger of labelling certain pupils in the class. To be labelled and categorised into a disability group may have a negative effect both on the pupil's self-concept

and attitudes on the part of others. A second example is related to how concrete educational intentions are stated. There is a dilemma between the need to state general and flexible goals, which leaves the pupil to interpret learning tasks in a meaningful way, and his or her supposed needs for concrete and clearly demarcated learning tasks. Curricular practice in the inclusive class may be evaluated in relation to the ability to find acceptable - or as good as possible - solutions to these and other educational dilemmas.

Dyson (1998) also points out that special needs education and the principle of inclusion, do not emerge out of a social vacuum, but within a particular social context, filled with the interplay of history, knowledge, interests and power. Several different educational principles, of which some are in direct contradiction, are rubbed against each other in on-going discourses¹⁴. One such example is the principles of solidarity, co-operation and inclusion confronted by the societal urge for competition (Johnsen, 1998:11). The principle of suitably adapted education in an inclusive school is challenged from several different positions. One of them is the deeply ingrained tradition concerning worship of the genius.

This leads us to a third matter of reflection. A continuous creation of new perspectives in favour of inclusion is necessary. One such perspective was launched by Befring in his article on the enrichment perspective as a special educational approach to an inclusive school (Befring, 1997; 2001). According to this perspective, a “good” school for children with disabilities will in reality also offer an ideal environment for the learning and nurturing of the well-being of all other pupils in the classroom and the school as well.

The Curriculum Relation Model presented and discussed in this chapter, represents one possible and fruitful fundament for bridging the gap between the international normative principle of the school for all and inclusion. It also offers a research- and theory based perspective for innovation and research on inclusive practices in the process towards full inclusion.

References

- Aðalsteinsdóttir, K. (2000). *Small Schools, Interaction and Empathy*. Bristol: University of Bristol.
- Bakhtin, M. (1986). *Speech Genres and Other Late Essays*. Austin: University of Texas Press.

¹⁴ In my study of the history of educational ideas in early modern times (Johnsen, 2000) a flow of different ideas was found to be apparent already in the early phases of educational discourse - strengthening, moderating and even exterminating each other in “the fight for a privileged position” as the centuries went by.

- Bank-Mikkelsen, N. (1980). Denmark. In R. Flynn & K. Nitsch (Ed.), *Normalization, Social Integration, and Community Services* (s. 51–70). Austin: TX: PRO-ED.
- Befring, E. (1996). Frå integrasjon til inkludering.(From Integration to Inclusion). In *Bedre skole* no.4/96:12-21.
- Befring, E. (1997). The Enrichment Perspective. A Special Educational Approach to an Inclusive School. In *Remedial and Special Education* no.3/97:182-187
- Befring, E. (1997a). *Oppvekst og læring. Eit sosialpedagogisk perspektiv på barns og unges vilkår i velferdssamfunnet.* (Growing and Learning. A Social-Educational Perspective on the Conditions for Children and Young People in the Welfare Society). Oslo: Samlaget.
- Befring, E. (2001). The Enrichment Perspective. In B. H. Johnsen & M. D. Skjørten (Eds.). *Education – Special Needs Education. An Introduction* (pp.49-63). Oslo: Unipub.
- Berk L. E.& Winsler, A. (1997). *Scaffolding Children's Learning: Vygotsky and Early Childhood education.* Washington DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children.
- Bigge, J. & Stump,C. (1999). *Curriculum, Assessment, and Instruction for Pupils with Disabilities.* USA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Bjørndal, B. & Lieberg, S. (1978). *Nye veier i didaktikken ?(New Directions in Didactics?).* Oslo: Aschehoug.
- Booth, T., Ainscow, M., Black-Hawkins, K., Vaughan, M. & Shaw, L. (2000). *Index for Inclusion. Developing Learning and Participation in Schools.* UK: Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education.
- Brammer, G. (1838). *Lærebog i Didactik og Pædagogik.* (Instructions in Didactics and Pedagogy). Copenhagen: Reizel.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The Ecology of Human Development.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Bruner, J. (1996). *Utdanningskultur og læring.* (The Culture of Education). Oslo: Ad Notam Gyldendal.
- Buber, M. (1947). *Between Man & Man.* London: The Fontana Library.
- Cole, M. (1996). *Cultural Psychology. A Once and Future Discipline.* Cambridge, Massachusettes: Harvard University Press.
- Dalen, M. (1982). *Focus on Co-Teaching as a Special Educational Provision.* Granåsen: National Post-Graduate College of Special Education.
- Dewey, J. (1916/2002). *Demokrati och utbildning (Democracy and Education).* Göteborg: Daidalos.
- Dixon-Krauss, L. (Ed). (1996). *Vygotsky in the Classroom. Mediated Literacy Instruction and Assessment.* USA: Longman Publishers.
- Dyson, A. (1998). *Theories of Inclusion, Theories of Schools: Deconstructing and Reconstructing the Inclusive School'.* Paper presented to the Pacific Coast Research Conference, San Diego, California, 5 - 8 February 1998.
- Dzemidzic, S. (2007). *Cooperation among Pupils in the Classroom.* Oslo: Department of Special Needs Education, University of Oslo. (Master thesis).
- Education Act.* (1969) with amendments 1997.
- Education Act.* (1999). Act Relating to Primary and Secondary Education. Last amended 17 June 2005.
- Englund, T. (1986). *Curriculum as a Political Problem.* Uppsala: Uppsala Studies in Education 25, Studentlitteratur/Chartwell-Bratt.

- Englund, T. (1997). Towards a Communicative Rationality - Beyond (the Metaphors of) Didactics and Curriculum Theory. In B. Karseth, S. Gudmundsdottir & S. Hopmann (Eds.). *Didaktikk: tradisjon og fornyelse. Festskrift til Bjørg Brandtzæg Gundem*. Oslo: Pedagogisk Forskningsinstitutt, UiO:22-34.
- Feuerstein, R., Klein, P. & Tannenbaum, A. (1991). *Mediated Learning Experience (MLE): Theoretical, Psychological and Learning Implications*. London: Freund Publishing House Ltd.
- Forordning. (1739). *Forordning om Skolerne paa Landet i Norge, og hvad Klokkerne og Skoleholderne derfor maa nyde*. (Decree Relating to the Schools in the Countryside of Norway and What the Parish Clerks and Teachers Therefore May Enjoy).
- Fox & Williams. (1991). *Implementing Best Practices for all Pupils in Their Local School* Vermont: Vermont State-wide Systems Support Project.
- Kramer, D. G. (1885). *A. H. Francke's Pädagogische Schrifften*. Langensalza: Hermann Beyer & Söhne.
- Frederickson, N. & Cline, T. (2002). *Special Education Needs, Inclusion and Diversity*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Freire, P. (1972). *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. UK: Penguin Books.
- Gardner, H. (1993). *Frames of Mind*. London: Fontana Press.
- Gardner, H. (1993a). *Slik tenker og lærer barn - og slik bør lærere undervise*. (The Unschooled Mind. How Children Think and How Schools Should Teach). Bekkestua: Praxis forlag.
- Gilligan, C. (1993). *In a Different Voice*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Goodlad, J. I. (1979). (Ed.). *Curriculum Inquiry*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Gross, J. (1996). *Special Educational Needs in the Primary School*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Gunnestad, A. (1992). *Spesialpedagogisk læreplanarbeid*. (Curricular Work in Special Needs Education) Oslo: Grunnskolerådet, Universitetsforlaget.
- Herrick, V. (1950). The concept of curriculum design. In V. Herrick & R. Tyler (Eds.). *Toward Improved Curriculum Theory*. Chicago: The university of Chicago press:37-50.
- <http://portal.unesco.org/education/en/ev>
- Høgmo, A. et.al. (1981). *Skolen og den lokale utfordring* (The School and the Local Challenge). Tromsø: Department of Social Sciences, University of Tromsø.
- Igrić, L. & Cvitković, D. (in press 2012). Supporting Inclusion of Children with Special Needs. A Study of Classroom Assistants and Mobile Team of Special Needs Educators in Regular Schools. In B. H. Johnsen (Ed.). *Project Preparation. Introduction to Theory of Science, Project Planning and Plans*. Kristiansand: Høgskoleforlaget.
- Johnsen, B. H. (1985). *Utvikling av læreplan for grunntdanning i spesialpedagogikk for lærere på Øst-Island*. (The Development of a Curriculum for Post-Graduate Special Needs Education for Ordinary Teachers in East Iceland). Oslo: Pedagogisk forskningsinstitutt, Universitetet i Oslo.
- Johnsen, B. H. (1988). *Professional Skills as Part of B.A. Education in Teaching Pupils with Special Needs*. "Paper" presented at International Seminar on Professional Skills, Newcastle upon Tyne Polytechnic, UK. 08.-15.10. (21 p.).
- Johnsen, B. H. (1998). *Curricula for the Plurality of Individual Learning Needs. Some Thoughts Concerning Practical Innovation towards an Inclusive School*. Lecturing paper presented at "Pedagoska Akademija", Sarajevo, September 17.

- Johnsen, B. H. (2000). *Et historisk perspektiv på ideene om en skole for alle* (An Historical Perspective on Ideas about a School for All). Oslo: Unipub.
- Johnsen, B. H. (2001). Curricula for the Plurality of Individual Learning Needs. In B. H. Johnsen & M. D. Skjørten (eds.). *Education - Special Needs Education. An Introduction* (pp. 225-303). Oslo: Unipub.
- Johnsen, B. H. (2007). *The Classroom towards Inclusion – Good Examples and Difficult Dilemmas*. Report from a series of workshops in Bosnian schools. Sarajevo: Connectum.
- Johnsen, B. H. (2010). Annerledeshet og utdanning. Didaktiske muligheter i lys av sårbarhetens politikk. In E. Engebretsen & J. Kristeva (red.), *Annerledeshet – sårbarhetens politikk* (s. 126–147). Oslo: Gyldendal.
- Johnsen, B. H. (in press 2013). Comparative Classroom Studies towards Inclusion. Joint Research Plan for Cooperation between the Universities of Belgrade, Ljubljana, Sarajevo, Skopje, Tuzla, Zagreb and Oslo. In B. H. Johnsen (Ed.). *Research Project Preparation. Introduction to Theory of Science, Project Planning and Plans*. Kristiansand: Cappelen Damm Akademisk.
- Johnsen, B. H. (in press 2013). Comparative Classroom Studies towards Inclusion. Joint Research Plan for Cooperation between the Universities of Belgrade, Ljubljana, Sarajevo, Skopje, Tuzla, Zagreb and Oslo. In B. H. Johnsen (Ed.). *Research Project Preparation. Introduction to Theory of Science, Project Planning and Plans*. Kristiansand: Cappelen Damm Akademisk.
- Kirkebæk, B. (2001). *Normaliseringens periode. Dansk åndssvageforsorg 1940–1970 med særligt fokus på forsorgschef N. E. Bank-Mikkelsen og udviklingen af Statens Åndssvageforsorg 1959–1970*. Holte: Forlaget SocPol.
- Klafki, W. (1999). Didaktik Analysis as the Core of Preparation of Instruction. Paper in *Does History Matter; Stability and Change in Education*. Conference, Trondheim 07-09.10.1999. Department of Education, Norwegian University of Science and Technology: 139-159.
- Knowles, M. (1975). *Self-Directed Learning. A Guide for Learners and Teachers*. N.Y.: Association Press.
- Kristeva, J. (2010). Frihet, likhet, brorskap og ... sårbarhet. I E. Engebretsen (red.) & J. Kristeva, *Annerledeshet – sårbarhetens politikk* (s. 34–59). Oslo: Gyldendal.
- Kroksmark, T. (1987). *Fenomenografisk didaktik*. Göteborg: Göteborg studies in educational sciences 63, Acta Universitatis Gothoburgensis.
- KUF. (1970). *Innstilling om lovregler for spesialundervisning m.v.* (Commissioned Report on Legislation concerning Special Education etc. "The Blom Report").
- Lyster, S. (2001). Introduction to Language and Reading. Article in B. H. Johnsen & M.D. Skjørten (Eds.). *Education – Special Needs Education: An Introduction*. Oslo: Unipub.
- L 1997. *Læreplanverket for den 10-årige grunnskolen* (The Curriculum for the of 10-Year Compulsory School in Norway). The Royal Ministry of Education, Research and the Church Affairs.
- M 1987. *Mønsterplan for grunnskolen* (Curriculum Guidelines for Compulsory Education in Norway). Royal Norwegian Ministry of Education, Research and the Church and Aschehoug.
- Maslow, A. (1954). *Motivation and Personality*. New York: Harper.
- Meland/NFPU. (1987). *Eit samfunn for alle. Eit informasjonshefte om tiltak for funksjonshemma i Meland* (A Society for All. An Information Pamphlet about Services for Disabled in Meland).
- Mittler, P. (2000). *Working Towards Inclusive Education – Social Contexts*. London: David Fulton Publisher.
- Myhre, R. (1970). *Pedagogisk idehistorie*. Fabritius & sønners forlag.

- Nafstad, A. (1993). Det utviklingspsykologiske perspektivet - et bidrag til diagnostikk og behandling. (The Developmental Psychological Perspective - a Contribution to Diagnosing and Treatment). In B. Gjørum (Ed). *Kunnskap og ettertanke. Psykisk utviklingshemmede som flerfaglig utfordring*. Oslo: Universitetsforlaget.
- Nirje, B. (1980). The Normalization Principle. In R. Flynn & K. Nitsch (Eds.). *Normalization, Social Integration, and Community Services* (pp. 31–49). Austin:TX: PRO-ED.
- Noddings, N. (1992). *The Challenge to Care in Schools*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Noddings, N. (2003). *Happiness and Education*. USA: Cambridge Press.
- Nordahl, T. & Overland, T. (1996). *Individuelle opplæringsplaner i en inkluderende skole*. (Individual Curricula in an Inclusive School). Oslo: Ad Notam Gyldendal.
- NUFU 32/2002. *Research, Innovation and Postgraduate Competence Building in Special Needs Education towards Inclusion" - Ethiopia - Uganda – Norway*. Tirussew Teferra, Addis Ababa University & Berit H. Johnsen, University of Oslo.
- Ostad, S.. (1989). *Mathematics Through the Finger Tips. Basic Mathematics for the Blind Pupil: Developmental and Empirical Testing of Tactile Representations*. Høslø: The Norwegian Institute of Special Education.
- Ostad, S. (2001). Understanding and Handling Numbers. In B.H. Johnsen & M. D. Skjørten (Eds.). *Education – Special Needs Education: An Introduction*. Oslo: Unipub.
- Popkewitz, T. (1997). The Production of Reason and Power: Curriculum History and Intellectual Traditions. In *Journal of Curriculum Studies* no. 2/1997:131-164.
- Putnam, J. (Ed). (1993). *Cooperative Learning and Strategies for Inclusion. Celebrating Diversity in the Classroom*. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes Publishing.
- Rogoff, B. (1990). *Apprenticeship in Thinking. Cognitive Development in Social Context*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Rogoff, B. (2003). *The Cultural Nature of Human Development*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Rommetveit, Ragnar. (1992). Outlines of a Dialogically Based Social-Cognitive Approach to Human Cognition and Communication. In A. H. Wold. (Ed.). *The Dialogical Alternative* (pp. 19-44). Oslo: Scandinavian University Press.
- Rustad, L. M. (2007). Mary Wollstonecraft: Frihet, likhet og humanisme. I K. Steinsholt & L. Løvlie (red.), *Pedagogikkens mange ansikter* (s. 185–198). Oslo: Universitetsforlaget.
- Rye, H. (2001). Helping Children and Families with Special Needs: A Resource-Oriented Approach. In B. H. Johnsen & M. D. Skjørten (Eds.). *Education–Special Needs Education: An Introduction*. Oslo: Unipub.
- Rye, H. (2005). The Foundation of an Optimal Psychosocial Development. In B. H. Johnsen (Ed.). *Socio-Emotional Growth and Development of Learning Strategies* (pp. 215-228). Oslo: Unipub–Oslo Academic Press.
- Skrtic, T. (1995). *Disability and Democracy. Reconstructing (Special) Education for Postmodernity*. New York: Teachers college press.
- Sehic, M., Karlsdóttir, R. & Guðmundsdóttir, S. (2005). Socio-Cultural Foundation of Inclusion in Norwegian Schools. In B. H. Johnsen (Ed.). *Socio-Emotional Growth and Development of Learning Strategies* (pp. 309-322). Oslo: Unipub – Oslo Academic Press.
- Smith, D. (1998). *Inclusion: Schools for All Pupils*. Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Strickland, B. & Turnbull, A. (1993). *Developing and Implementing Individualized Educational Programs*. N.Y.: Macmillan Publishing Company.

- SØE 06/02. (2002). *Institutional Competence Building and Cooperation with Two Bosnian Universities: "Special Needs Education towards Inclusion"*. The Cooperation Programme with South-East Europe (CPSEE) 2002-2004.
- Taba, H. (1962). *Curriculum Development*. N.Y.: Harcourt, Brace & World, inc.
- Tetler, S. (2000). *Den inkluderende skole – fra vision til virkelighed* (The Inclusive School – from Vision to Reality). København: Gyldendal Uddannelse.
- Tharp, R. G. & Gallimore, R. (1988). *Rousing Minds to Life. Teaching, Learning and Schooling in Social Context*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Tyler, R. W. (1949). *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- UN. (2006). *The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities*. New York: United Nations.
- UNESCO. (1994). *The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education*. Paris: UNESCO.
- UNESCO. (2004). *Changing Teaching Practices Using Curriculum Differentiation to Respond to Students' Diversity*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Vedeler, L. (1990). *Tilpasset opplæring i alderen rundt skolestart* (Suitably Adapted Education in the First Years of Primary Education). Oslo: Universitetsforlaget.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society. The development of higher psychological processes*. M. Cole, V. John-Steiner, S. Scribner & E. Souberman (Eds.). Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- WB 04/06. (2006). *Development towards the Inclusive School: Practices – Research – Capacity Building: Universities of Belgrade, Ljubljana, Sarajevo, Skopje, Tuzla, Zagreb & Oslo*.
- Webster-Stratton, C. (1999). *How to Promote Children's Social and Emotional Competence*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.
- Wertsch, J. V. (1991). *Voices of the Mind. A Sociocultural Approach to Mediated Action*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Wolfensberger, W. (1980). A Brief Overview of the Principle of Normalization. In R. Flynn & K. Nitsch (Eds.). *Normalization, Social Integration, and Community Services* (s. 3–6). Austin, TX: PRO-ED.