Merja Paksuniemi, Minna Körkkö,
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GUIDE TO CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE TEACHING AND DIVERSE LEARNERS IN THE DAILY LIFE OF SCHOOLS

Guide to Culturally Responsive Teaching and Diverse Learners in the Daily Life of Schools

Edited by

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Preface

This guide is a joint publication of three research projects carried out at the Faculty of Education at the University of Lapland. The purpose of this guide is to increase research-based knowledge of culturally responsive teaching and offer practical examples that can be used in primary school teacher training and when tutoring and teaching learners with a diverse needs and minority or immigrant backgrounds. The name of this booklet derives from the idea, shared by the three projects, of applying culturally responsive teaching in the daily activities of teachers and schools. This guide is a response to the need to manage increasingly diverse teaching contexts. Teachers and primary school student teachers need information about the theory and practice of culturally responsive teaching in order to manage complex educational and teaching situations. The authors of this guide are experts from the three projects as well as invited writers.

The main goals of *Kulttuuritietoiset materiaalit osaksi koulun arkea ja käytänteitä,* KuTiMat (2019-2020), (in English: Culturally Aware Teaching Materials is School's Everyday Practices) project was to promote cultural awareness, sensitivity and responsiveness among teachers and teacher educators, and to increase partnership and equality in society. The subproject of the University of Lapland was to increase the dialogue between different cultures. The project was funded by the National Board of Education and coordinated by the University of Oulu. The *Kulttuurisensitiivinen opinpolku Lapissa* (KOP, in English: Cultural-Sensitive Learning Path in Lapland) project (2018—2019) focused on making school transitions easier for secondary school-aged pupils belonging to a minority in the region of Lapland. The project was based on another ESF-funded project entitled *Opintie sujuvaksi* (Clear path of learning) (2016—2017), which collected immigrant and Sámi comprehensive school graduates' thoughts on their upcoming school transition. (Körkkö et al. 2017.) The collected data brought to light problems related to minority groups' school transitions which could be made smoother by addressing those problems. Another related aim of the KOP project was to lower the threshold to applying for further studies after comprehensive school and ensure that young people reach upper secondary education. The purpose of the KOP project was, thus, to respond to the needs identified in the earlier project and apply the important information produced by the project in practice. This would help to make minority groups' transitions to upper secondary education successful and ensure that as many Sámi and immigrant pupils as possible make a choice that will support their studies after comprehensive school and achievement of a vocational qualification. During the project, workshops were organised for school personnel and primary school student teachers at the University

of Lapland. The purpose of the project was to gather information about how teachers should interact with diverse learners and support young people's transition phase by introducing culturally sensitive and responsive tools to schools. As part of the project, we also launched mentoring activities with the aim of helping young people's transition and adaptation to their new upper secondary school. In other words, we created models of culturally responsive teaching solutions to be used in schools and school transitions.

The aim of the third project, entitled *Ideoita arkeen! Täydennyskoulutusta maahanmuuttajien opettamiseen Lapissa* (Ideas for daily teaching! Continuing education for the teaching of immigrants in Lapland) (2017—2019), was to support the development of teachers' expertise. The project offered training courses to teachers to improve their competence in interacting with learners from different cultures and backgrounds and to teach them at different school levels. During the project, workshops entitled *Avaimia arkeen* (Solutions to daily teaching) were organised, in which we approached diversity and the teaching of immigrants through different themes. The workshops offered the participants various tools and new perspectives to teaching learners with different backgrounds as well as knowledge and skills to increase their sense of equality and inclusion as members of their community and society. The participants obtained practical tools and teaching methods, which they can use in their work as teachers of immigrants and diverse pupils and students.

This guide discusses the concept of culturally responsive teaching and offers practical tips on how to organise culturally responsive teaching as part of the daily activities of schools. This book was edited by Merja Paksuniemi, Minna Körkkö, Pigga Keskitalo and Katja Norvapalo from the University of Lapland, Department of Education.

The first part of the guide focuses on the theory and research of culturally responsive teaching. In the first chapter, 'Culturally Responsive Teaching, Merja Paksuniemi specifies what culturally responsive teaching strategies mean in the context of schools, what kinds of elements culturally responsive teaching consists of and what kinds of characteristics a culturally responsive teacher should have. In the following chapter, entitled 'Culturally Responsive Teaching in Sámi Education', Pigga Keskitalo discusses culturally responsive teaching in Sámi education from the perspective of teaching indigenous peoples. The third chapter, Suvi Lakkala's article 'The Contents and Methods of Inclusive Pedagogy', deals with the requirements of inclusive pedagogy: teachers must use various skills, adopt a respectful approach towards their pupils and apply a new perspective on special education.

The second part of the guide focuses on practical issues. Minna Körkkö presents the *mentoring method* developed in the KOP project. She describes the peer support activities launched in the project, which were implemented in the form of mentoring activities in two upper secondary schools. Heidi Keskinen discusses the theme of 'Young Immigrants' Transition to Upper Secondary Education' from the point of view of individuals. This school transition significantly affects young people's lives, and the support measures available to them play an important role. Outi Kyrö-Ämmälä and Katja Ant-

tila write about 'Teaching Thinking Skills in Basic Education' based on the workshops they organised as part of the *Ideoita arkeen!* project. The workshops approached the theme from a practical point of view, offering the participants methods of addressing learners' thinking skills and teaching them. Also Satu Taskinen takes a practical point of view in her article 'Enhancing the Inclusion of Immigrant Pupils' based on her work with immigrant pupils.

The KuTiMat project was carried out by the experts Pigga Keskitalo and Minna Körkkö and the project leader, Merja Paksuniemi. The KOP project was carried out by the experts Pigga Keskitalo and Partow Izadi, project manager Susanna Rivinen, who was later replaced by Minna Körkkö, and the project leader, Merja Paksuniemi. In the *Ideoita arkeen!* project, the project manager was first Annika Tuomisto and later Katja Norvapalo, the planner was Satu Narkaus and the teachers in charge were Outi Kyrö-Ämmälä, Merja Paksuniemi, Pigga Keskitalo and Nafisa Yeasmin. The KuTiMat project concentrated on developing culturally responsive learning materials.

Rovaniemi, 15 May 2020
The members of the editorial board

Merja Paksuniemi
Minna Körkkö
Pigga Keskitalo
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[1] Paksuniemi, Merja, Körkkö, Minna, Keskitalo, Pigga & Norvapalo, Katja (toim.) (2019). *Opaskirja oppilaan kohtaamiseen monikulttuurisessa koulun arjessa*. Turku: Siirtolaisuusinstituutti. Julkaisuja nro 26.

Jenny Paksuniemi, Vene.

I
Culturally Responsive Teaching

Minna Körkkö, Muonio 2018.

Culturally Responsive Teaching Strategies

Merja Paksuniemi

Opening remarks

What does culturally responsive teaching mean in schools? What kinds of actions are needed to realise it in practice? How can it be made a natural part of the daily life of schools? This chapter introduces the concept, theory and practice of culturally responsive teaching. Implementing culturally responsive teaching is a key to the overall well-being of pupils from diverse backgrounds and makes it possible to plan individual future education paths.

1. Culturally responsive teaching

From the late 19th century to the early 1960s, the main principle of the Finnish comprehensive school system was to provide education that was based on the idea of one language and one culture. The aim was, first, to unify the nation, second, to educate citizens capable of living as members of society and third, to make citizens who would serve the interests of society. (Paksuniemi 2009; Paksuniemi 2013.) Different cultures have affected and still affect our school system both implicitly and explicitly. In today's school, we should question any practices that do not allow pupils from minority cultures and diverse backgrounds to engage with the teaching and have a sense of being part of the education system. (Kortekangas, Paksuniemi & Ervast 2019; Saarreharju & Paksuniemi 2017.) There are many factors behind the underachievement of pupils from diverse backgrounds. One example of such factors is pupils' educational and societal backgrounds. Another example is a situation in which teaching is organised in such a way that pupils do not have the possibility to use their resources. This problem may be helped by taking pupils' backgrounds equally into account when planning and implementing teaching.

It is possible that teachers are not aware of the impact of cultural backgrounds and traditions on teaching and learning, and as a result, they may view their pupils as a homogeneous group (E.g. Körkkö 2019; Paksuniemi, Körkkö & Choi 2019a; 2019b). Thus, teachers must recognise that the groups they teach include pupils with various cultural

backgrounds. Teachers should also understand the special characteristics of those cultures and acquire necessary skills to be able to pay attention to those backgrounds and treat their pupils as individuals when planning and implementing teaching.

Learning situations and educational contexts have become more diverse as a result of global changes, convergence and migration. In basic education, we have an increasing number of pupils with a multicultural and multilingual background. The Finnish education system is based on the idea of treating pupils as individuals, and this idea should also be followed when organising teaching (Opetushallitus 2014). Culturally responsive teaching — understanding and realising it in teaching — plays a crucial role in promoting inclusion and equality in teaching.

According to the Finnish national core curriculum for basic education, teachers must pay attention to their pupils' linguistic and cultural backgrounds in their teaching (Opetushallitus 2014), and this means culturally responsive teaching. In other words, the aim of culturally responsive teaching is to pedagogically work with classroom's diversity by appreciating learners' backgrounds (see, e.g., Morris & Mims 1999). This is based on teachers having a good knowledge of each pupil, which includes necessary information about the pupil's background (Saarreharju & Paksuniemi 2017; see Gay 2000; Richards, Ayanna & Forde 2004). The curriculum provides teachers with guidelines, which they should follow in their teaching. Paying attention to culturally responsive teaching not only supports pupils from diverse backgrounds, for example, but it also broadens other pupils' understanding and educates them to be globally and culturally tolerant and manage to live in changing situations.

The central task of culturally responsive teaching is to treat pupils as individuals and implement teaching according to the principles of inclusion (See, e.g., Richards, Brown & Forde 2004; Saarreharju & Paksuniemi 2017; Väyrynen & Paksuniemi 2018). Making culturally responsive teaching part of the daily activities of schools can be promoted by including it in teacher training and further training for teachers and other school personnel. At the University of Lapland, for example, this topic is included in the primary school teacher training programme, in the didactics of history and social studies and in teaching practice of these subjects. According to the course feedback, some students were already familiar with the topic while others did not have any previous knowledge about it. Students felt that culturally responsive teaching planning and implementation of teaching was an important part of teacher training. The following includes excerpts from the feedback we received from our students in 2017.

'It seems that today, recognising pupils' background in teaching and planning teaching is part of teaching, and I'm glad that it is. The world has changed, and the school should change accordingly. I was actually familiar with this topic, but what was new to me was that I learnt concretely how I should apply it in my future work.'

'The topmost/important thing I learnt was paying attention to culturally responsive teaching. As future teachers, we should understand early on how teaching should be

planned and implemented. We should also learn how to treat pupils as individuals in the classroom.'

'Culturally sensitive and responsive teaching is an important issue! The teacher's role as an enabler and maintainer of interaction was a good thing to learn.'

'On the course, I learnt many new perspectives on teaching the contents of history and social studies. They included ones that I might never have thought of. Even if there are pupils with an immigrant background in the class, it is not necessary to cut down the content; rather, you should change the way you teach. This is a good example of treating pupils as individuals, which we talked about.'

'The ideas of diversity and cultural sensitivity and culturally responsive teaching made me understand many new things and taught me many things that I can use in my future work.'

On the course mentioned above, students study the concept of cultural sensitivity and culturally responsive teaching theoretically with the help of various exercises and train practice by planning and implementing their teaching practice periods under guidance.

The three main factors affecting the realisation of culturally responsive teaching are described in Figure 1.

Figure 1. The three main strategies affecting the realisation of culturally responsive teaching.

Teacher training — Building culturally responsive teaching strategies

- Teacher training offers theoretical knowledge which improves culturally responsive teaching skills. The topic of culturally responsive teaching should be connected to guidelines and legislation, such as the national core curriculum for basic education and legislation on children's rights and obligations and human rights. Inclusive teaching is closely related to these themes, which provide possibilities for broadening teachers' understanding and awareness of 'belonging' and pedagogical tools how to work at classrooms practically.
- Culturally responsive teaching theme should be included in the didactics and pedagogy of different school subjects.
- Student teachers should have the possibility to practise culturally responsive teaching pedagogy during their guided teaching practice periods.

Culturally Responsive Teaching — Combining knowledge and skills

- Recognition and appreciation of different cultural backgrounds.
- Pedagogical content and methods that enable diversity and inclusion.
- Classroom arrangements that recognise the differences between individuals and the heterogeneity of groups.
- Collaboration with pupils' parents during the school years, so that each pupil's needs and background are recognised.

Culturally Responsive School — Applying culturally responsive teaching in a broader context

- We should take measures to realise equality.
- We should encourage an accepting atmosphere.
- We should give pupils the necessary support for their current studies as well as their future school paths through mentoring, for example.

The knowledge and skills acquired in teacher training and practising them during the teaching practice periods lay the basis for working as a teacher. Once teachers graduate, they are responsible for using their knowledge and skills in their teaching, while it is the responsibility of schools to create the conditions to make this possible.

2. Culturally responsive teachers

What are culturally responsive teachers like? What kinds of characteristics do they have? Culturally responsive teachers are aware of their pupils' cultural and ethnic backgrounds and the practices, traditions and special characteristics related to them.

Teachers are responsible for planning and pedagogically implementing their teaching so that equality and inclusion are realised for every individual. They also have an important role in promoting interaction between individuals and within groups and promoting immigrants' integration into their new home country, for example. (See Gay 2000; Pannula Toft, Paksuniemi & Westberg 2018; Saarreharju & Paksuniemi 2017; Villegas & Lucas 2002.) At best, teachers set an example through their own behaviour and also teach tolerance and antiracism (Keskitalo, Sarivaara, Linkola & Paksuniemi 2018).

Teachers should be aware of the fact that their pupils come from different cultural backgrounds and navigate between their home and school cultures every day. They must accept that the cultural diversity of their pupils' backgrounds creates a *heterogeneous classroom community*. Teachers should also be aware that their own cultural background is present in their teaching, and that this background may be different from those of their pupils. How does this affect the planning and implementation of teaching? Culturally responsive teachers have many characteristics, but Figure 2 below summarises the main features that enable culturally responsive teaching in practice.

Figure 2. Characteristics of culturally responsive teachers.

A positive attitude

Teachers are responsive enough to take pupils from different cultural backgrounds into account. They have a supportive and encouraging attitude towards their pupils.

They view diversity as a resource and fostering interaction as an important part of their teaching practices. Teachers are interested in their pupils' backgrounds, learn from their cultures and use this knowledge when planning and conducting their teaching. Teachers are changing agents towards culturally responsive teaching.

Pedagogical skills

Teachers' teaching practices are based on an understanding that pupils bring their previous knowledge and experience to the classroom, and part of these may be related to their background. Teachers adjust their behaviour to incorporate culturally responsive teaching their teaching and individualise their teaching when necessary. Teachers observe their own attitudes and behaviour as well as the prevailing practices.

Awareness of responsibilities

Teachers are aware of their responsibility to make changes to their teaching and classroom practices when necessary. They should be made with the help of a positive attitude and pedagogical expertise. It is important that every pupil feels that they are welcome and an important member of the class. Teachers should also teach pupils their responsibilities related to culturally responsive teaching and thus create a safe classroom atmosphere where everyone is accepted as they are.

Awareness of the presence of different cultures

Teachers should be aware of the fact there are different cultures present in their classroom. They should also recognise that not all cultural factors are externally visible and that pupils also bring silent cultural knowledge to the classroom. Teachers must also be aware of the fact that their own cultural background affects their teaching.

Teachers play a key role in ensuring that the members of their teaching groups feel that they are accepted, safe and part the group. The basic starting points are adequate skills of teachers, professional behaviour and a positive attitude. They guide their pupils and set an example through their own behaviour.

3. Concluding remarks

Culturally responsive teaching is not a new phenomenon or practice in itself. However, it plays a more important role in today's schools as an increasing number of pupils from diverse backgrounds participate in our classroom activities. As Gay (2000) state, in order to improve the performance of the underachieving students of various ethnic groups, culturally responsive teaching is needed. It is true that concepts often remain at the level of superficial statements without any practical advice. Therefore, it is crucial to define the concept of culturally responsive teaching explicitly and provide education

providers and teaching personnel with adequate instructions and resources to implement it as part of the daily activities of schools.

In Finland, the topic of culturally responsive teaching is mentioned in public educational guidelines, regulations and documents, such as the national core curriculum for basic education. Finland has been and still is a pioneer of high-level teacher training, and many countries have turned their eyes to the Finnish education system to learn from it. Through the export and import of education, various education and teaching methods developed in Finland are experimented with and implemented in different countries around the world. Thus, the incorporation of culturally responsive teaching into pedagogy also carries international significance.

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Culturally Responsive Teaching in Sámi Education

Pigga Keskitalo

Opening remarks

Maid kultuvrralaš diđolašvuohta mearkkaša sámeoahpahusas? Mo oahpahusa galggašii lágidit kultuvrralaš diđolašvuođa prinsihpaid vuođul? Teaksta vuodju kultuvrralaš diđolašvuođa gieđahallamii sámeoahpahusas. Teaksta láidesta sámegielat ja sámegielat oahpahusa doarjumii girjás sámeoahpahusa konteavsttas. Teavstta čálli lea dutkan sámeoahpahusa kultursensitiivavuođa ja almmuhan máŋggaid dieđalaš teavsttaid ja girjjiid sámeoahpahusas.

What does culturally responsive teaching mean in the context of Sámi education? How should education be organised according to the principles of culturally responsive teaching? This chapter discusses culturally responsive teaching in Sámi education context. It introduces the topic with the aim of supporting diverse learners participating in Sámi language teaching and school activities that are conducted in the context of Sámi education. The author has studied cultural sensitivity and culturally responsive teaching in Sámi education and published several academic texts and books on Sámi education.

1.   Introduction

In this chapter, I focus on culturally responsive teaching from the perspectives of Sámi education and Sámi pupils. The simplest definition of Sámi education is any teaching context that has something to do with the Sámi people. Usually, it involves the teaching of Sámi pupils, but it may also include teaching Sámi as a second language or other education that somehow deals with the Sámi culture or people. This kind of teaching is organised in the Sámi homeland and outside it. In Finland, the Sámi homeland consists of the municipalities of Enontekiö, Inari and Utsjoki and the Lappi reindeer herding cooperative, i.e. the surroundings of the Vuotso village, in the municipality of Sodankylä

(Map 1). Under the Basic Education Act, the provider of basic education is obliged to provide pupils with teaching of and in the Sámi language in this area. Sámi-speaking pupils living in the Sámi homeland are entitled to receive education primarily in Sámi. The Finnish National Agency for Education's regulation stipulates that outside the Sámi homeland, the Sámi language can be studied as an additional subject. This regulation also applies to immigrant pupils' mother tongues. (Aikio-Puoskari 2009.)

The tools to promote culturally responsive teaching described in this chapter are specifically aimed at schools in the Sámi area in Finland, but the ideas of culturally responsive teaching can be applied to any Sámi-based education or teaching activities. Sámi teaching and early childhood education activities are organised around the country outside the Sámi area, and many pupils, especially in the Sámi homeland, also study Sámi regardless of their background. The need to increase knowledge about Sámi education applies to Finland as a whole because in all Finnish schools, the teaching contents include knowledge about the Sámi people. There is need for this knowledge in Finnish teacher education, schools and other educational institutions and in a society general. The starting point is cultural inclusion, according to which knowledge and studies about different groups, including the Sámi people and Sámi heritage, always increase solidarity and mutual understanding between different people. This can be referred to as intercultural competence. One important task of the school institution is to prevent and reduce discrimination and racism, which can often be based on ignorance and inadequate cultural skills. Making minorities invisible was a prevalent practice in Finland up until the 1970s.

2. The increasingly diverse context of Sámi education

Sámi education takes place in increasingly diverse circumstances as a result of language shift, revitalisation of language, migration and societal structural changes. The current situation has been brought about by developments that first began as a result of modernisation during the reconstruction period in the 1950s and were later driven by globalisation as teaching in the Sámi language began to be developed at the end of the 1970s. In the Sámi homeland in Finland, some Sámi-speaking pupils study in Sámi classes and others in Finnish classes due to their parents' preference, the pupils' language skills or other reasons. Other pupils, in addition to Sámi-speaking pupils, participate in teaching the Sámi language or teaching in it. Language immersion classes have been established to teach Sámi. So far there are classes in Utsjoki and Inari, even though there is a great need for them in different parts of the Sámi area and outside it. The establishment of language immersion classes requires societal, political and financial support. This type of support is increasing slowly. In the teaching of Inari Sámi, language immersion methods have already been used for a long time, from early childhood education to adult speakers' language revitalisation (e.g. Olthuis, Kivelä & Skutnabb-Kangas 2013; Pasanen 2015).
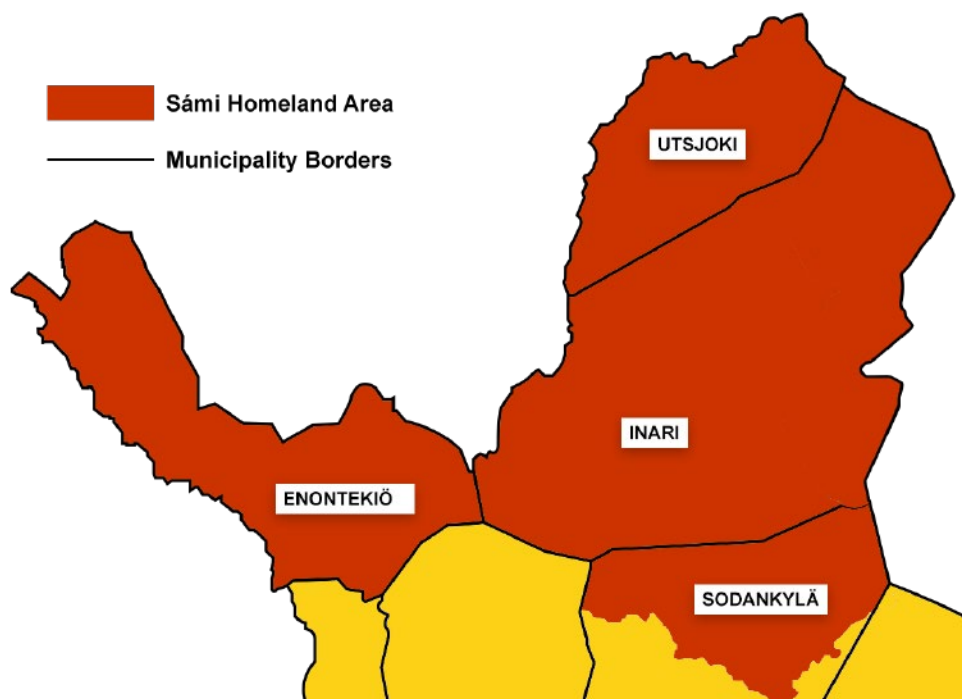
Map 1. The Sámi homeland in Finland.

The Sámi people live Finland, Norway, Sweden and Russia in Kola Peninsula. The Sámi people are recognised as an indigenous people in the Constitution of Finland. The Constitution guarantees the Sámi people the right to develop their language and culture. Under the Act on the Sámi Parliament, the Sámi Parliament implements the Sámi people's cultural autonomy in the Sámi homeland area. Nowadays, more than half of the Sámi population in Finland live outside the homeland area. As many as over 75 percent of the Sámi-speaking children who are under 10 years old live outside the Sámi homeland. The Sámi people living in Finland speak three different Sámi languages: Northern Sámi, Inari Sámi and Skolt Sámi. All three are endangered languages. There are approximately 10,500 Sámi in Finland. It is estimated that about one-third of them are Sámi speakers. (Guttorm & Keskitalo 2016; Keskitalo 2019a; Keskitalo, Määttä & Uusiautti 2013; Rasmus 2010.) Language shift is a phenomenon that poses a challenge to the situation of the Sámi people and to the future of the Sámi languages and is the result of a history of assimilation, modernism and globalisation. Efforts have been made to reverse this phenomenon through language revitalisation and increasing the domains of use and number of speakers of the languages.

The daily activities of teachers in the Finnish Sámi area are characterised by a diverse educational context. This also applies to every school in Finland. In the schools in the Sámi homeland area, the Sámi people's history, languages, culture, livelihoods and way of life form an important part of the teaching content, which has the aim of supporting pupils' diverse identities by recognising the local context.

The church arrived in the Sámi area already in the 12th century and began to operate actively among the Sámi people in the 17th century. The church made active attempts to 'civilise' the Sámi people. From the mid-19th century to the end of the 1960s, the church's activities and the nationalist school institution led to an increase in language shift from the Sámi languages to Finnish. (Keskitalo, Lehtola & Paksuniemi 2014; Kortekangas et al. 2019; Linkola-Aikio, Paksuniemi & Keskitalo 2018.) The teaching in the Sámi language was started in 1970s. Nowadays, it is an important task of the school institution and society to revitalise and strengthen the Sámi languages and culture.

3.   Culturally responsive teaching tools for schools in the context of Sámi education

Culturally responsive schools pay attention to every pupil's background in a positive way and make pedagogical arrangements according to supporting the diversity. In these schools, the diverse daily life of the school is made visible, and an effort is made to display the different languages and cultures equally. The practices vary. In schools that use Sámi and Finnish, these two languages especially should be treated equally in situations which involve Sámi pupils or in which the teaching is related to the Sámi culture in some way especially in Sámi homeland area. In practice, this means that the school's working languages are equally visible and equally heard in the daily practices of the school. In other words, schools should create a language strategy, which is based on the presence of several languages in the daily activities of the school. In such a strategy, pupils' backgrounds play an important role for the quality of teaching. According to research, one central factor supporting pupils' school success is that their characteristics, abilities and needs are recognised comprehensively. Talking about languages and hearing them raises their value and makes pupils' backgrounds visible in the daily activities of schools. (Linkola & Keskitalo 2015.)

In the Finnish Sámi homeland area, the principle of cultural inclusion means that all pupils should gain knowledge and experience of the Sámi culture. Another desirable goal would be to provide all those who want it the possibility to develop functional bilingualism irrespective of their ethnic background. In practice, this would require language immersion classes established in all the schools in the Finnish Sámi area as well as a general atmosphere that would encourage and urge people to acquire fluent language skills in local languages. It would also require language planning and extensive cooperation from municipalities. To pupils, Sámi represents a future resource and an important working language in the Sámi area, and thus it would be strategically sound to increase the number of language users and the domains of use through teaching. This would also effectively prevent further language shift. In addition, active measures are

still needed to provide Finnish teacher training institutions and schools with education about Sámi issues. The Sámi Parliament has introduced one programme in which young Sámi people visit schools to increase knowledge of the Sámi people (Yle Sápmi 2014).

Culturally responsive teaching in Sámi education:

- recognises different kinds of learners,
- gives pupils the possibility to influence their learning on the basis of their language and culture,
- pays attention to the local cultures in teaching,
- applies pedagogical arrangements that offer all pupils in the Finnish Sámi homeland the possibility to become attached to their home region,
- offers practical instructions and recommendations about how schools can preserve and strengthen the Sámi languages and culture and support the identities of different pupils at the same time,
- is the responsibility of the school as a whole.

It is important that all pupils become interested in the Sámi languages and culture and are supported in their effort to continue living in the Sámi area. Schools must be prepared to instruct new members of their working community about the characteristics of the area and the diversity of their pupils. In this way, the schools' teachers will have a better idea of what it means to teach and interact with Sámi-speaking pupils and what culturally responsive teaching means in the school as a whole. The purpose of cultural responsiveness is to provide teachers and other school personnel with the means to listen to their pupils' wishes and the opinions of the parents of pupils who participate in teaching the Sámi language and teaching in Sámi and put in pedagogical principles actions that highlight diversity. It is also important to ensure that all the pupils of the school study the contents related to the Sámi culture and that the surrounding community supports and is involved in this.

4. Open communication channels based on the principles of culturally responsive teaching

Cultural diversity affects people's communication, interaction and participation in teaching situations in many ways. Open communication channels play a key role in promoting culturally responsive teaching. In the context of education and schools, culturally responsive teaching refers to learning and teaching that is pedagogically solving the logics of diversity. The starting point is an awareness of cultural differences

and similarities, and of the fact that they affect people's values, learning and behaviour in schools. Culturally responsive teaching means that people respect each other's cultures and diversity and this is seen in pedagogical arrangements. Schools and other educational institutions must pay attention to culturally responsive teaching in their practices, because it affects collaboration and its success in the daily life of schools. The recognition of children's and families' different backgrounds increases their feelings of inclusion and safety. These feelings play an important role in learning because they facilitate the learning of new skills and increase school satisfaction. Thus, they also form one factor behind pupils' school achievement. (Keskitalo 2019b; Saukkonen 2013.)

Culturally responsive teaching is about communicating and behaving in a way that considers other people's cultural norms. It involves a willingness to learn from other people's cultural traditions and characteristics. It is about treating other cultures and diverse identities with respect and dignity according to the principles of human rights. Multilingual and multicultural people have flexible and diverse identities. (Schubert 2007.) Culturally responsive teaching means that no one is judged. Professional educators ensure that communication can be maintained irrespective of cultural differences. The more knowledge people have about the characteristics of a certain culture, the better they are able to communicate flexibly. Flexible communication is characterised by openness, caring and respecting the uniqueness of each individual irrespective of cultural differences. In culturally responsive teaching, attention is paid to the opportunities in educational situations, not the obstacles present in them. (Guttorm & Keskitalo 2016.)

According to Ladson-Billings (1994), culturally responsive teaching is a pedagogy that recognizes the importance of including students' cultural references in all aspects of learning. The characteristics of culturally responsive teaching are:

Positive perspectives on parents and families
Communication of high expectations
Learning within the context of culture
Student-centred instruction
Culturally mediated instruction
Reshaping the curriculum
Teacher as facilitator. (Ladson-Billings 1994.)

5. Culturally responsive teaching strategies in Sámi education context

In culturally sensitive education, attention is paid to the local culture and children's backgrounds and experience. These are used as the basic elements on which teaching and activities are founded. Localness is an important value in teaching and organising

teaching, and attention is also paid to gender, individuals, groups, families, languages and ethnic backgrounds. Teaching activities, contents and materials support the overall development of each child. In northern areas, this means that the Sámi heritage and interculturalism and diversity are taken as norms in formal educational situations in schools in which the Sámi culture and languages are present in some manner in daily activities. At the same time, municipalities must also determine their stance on diversity.

One important question is whether everyone should be entitled to learn Sámi irrespective of their ethnic background. This question concerns both children and the community as a whole. If radically inclusive multiculturalism is chosen as the strategy, everyone will have the possibility to learn Sámi in school regardless of their background. In such a strategy, the aim is to broaden the domains of use of the language, and the providers of education are responsible for enabling the learning of Sámi from day care to adult education. In this model, cultural inclusion applies to everyone. This type of approach is in place, for example, in the municipalities of Kautokeino and Karasjok, which have chosen radical cultural inclusion as their language strategy. (Keskitalo 2017; 2010.) Other municipalities could learn from them.

In addition, Sámi early childhood education, the language revitalisation of Inari Sámi and the Sámi language immersion class in Utsjoki and Inari are other successful examples of changing existing practices and promoting the aim of broadening the domains of use of Sámi and improving the overall well-being of people and communities. Adult education, too, has managed to increase the number of speakers of Sámi. Adults can start to use Sámi by taking basic courses, and professionals from different fields can also learn Sámi for professional purposes. In teaching materials, cultural responsiveness is implemented by paying attention to the local culture.

6.   Concluding remarks

The diversity of the educational context in the Sámi area poses challenges not only for Sámi-language activities, but also for those learning contexts in which both Sámi and Finnish are used. Culturally responsive teachers are education professionals who work in a diverse, intercultural and multilingual teaching context when they teach and interact with Sámi children. They strongly support their pupils' backgrounds and identities. At the same time, their pupils' parents also need support. Providing parents with support and guidance forms part of teachers' work as parents may feel insecure about how to navigate and succeed in multilingual educational situations. Teachers must also pay special attention to fostering Sámi learning environments. Often teachers act as defenders of Sámi education and pupils' rights in schools whose practices and operational culture nonetheless represent the Finnish school system as the teaching in and of Sámi are practised within this system.

Cultural responsiveness should be applied by all education professionals who work in the Sámi area as well as all others whose work involves these issues. Above all, people should act sensitively, politely, curiously and considerately towards other people in various situations. Forgetting the principles of cultural responsiveness, or not basing communication on the principles, may create obstacles to communication. Primarily, culturally responsive teaching tools support the activities of teachers who work in the area of Sámi education, regardless of their language background, but these tools also serve teachers working with Sámi people living in cities as well as all teachers working in all kinds of teaching contexts.

The ideas of culturally responsive teaching may also offer support to teachers who teach in the Sámi language or who have worked as teachers in the Sámi area for a long time. The education experts who work in the Sámi homeland often have long experience of teaching. They are familiar with the operational environment of schools and the field of education. Often teachers act as fosterers and mentors of the Sámi culture in schools. It is a mixed role and requires time and resources from teachers. Among other things, teachers should also support parents' role in education, families' language choices and diverse pupils' language development and needs relating to cultural and language revitalisation. With respect to Sámi pedagogy, it is important to consider the needs of diverse pupils and the pedagogy of language revitalisation, for example. There is an increasing interest in the teaching in and of Sámi, which also makes cultural responsiveness an important topic at the moment.

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The Contents and Methods of Inclusive Pedagogy

Suvi Lakkala

Opening remarks

What is good teaching like? How can the learning potential of different types of learners be unlocked and their learning promoted? This chapter describes the basic elements of inclusive pedagogy and demonstrates how important it is to provide each pupil with the possibility of developing on the basis of their own characteristics and abilities, and in an atmosphere of mutual respect.

1. Introduction

A decade or two ago it was still taken for granted that one teacher was more or less solely responsible for taking care of the teaching of one group of pupils (Mikola 2011). Depending on the personal abilities of children, there were different kinds of educational pathways available to them. Children whose development deviated from the normal development of children were educated in a different environment (Moberg 2002). In many countries, including Finland, the efforts to create an equal society generated a need to create more equal education, as education plays an important role in the course of people's lives. The aim of education policy is always to respond to the societal challenges of the time, and the current quest for inclusive education is part of this trend. Inclusive education radically reforms the substance of teachers' and principals' work as well as the school's role in general (see, e.g., Seppälä-Pänkäläinen 2009).

There is a consensus over the importance of the central values and principles of inclusive education, equality of education, equal learning opportunities and sense of community (see, e.g., Norwich 2013). The legislation and normative guidelines concern-

ing Finnish basic education are based on promoting these values. However, there is a gap between legislation and core curricula, and practice.

To realise inclusive education, it is essential, above all, to support pupils' learning potential. Recently, learning together has become to be used as a measure of equality in many Finnish comprehensive schools. The interpretation of inclusive education behind this has been that having many different types of learners present in one space represents an inclusive class. This idea has generated many problems in the daily practices of schools. It may be that pupils' right to learn and feeling of belonging to a group have not always been fulfilled. Teachers, too, have on many occasions reported work exhaustion and difficulties in paying attention to all learners' needs in teaching situations (e.g. *Helsingin Sanomat*, 31 March 2019). Internationally, it has been observed that if the idea of inclusion is interpreted too simplistically, it may cause new problems when different types of learners' are taught together in a big group (Norwich 2013). Different ways of implementing inclusion have been criticised, for example, for neglecting pupils' special education needs when aiming at cooperation. It must be remembered that special education was originally developed to ensure that different kinds of learners' right to learn would be fulfilled. Therefore, inclusion should be viewed as a qualitative phenomenon, the purpose of which is to ensure the fulfilment of each pupil's right to learn and belonging to the community of their neighbourhood school.

To implement inclusive education in a high-quality and socially sustainable, many changes and reforms must be made in the current school culture, policies and practice and approach of teachers, principals and students welfare personnel (Lakkala et al. 2019). Furthermore, the forms of support that can be offered through special education should not be forgotten but rather viewed from a new perspective (Norwich 2013). Inclusion does not make learners' individual needs for support disappear!

2.   Inclusive pedagogy

I once visited a primary school class that could be described as an inclusive class. The autumn semester was well under way, but the pupils had only learnt a couple of letters so far. What caught my attention, however, was the way in which the pupils, teachers and teaching assistants worked. Various work methods were used during the lessons, but the pupils always seemed to know what to do. At times, they consulted one another about an assignment or discussed it with the teacher or teaching assistant, but the atmosphere in the class remained peaceful and comfortable. The group's teachers, i.e. the primary school teacher and special education teacher, told me that the main goal of the autumn semester was to teach the pupils how to study and work together. The class also had three teaching assistants.

The pupils were divided into different kinds of small groups depending on the assignment. Differentiated assignments were used in mathematics and mother tongue, because about half of the pupils received general support and half special-needs support, and some of the pupils with special needs were in extended compulsory education and received teaching arranged by activity areas. The class always spent a lot of time to preparing to a new assignment, so that suitable working methods would gradually take shape and be grasped by both the pupils and the adults of the class. They also took time to discuss things that had happened during breaks, and the children were taught to negotiate the rules of games if they had had disagreements over them. Everything was done in a spirit of respect and care towards the pupils and colleagues.

When I visited the class in the spring, the class had already caught up with the first-grade curriculum even though they had been flexible with the goals of different subjects at the beginning of the school year.

2.1. Cooperation between adults

The above example includes many elements of inclusive pedagogy. As inclusive pedagogy involves diverse groups of learners, cooperation between adults can be considered its first element (Lakkala & Kyrö-Ämmälä 2017). In inclusive education, pupils' learning plans are continuously modified. Inclusion thus requires sufficient resources to take into account the diversity of pupils. Paying attention to pupils' individual needs does not, however, mean that teachers teach each pupil individually; rather, it means that teachers and other personnel use diverse teaching methods, which they plan together (Florian & Spratt 2013). In recent years, co-teaching has increased considerably in Finland, and teachers who work in teams have reported that co-teaching has brought many benefits to them and their pupils (Saloviita & Takala 2010). At the beginning, it requires more time to plan teaching, but once shared working methods are found and the division of duties determined, it is often enough that teachers plan their teaching together once a week. It is also a good idea to make use of teaching assistants' expertise when planning learning situations. If you have the chance to work together with a special education teacher once a week, for example, you can start your collaboration by arranging a regular shared planning meeting!

2.2. Creation of a socio-psychological atmosphere and development of pupils' self-regulation skills

The second element of inclusive pedagogy consists of the creation of a suitable socio-psychological atmosphere for the class and the development of pupils' self-regulation skills. Teaching children the value of respecting others is related to each teacher's own

values and beliefs. Therefore, teachers must develop their reflection skills because they are the key to the analysis and development of one's professional practices. Teachers' interaction skills have a significant indirect impact on pupils' learning results. Learning is more successful when the teacher is warm and supportive, and the class has an atmosphere of respect and tolerance towards others. (Skinner et al. 2008.)

In all human communities, conflicts and negotiation are part of life. Some pupils have better social skills than others. Conflicts can be turned into learning situations, in which children learn to understand each other's motives, negotiate and set themselves learning goals, which also concern interaction (Peterson & Hittie 2010). In the case of the example above, not all pupils were equally popular, but everyone was still prepared to help one another during school days. It is also important to remember that there are pupils who get tired by continuous social interaction, and they need school days that include peaceful and quiet periods, during which they can relax and recover from working in a group.

Pupils also differ in their self-regulation skills. Self-regulation skills and self-assessment should be learnt in small steps and in a way appropriate for pupils' age. Teachers' clear practices, such as ringing a bell to signal that it is time to listen to instructions or move on to another assignment, help pupils to work self-directedly. They should be taught gradually to take responsibility for their learning. Pupils' study motivation and responsibility can be increased, for example, by allowing them to choose between two alternatives when doing assignments. After completing the assignment, pupils can evaluate what it felt like to do the assignment and how successfully they thought they completed it. If the assignment is discussed together, pupils will also hear about the other pupils' experiences, which can help them to develop their self-assessment skills. (See, e.g., Roiha & Polso 2018.)

2.3. Diverse teaching methods and arrangements

The third element of inclusive pedagogy consists of diverse teaching methods and arrangements. Teachers cannot give intensive guidance to all their pupils at the same time, and thus it is advisable to choose teaching methods in line with the pupils' learning process. Pupils need a lot of guidance when they are learning something new to them. In principle, the taught content and assignments should be at such a level that each pupil can learn them with the help of an adult or a more advanced classmate. This level is called the pupil's zone of proximal development (Vygotsky 1982). Once pupils understand the new content, they can begin to practise it. At this stage, they do not need as much guidance as at the beginning. Pupils can do exercises in pairs, for example, guiding one another or with the help of a teaching assistant. Many areas in mathematics or reading and writing also require skills to be automatised. Usually, this stage already

represents the pupil's actual level of development, and thus they do not need a lot of guidance (Lakkala 2008).

When teachers plan a unit of teaching, they group the pupils in a way that enables them to do related exercises that are appropriate for their learning phase. Teaching methods should be chosen in a manner that enables some pupils to practise and strengthen what they have already learnt, so that teachers can focus on guiding those pupils who are at their zone of proximal development. In Figure 3 below, the teaching methods are categorised according to the intensity of the guidance provided by the teacher (Lakkala 2008). The easier the topic, the more independently the pupils can study it.

As the figure demonstrates, there are cases that require scaffolding, which means timely and personalised guidance offered to small groups, or individual rehabilitative teaching, which can be provided by a special education teacher or a speech therapist, for example. Another method that can be used by teachers is mediated instruction, which is suitable for large groups and involves discussing the taught content together. In this method, the focus is on hearing pupils' own solutions to problems and discussing them. It is also possible to use various ways of illustration at this stage. Through the use of different teaching methods, teachers can plan one week of teaching, for example, and decide how much guidance they offer to pupils and to which pupils.
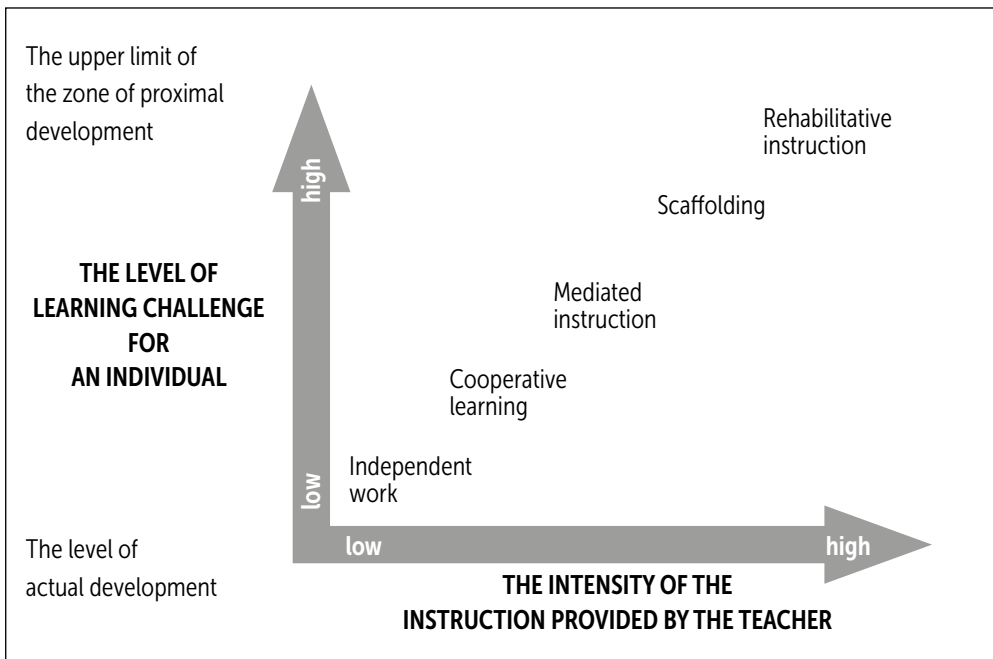

Figure 3. The connections between teaching methods, the intensity of the guidance provided by the teacher and the level of challenge of learning, according to Lakkala (2008).

When applying different teaching methods, teachers can also modify the learning spaces in the classroom. Some pupils may want to study in a quiet space while others want to discuss the assignments with their peers. It is also possible to build different types of learning spaces in the classroom, hallway etc. (Lakkala 2008.) New school buildings usually include modifiable and different kinds of learning spaces, but in old school buildings teachers must often use their imagination to modify the learning spaces.

2.4. Pupils' diverse outcomes and assessment

The fourth element of inclusive pedagogy consists of pupils' diverse outcomes and assessment. It is important to remember that pupils' learning progress is manifested in their outcomes, which differ from one another. For example, some first-graders are already fluent readers while others are still learning syllables. Pupils' written assignments may also vary when each pupil is allowed to progress according to their own abilities. Some pupils may produce letters and syllables, some words or sentences, and others may write a story. One seventh-grader may understand mathematical formulae at a conceptual level while another still needs mathematical problems to be illustrated with concrete material. When calculating values in mathematics, for example, it is possible that a few pupils use illustrative tools to help them, some operate with small numbers and others do challenging exercises. Naturally, home assignments should match pupils' skills, so that everyone can practise things that they have already begun to learn.

Assessment is one of the most difficult tasks in teaching. Assessment is carried out every day, and it guides teachers' work (Opetushallitus 2014). Co-teaching teams can discuss pupil assessment together even though each pupil would have only one responsible teacher. While the national core curriculum for basic education (Opetushallitus 2014) does not specifically determine how teachers should cooperate with parents when assessing their pupils, many Finnish schools have introduced yearly assessment discussions between teachers, pupils and parents. They contribute to the variety of assessment methods and give parents a better idea of teachers' assessment grounds. This is especially important with pupils who have an individualised education plan (special-needs support) or whose learning objectives have been set based on focus areas (intensified support) (Opetushallitus 2014).

3. Concluding remarks

Pupils' inclusion and making use of parents' expertise and experience are issues that still need improvement in Finnish basic education. Parents value teachers who involve them in decision-making, for example, by asking advice when planning pupils' educa-

tion (Lakkala & Kyrö-Ämmälä 2017). Parents know their children best. The inclusion of pupils is not very complicated if teachers are able to seize suitable moments, as the following example from the class described at the beginning of this chapter demonstrates:

The pupils come back from the break and sit down on the 'chatting benches' in front of the class, where the lessons always begin. The children have played a reindeer game during the break. They have had a problem, because so many of them wanted to be the leading reindeer. If there are many, the 'herd will fall apart', the children say. The teacher asks whether they have come up with suggestions for new rules.

Sanni: 'I've thought of a compromise...'
Teacher: 'Sanni, please tell us what "compromise" means.'
With the help of a practical example, Sanni explains that the meaning of the word is that everyone is allowed to do something that they like. For example, no one should be the leading reindeer. The males would be at the front, the females and older males would come after them and the calves after them.
Teacher: 'How do the reindeer solve this in practice?'
Petri: 'They have antlers, and they fight over who can be the leader.'
Teacher: 'As we can't fight, should we create a system in which you could take turns in leading?'

The pupils and teacher discuss different alternatives. Once a decision is reached, the teacher begins to read a story. Everyone listens apart from Jussi, who moves about in his seat. He whispers something to the teaching assistant. The assistant nods, and Jussi goes and fetches a colouring picture and pencils. He returns to his seat, listens to the story and draws while listening.

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II
Culturally Responsive
Teaching Practices

Jenny Paksuniemi, Koivu.

Mentoring in School Transitions

Minna Körkkö

Opening remarks

In this chapter, I describe a peer mentoring model designed for upper secondary school tutor students and implemented as part of the *Kulttuurisensitiivinen opinpolku Lapissa* (Cultural-Sensitive Learning Path in Lapland) project. I begin by shortly defining mentoring and describing the background of the peer support activities launched in the project. I then discuss the principle of cultural responsiveness, on which these activities are based. After this, I describe the peer support activities in more detail. Finally, I describe the mentoring model created during the project.

1.   Introduction

Mentoring has been studied a lot especially in the context of organisations, from the perspective of organisational learning and the development of employees' expertise (Chao, Walz & Gardner 1992; Kram 1988; Ragins, Cotton & Miller 2000). There is no one exact definition for mentoring. A mentor is often defined as a person who has knowledge and experience acquired over a long career and is committed to supporting the professional career of a less experienced person, an actor (Levinson et al. 1988; Ragins & Scandura 1999). Mentoring includes the transmission of knowledge, social capital and psycho-social support (Bozeman & Feeney 2007). Mentoring is characterised by reciprocity, openness, trust and mutual commitment (Kram 1988; Nakari et al. 1998). It is thought that mentoring develops through certain phases, as a process rather than in a fully linear fashion (Chao 1997; Kram 1988; Nakari et al. 1998).

One element of the *Kulttuurisensitiivinen opinpolku Lapissa* project was a series of peer support training sessions organised for upper secondary school students in Rovaniemi

in the spring of 2019. The peer support activities were organised in the form of mentoring activities for tutor students, and the aim was to make these activities a regular part of the school's activities with the help of these students. The need for training had been identified in the earlier *Opintie sujuvaksi* (Clear path of learning) project. In the project, some of the immigrant students who were making a school transition had only few contacts with people from the majority population and who spoke Finnish as their mother tongue, which was reflected in these students' Finnish language skills and school success (Körkkö & Niemisalo 2017; Saarreharju & Paksuniemi 2017). The transition from comprehensive school to upper secondary education is an event that generates uncertainties and emotions in any person. In this transition, pupils with an immigrant background are in a particularly vulnerable situation due to their poorer Finnish language skills. They often discontinue their studies (Karppinen 2008; Opetus- ja kulttuuriministeriö 2012). For young Sámi people, this transition is challenging because they often need to move to another town. In upper secondary education, the possibilities of studying in Sámi are also fewer or non-existent. (Kiilakoski 2016.) The aim of launching peer support activities was to increase cultural responsiveness in schools, so that young people who are in the transition phase would receive all the support they need to start in a new school and their future education path (see also Merja Paksuniemi's article in this guide).

At the beginning of the training, students were introduced to the theme of cultural responsiveness with the help of Figure 4 below.
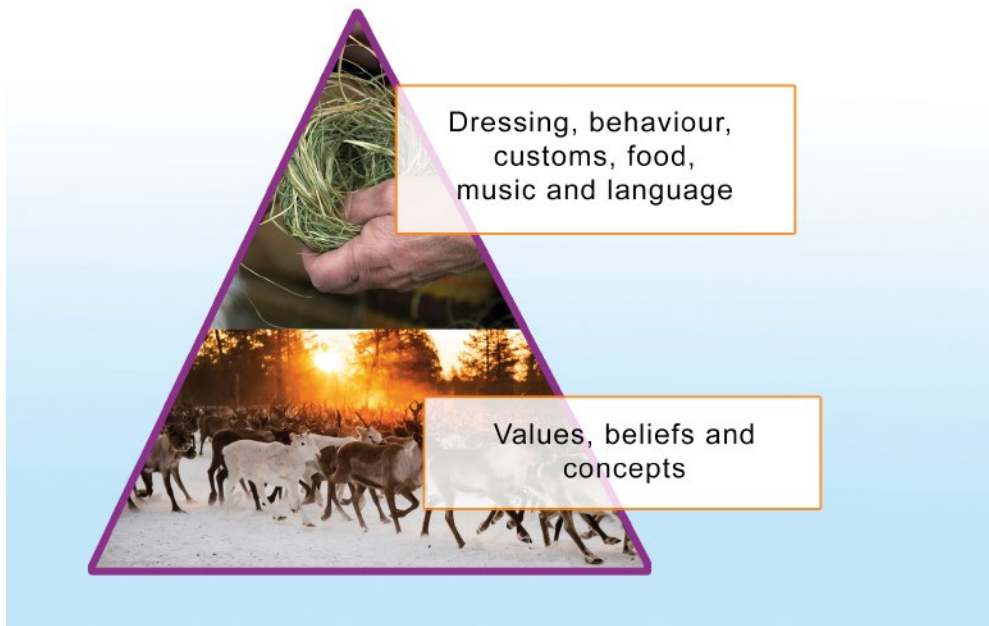

Figure 4. The visible and hidden parts of culture (Keskitalo 2019, 113).

In Figure 4, the top part of the triangle describes things that are visible, perceivable features of culture and interaction between people. Dressing, behaviour, customs, food, music and language reveal certain things about a person. The bottom part of the triangle includes values, beliefs and concepts, which are often unconscious parts of culture, which, nevertheless, guide a person's behaviour and interaction with other people. Culturally responsive action means, for example, recognising the differences between people and accepting the fact that these differences may cause problems in interaction between people. Despite problems, people try to understand each other's differences and resolve possible conflicts. (Keskitalo 2019; 2010.)

2. Peer support activities

Peer support is based on a similar experience shared by the people involved. It means talking and listening, and is based on the participants' equality, collaboration and mutual support. It may also be thought that through the support, individuals can find their own resources and take responsibility for their own lives. Peer support activities complement public services, such as social and health services. (Nasjonal plan for selvhjelp 2014—2018, 2014; Terveyskylä.fi.) Peer support activities may take various forms. They may consist of one-to-one support or group activities. In group activities, the tutor may be a peer from the group, a trained volunteer or a professional. Nowadays, an increasing number of peer support activities take place online, through websites or social media, for example. Magazines, books and art, too, can serve as peer support. (Laatikainen 2010.)

Above all, peer support or mentoring is about sharing expertise, listening and interaction, which, at best, promote individuals' well-being and feelings of belonging. A peer not only provides help and support in challenging situations, but also shares the joys of daily life. Peer support activities are an activity with a purpose, which is based on shared rules. These include voluntariness, trust, confidentiality, kindness, safety, respect towards others and cultural sensitivity. (Jyrkämä 2010; Laimio & Karnell 2010.) In our peer support training sessions, students also mentioned encouragement and positivity as important principles. New students have many questions in their mind and they may also have prejudices about their new school. Students who have already experienced the school transition try to answer those questions as best as they can and dispel possible fears. It is important that new students feel that they are welcome in their new school.

3. Peer support activities as a process

Mentoring can be viewed as a guided and educational process, which takes different forms over time and is affected by many factors, such as individual needs, personal characteristics and contextual factors (Kram 1988; Levinson 1988; Nakari et al. 1998). Figure 5 describes the process of planning and implementing our peer support activities as mentoring, following the models of Karjalainen (2010) and Nakari et al. (1998).
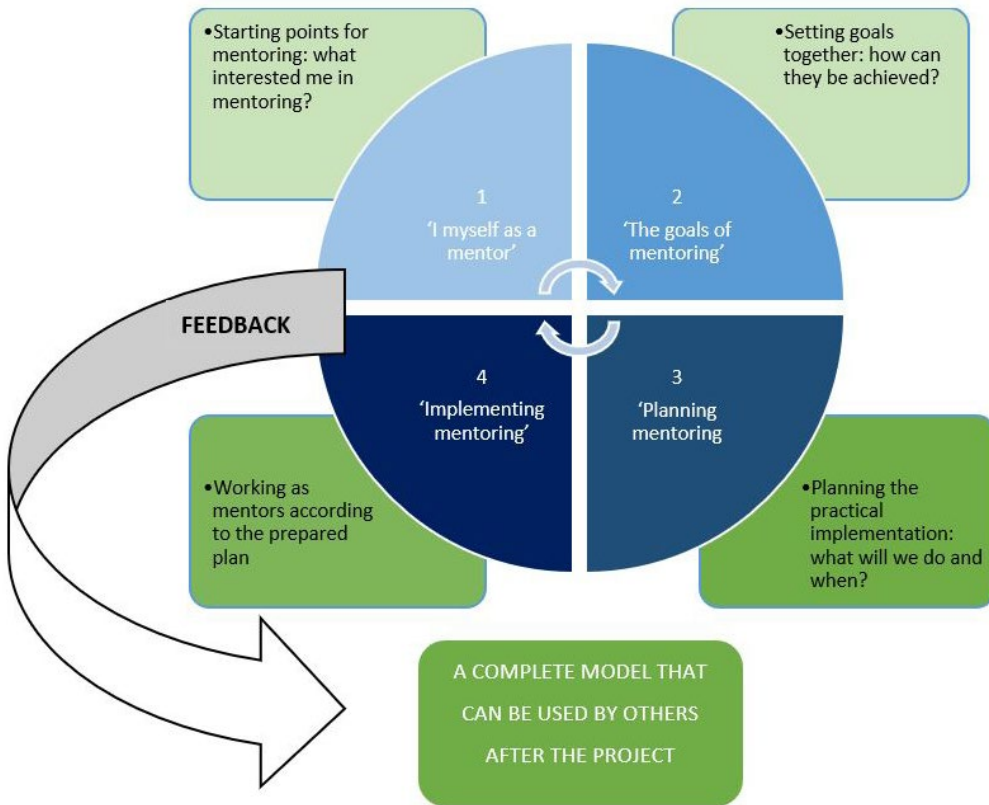
Figure 5. The mentoring model developed in the *Kulttuurisensitiivinen opinpolku Lapissa* project (Paksuniemi 2017, following the models of Karjalainen 2010 and Nakari et al. 1998).

As Figure 5 demonstrates, the starting point for these activities is individuals' interest in mentoring activities. This interest may arise from their personal experience or wish to help others, for example. The mentor and actor set goals for the mentoring based on the actor's needs and try to find ways to achieve these goals. They plan how the activities will be implemented in practice and eventually implement the plan. Feedback is given through discussing the success and development needs of the activities, and the feedback lays a basis for future activities. This process is a

dialogic relationship, in which the mentor and actor mutually share knowledge, ideas and experiences. Each party learns from the other in the process. (Heikkinen, Jokinen & Tynjälä 2012.)

4.   Concluding remarks

Mentoring is a guided process with a purpose, in which both the mentor and the actor are learners. In mentoring between peers, central elements include shared experience, collaboration and mutual support. When mentoring is planned and implemented from a culturally responsive approach, emphasis is given to the recognition and acknowledgement of people's difference, so that everyone can feel that they are valuable members of their community.

We received positive feedback from the upper secondary school students who participated in our peer support training sessions. According to them, the training included a lot of useful information, even though some of the students reported that they were already familiar with the subject. We hope that the training encouraged the students to think about school transition from a culturally responsive perspective, and that it will help them to pay attention to cultural diversity in their tutor activities.

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Factors Affecting Young Immigrants' Education Choices

Elli Heikkilä

Opening remarks

How has immigration in Lapland changed over the past few years? What kinds of education choices do young immigrants make in Lapland? What are the factors that possibly affect these choices? This chapter provides answers to these questions, among others.

1. Population with foreign background and migration flows in Lapland

The Migration Institute of Finland and the Faculty of Education of the University of Lapland collaborated in two projects funded by the the European Social Fund, entitled *Opintie sujuvaksi* (Clear path of learning) and *Kulttuurisensitiivinen opinpolku Lapissa* (Cultural-Sensitive Learning Path in Lapland). Both projects focused on young immigrants and young Sámi people.

In 2018, there were altogether 4,841 residents with a foreign background, who had also been born abroad, in Lapland, while in 1990 the figure was 955. The figure has thus increased fivefold. People with foreign backgrounds are people both of whose parents, or the only known parent, were born abroad (Tilastokeskus 2019). Figure 6 shows the number of 7 to 19-year-olds with foreign backgrounds and born abroad, between the years 1990 and 2018. Their number has also multiplied in the long term, and in 2018 there

were 359 persons who were 7 to 14-year-old school children with foreign backgrounds in Lapland. A small majority of them were girls. The number of 15 to 19-year-olds was 262, of whom a small majority were boys. In Lapland, like elsewhere in Finland, schools include an increasing number of young people with foreign backgrounds, and thus there is a clear need for culturally sensitive education. In 2018 in Lapland, the major countries of origin of the 7 to 19-year-olds with foreign backgrounds and born abroad were Syria (126 young people), Myanmar (82), Russia and the former Soviet Union (60), Afghanistan (57), Somalia (46), Thailand (40) and Iraq (39).
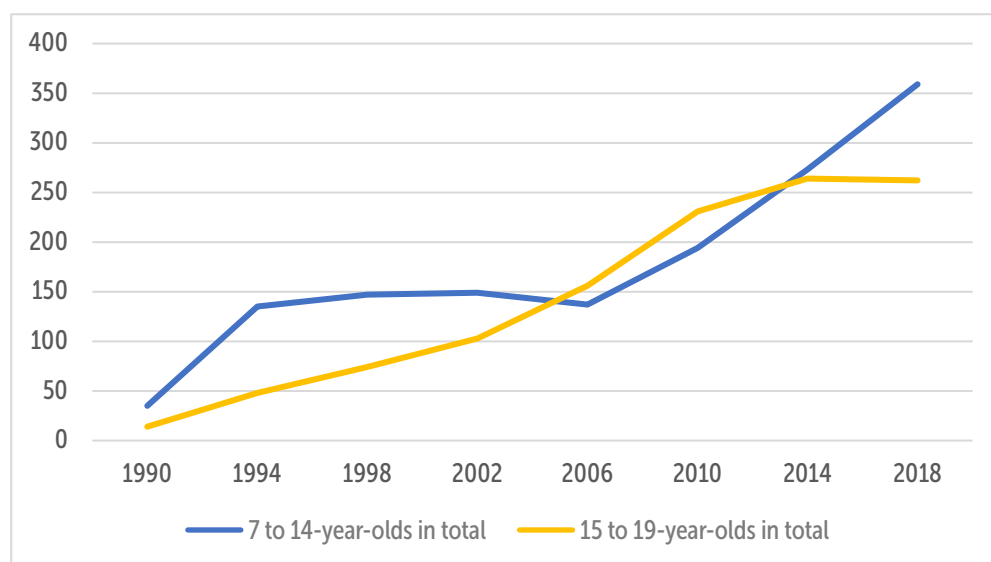
Figure 6. The number of 7 to 19-year-olds with foreign backgrounds and born abroad in Lapland between 1990 and 2018.

Figure 7 shows the development of the immigration flow to Lapland between the years 1990 and 2018. There have been significant changes in the migration flow in the long term, and in 2018, 819 people immigrated to Lapland. The number of school-aged children has been rather small: in 2018, the number of 10 to 14-year-olds was 65 and the number of 15 to 19-year-olds 56. There was a single spike in the numbers in 2010, when 105 persons who were 15 to 19-year-old people immigrated to Lapland. The immigration of young people to Lapland is of course a visible phenomenon in classrooms as their numbers grow every year.
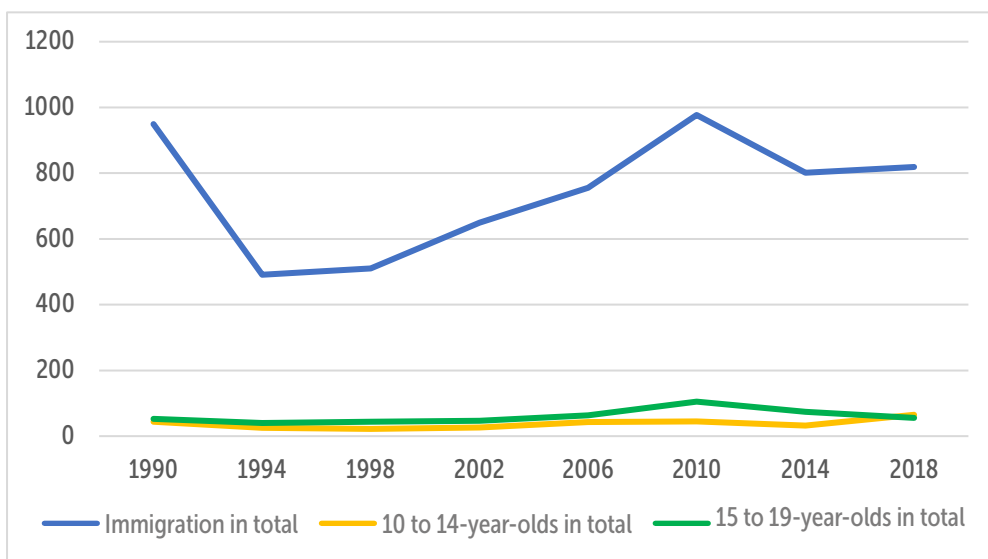
Figure 7. Immigration to Lapland between 1990 and 2018.

Some of the people with foreign backgrounds and born abroad move to Lapland within the country-internal migration, i.e. from another county in Finland (Figure 8). In the long term, the number of these migrants has increased considerably: in 1990, their number was 13 people and in 2017, 186 people. These migrants include people aged under 18 years, but their number is very small compared to the overall number.
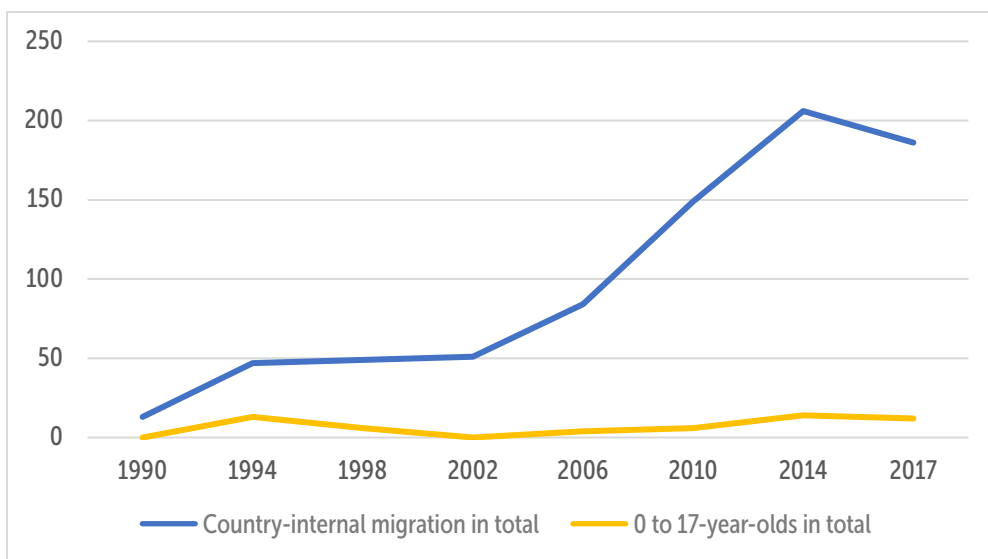
Figure 8. The country-internal migration of people with foreign backgrounds and born abroad within Finland from other counties to Lapland between 1990 and 2017.

There are also young people with Finnish backgrounds who immigrate to Finland, because there are also families which return to Finland. Anu Warinowski (2012) has studied expatriate children in Finnish schools. Her research shows that in school contexts other than international schools, these intercultural children remain hidden. She has talked about invisible immigrants, who are lost among the great majority in primary schools. These children may have already gone to school abroad and become accustomed to the local school system and acquired the language. Thus, they, too, need to integrate into Finnish society when they move back to Finland. Being invisible immigrants, they may also need special support.

2. Young immigrants' education choices

For young immigrants, school is one of the most important places that help them to integrate and find a direction for their lives; in other words, to decide what they would like to do for living and which field of education interests them the most. What kind of information does school offer about different trades and fields as pupils prepare to move from primary education to upper secondary education? In Finland, the first education choice that concerns the entire age group is made in the spring semester of the ninth grade. Young people must then make the important choice between general upper secondary education or vocational education and training (Järvinen & Vanttaja 2018). This education choice may be the most important investment decision that they make in their lives (Korhonen 1997). It is important that primary schools cooperate with upper secondary schools, such as general upper secondary schools and vocational institutions. This cooperation is vitally important for young people's school transition. For them, the most visible element of this cooperation are the presentations organised by upper secondary schools to pupils graduating from primary school (Keskinen 2019).

The most important factor affecting young immigrants' choices in the joint application process for upper secondary education is their own interest in a certain field of education. On the other hand, Finnish language skills are the most important factor that facilitates or hinders young immigrants' school transition. Good Finnish skills promote young people's school success and formation of friendships and enable them to apply for the upper secondary education of their choice. Pupils who have poor Finnish skills do not necessarily apply for the upper secondary education of their choice because they do not believe that they have sufficient language skills to be successful in their studies (Körkkö et al. 2017).

At a general level, young people's education choice is also affected by their social background and closest reference group, i.e. their parents, siblings and grandparents. Personal characteristics also play a role, and the most important among them are school success, abilities and hobbies, while factors such as health may also affect

young people's school choice. Young people have reported that they discuss matters related to their career choice more with their parents and friends than with the guidance counsellor of their school. Research suggests that discussing one's career choice with the guidance counsellor has most significance for those young people who do not yet have clear plans, whose parents are less educated or who live with a single parent. Teachers and guidance counsellors have an important role in guiding young people to find their own strengths and the limits of their potential (Korhonen 1997; Hilvola 2010; Niemi 2016; Keskinen 2019).

There is a lot of variation in young people's individual education paths, and their educational background and motivation are also factors that affect them. For example, unaccompanied young refugees are highly motivated to succeed in life, in their studies and career. As young immigrants make their educational choices in a newly acquired language, it cannot be assumed that they would have knowledge of all the details of and options available in the education system, or of their own resources in relation to the demands of a certain education. Therefore, flexible education solutions and individualised guidance play a very important role in the integration process (Björklund 2014).

It is also possible to examine young people's choices from the perspective of their attitude towards the future. First, there are young people for whom it is important to build an educational and professional career. The second group values family life and wants to enter the job market quickly. Thirdly, there are young people who do not have clear goals about the future (Järvinen 1999).

Petri Niemi (2016) has suggested that the primary school's orientation to working life practice should be tied more closely to the teaching of different subjects. This established practice represents a form of cooperation between the school and business life and enables pupils to expand their sphere of experience. According to him, we should develop the cooperation between schools and businesses as well as the participation of all teachers in these practices.

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Young Immigrants' Transition to Upper Secondary Education

Heidi Keskinen

Opening remarks

The increasing number of immigrants in society is also visible in the daily life of schools. It is vitally important to support young people with an immigrant background in the different phases of the system, and it is especially important in the transition from basic education to upper secondary education. For young people, school transitions appear as mainly positive phases of life which, nevertheless, make them nervous. Apart from the change of school, they also involve many other aspects such as changes in friendships. In what ways are young people with an immigrant background supported in the transition from basic education to upper secondary education, and how do they experience this transition? I discuss these questions in this chapter, which is based on my master's thesis completed in the spring of 2019.

1. Immigration to Finland – a growing phenomenon

In the last couple of decades, immigration has been a growing phenomenon in Finland. For example, between the years 2015 and 2016, the number of immigrants increased by 21 percent. (Tilastokeskus 2017.) The increase in immigration has also been perceivable in Finnish schools as the number of pupils with an immigrant background has grown. In Lapland, the number of 7th to 10th-graders with an immigrant background increased by 60 people between 2009 and 2016. With all comprehensive school pupils, the number was 100 people. (Aluehallintovirasto 2017.)

Paavola and Talib (2010, 30) define an immigrant as a person who temporarily or permanently migrates to another country, which is not the person's country of origin,

and who participates in the creation of social relations and a new ethnic minority in the new home country. In her report, Pirinen (2015, 27) uses the term 'learner with an immigrant background', by which she refers to a learner participating in pre-primary, basic or upper secondary education whose mother tongue is other than Finnish, Swedish or Sámi. In my thesis, I used the terms 'young people with an immigrant background' or 'young immigrant', by which I meant learners whose mother tongue was other than Finnish, Swedish or Sámi and who were 18 years old or younger.

Immigrants first appeared in Finnish legislation in 1983. However, Finland's migration policy was more greatly affected by Finland's joining the European Union in 1995. Before adopting migration legislation, Finland had already signed the Geneva Convention, the UN's Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Convention on the Rights of the Child. (Saukkonen 2015, 54.) Finland's current immigration policy is based on the Government's objectives, the EU's common migration and asylum policy and international agreements, such as the European Convention on Human Rights and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (Sisäministeriö). According to Räty (2002, 34), one of the most important principles of Finnish migration policy is immigrants' integration into Finnish society. This integration means that immigrants try to find their place in society, to adapt to and to some extent assimilate into society. The aim is that while immigrants integrate, they can maintain their ethnic background and related practices, such as religion and language. (Saukkonen 2013, 65.)

With young immigrants, education is regarded as one of the most important elements of their integration. Education can provide a basis for entering working life and a future career. (Kilpi 2010, 110.) Young immigrants have the same rights to education as Finnish citizens, and the aim of education is to help young people to become active members of society. Young immigrants can participate in preparatory instruction for basic education, Finnish or Swedish as a second language instruction, instruction in their own mother tongue or preparatory instruction for vocational training. The possibility of studying one's own mother tongue has been considered one of the strengths of the Finnish school system. Another strength is that basic education is common to all, and educational paths diverge only after that. (Teräs & Kilpi-Jakonen 2013, 185, 190—191.)

2. The importance of ensuring the success of young immigrants' school transition

In my master's thesis, I studied young immigrants' views on the transition from comprehensive school to upper secondary education. My study was a qualitative study, in which I used a phenomenographic approach. I collected my data in two focus group interviews and two individual interviews, the choice of which depended on whether the

participating schools had one or more pupils with an immigrant background who were graduating from comprehensive school. In my research, I focused on the school transition from comprehensive school because I wished to find out what the young people wanted to do after comprehensive school, what they knew about their further education possibilities, what they thought about the transition and how they were supported in it. School transition refers to pupils' transition from one level of education to the next, for example, from pre-primary to primary school or from basic education to upper secondary education (Antikainen et al. 2015, 61). The transition from basic education to upper secondary education involves a lot more than the change of education level. At this stage, young people start to think more carefully about their future occupation and the educational path that would enable the career of their choice. (Huttunen & Pekkarinen 2016, 1.) The school transition may bring other major changes in young people's lives. Their circle of friends may change, and their old class may disperse. Young people may also lose their interest in education during the final years of comprehensive school, which may lower their school success. Young people's home life may also affect the transition, since not all of them receive support for their choices at home. Usually, young people whose parents are highly educated continue their studies. (Huhtala & Lilja 2008, 16—17.)

Pupils' language skills and motivation towards education affect the smoothness of the school transition. Their families' level of integration and the support they offer also play an important role. The transition can be facilitated through pupil welfare services, collaboration between the home and the school, teachers' professional expertise, support from the immigrant community and positive examples set by other immigrants. If the family has a negative attitude towards school, does not have knowledge about the Finnish school system or has poor language skills, the young person's school transition may be more difficult. (Teräs & Kilpi-Jakonen 2013, 198.)

School transition and the factors affecting it have been studied recently in the Netherlands. This study focused on children who were about to move from primary to secondary school. The aim was to find out who helped the children to prepare for the transition. When asked, the children mentioned themselves, their parents and their primary school teacher. (Rodriquez, Meeuwisse, Notten & Severiens 2018, 223—224, 226, 235.)

Based on my research results, all the young people who participated in the research knew what they wanted to do after comprehensive school and had applied for further education. Some of them already had a clear idea about their future occupation, and with some of them, this idea was based on their family member's occupation. In addition, the young people appeared to have a lot of knowledge about the education available after comprehensive school, and especially in the group interviews, they were able to mention several further education possibilities (such as general upper secondary schools, vocational schools and combined general and vocational upper secondary schools) with the help of the group. The transition evoked various emotions in the young people, of which nervousness, excitement and a feeling of responsibility were mentioned most frequently.

If we think about the significance of this school transition for young people's future lives, one important factor is the support they receive. Among my interviewees, there was one pupil who was particularly anxious about this issue. This pupil felt that she had not received enough information about what kind of support, if any, immigrants receive in their further studies. The schools participating in the research had organised presentations about further education possibilities, and the guidance counsellor had also discussed these possibilities and other related issues of interest with the pupils. The young people felt that the guidance counsellor had offered them a lot of help in the transition and figuring out what studies they could apply for after comprehensive school. The guidance counsellors had also pushed them if they had lost their motivation to study.

Even though the young people felt that they had received enough support for the transition, they were still concerned about certain issues in further education. Thus, in the future, it might be important to increase and improve the collaboration between young people's old and new schools to make the transition smoother and the adaptation to the new school easier. One of the aims of the national core curriculum for basic education is to ensure that all pupils have a continuous educational path. Among other things, this means that comprehensive schools collaborate with general and vocational upper secondary schools. This collaboration is necessary in the transition phase, and the collaboration should be multi-professional and involve different schools, the pupils and their parents. (Opetushallitus 2014, 36, 281.)

For young people, the most visible element of this collaboration are the presentations organised by upper secondary schools to pupils graduating from comprehensive school. For example, according to the national core curriculum for general upper secondary education, general upper secondary schools should provide pupils, their parents, guidance counsellors and teachers with knowledge and guidance about the education they offer. This knowledge and guidance should be provided, for example, through presentations or an induction to the school's practices offered to new students when they begin their studies in the school. (Opetushallitus 2015, 19.) My interviewees reported that various schools had held presentations in their schools, but the schools presented varied according to the interviewees' school. These presentations could be improved in the future by having students from different upper secondary schools visit local comprehensive schools and describe their school's practices and the differences between studies in their school and in comprehensive school, for example. Another good idea would be to arrange an additional presentation about upper secondary education possibilities to the parents of pupils with an immigrant background. If these presentations included interpreters or other people who could explain the content to parents in their mother tongue, these parents would be better informed about the Finnish school system and the requirements for participating in upper secondary education. If they had better knowledge about the possibilities available to their children and the contents of different types of education, they might be able to support their children better. One of

my interviewees told me that his parents may not be able to support him in his studies due to their lack of Finnish language skills. It will continue to be important to support young people in their school transition, and one way to do it is to provide them with as much information as possible in advance. In my research, the young people were interested in further education and all the things the new school would involve. If young people were provided with even more detailed information about these issues, and they had a chance to talk with students from the new school, for example, this might encourage them to ask more detailed questions about the education and other activities in the new school. On these occasions, young immigrants could discuss with an immigrant student attending upper secondary education, who could understand their perspective and who might have similar experiences about school and education.

3.   Concluding remarks

Education is one of the most important elements of young immigrants' integration. Continuous educational paths lay a good basis for integration into society. The young people who participated in my study had applied for further education and when I interviewed them, they were waiting to hear about their acceptance to these schools. They had received a lot of information about different education options and felt that the support from guidance counsellors in particular had helped them to decide where they would like to continue their studies after comprehensive school.

It is important to support young immigrants' transition from comprehensive school to further education because the transition also involves other changes in their lives, such as changes in friendships. The young people who participated in the study were nervous about the transition but also regarded it as the natural next step in their life. They felt that they had received support for the transition but would have wanted to receive more information about the school and education they were about to enter. One of my interviewees was concerned about what kind of support immigrants receive in their further studies.

Thus, it would be beneficial to improve the cooperation between young people's old and new schools. This cooperation would provide young people with more information about the education they are interested in, which might lessen their anxiety about their future. The presentations in schools could be developed by inviting upper secondary school students to talk about their schools and their studies there. These students could include immigrant students, who would understand immigrant pupils' perspective and could directly answer pupils' questions, for example, about the support offered to immigrant students in further education. Young people's parents could also be better included in this cooperation, for example, by offering them the opportunity to visit upper secondary schools. There may be parents who do not speak Finnish, and

for this reason the presentations could include interpreters. This would provide such parents with information about further education possibilities and about the Finnish education system as well. If parents have better knowledge about what further education involves for their children, they may be able to offer more support for their children.

On the basis of my study, young immigrants' further education situation appears positive as all of my interviewees had applied for further studies. My study does not, however, reveal whether they were accepted to the education path of their choice. The sample was also small (10 young people), which makes it difficult to draw general conclusions. The school transition could be regarded as quite smooth if all young immigrants experienced it as my interviewees did. In the future, it is important to increase support for this transition so that immigrant students' integration into society would be smooth and successful. I hope that there will be more research on the topic, and future studies could focus on the smoothness of young immigrants' school transitions. Such studies would offer valuable information about whether there are young immigrants who are excluded from education and consequently from society, or whether they manage to move on to the educational path of their choice. This information about the smoothness of these transitions would also be important to schools for it would help them to provide young people with the support they need.

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Teaching Thinking Skills in Basic Education

Outi Kyrö-Ämmälä & Katja Anttila

Finnish basic education, which has been praised internationally, is mainly based on education divided into subjects. However, the national core curriculum of 2014 includes transversal competence objectives in addition to the objectives defined for each subject. These transversal competence areas include seven areas (L1—L7), which are considered to be skills that pupils will need in the future, both in their professional and daily lives. One of these areas is thinking and learning to learn, which lays the basis for continuous learning in the future. In this chapter, we shortly discuss the preconditions for learning thinking skills and describe exercises that can be used to practise and teach these skills.

1. What should be taught in schools?

According to our understanding, a person's thinking develops through their exploring activities, problem solving and previous experiences, as Jean Piaget also describes in his theory of cognitive development (Piaget 1977; 1982). According to Piaget's observations and theory, people go through certain stages of development in a certain order but at different speeds: human thinking develops by stages and eventually reaches the stage of formal operations. Thus, with age, the structures and forms of thinking change, and thinking develops so that it operates at a more general and abstract level. However, age alone does not ensure the progress of thought processes; development also depends on the child's learning experiences, i.e. their social environment, family and school. Aebli (1990) emphasises the significance of the educational environment in particular and argues that educators use techniques that initiate thinking and learning processes, which might not be possible if children's spontaneous activities were not supported with education. According to our understanding, it is possible to raise, or at any rate strengthen, the level of thinking by practising various operations necessary for infor-

mation processing. But what are the elements of thinking that can be developed, and how does it happen?

Adey and Shayer (1994) have examined the development process of thinking and suggest that it has three characteristics: First, this development is an unconscious event, and afterwards it is difficult recall earlier ways of thinking. Second, the development is a one-way process from simple thought operations towards complex processing. Third, the development progresses towards its natural end, which is the stage of formal operations in Piaget's terms. Thus, in Piaget's theory, it is assumed that a person living in a Western, so-called modern culture reaches the highest level of thinking, the stage of formal operations, around the age of 12 to 17. However, Finnish and international studies from recent decades, which were based on large samples, indicate that this is not always the case. These studies (e.g. Hautamäki 1984; Hautamäki et al. 2000) have shown that only about one-third of the population (30—35% of the above-mentioned age group) reaches the stage of formal operations, whereas two-thirds of the age group mainly use concrete operations in their thinking. Scheinin (2004) also concludes that at the end of basic education, approximately 70 percent of pupils have not yet reached the formal operational stage, and about 40 percent of general upper secondary school students have not reached the level of thinking necessary for general upper secondary education.

The Finnish national core curriculum for basic education (2014) includes conventional learning contents divided into subjects, multidisciplinary learning modules as well as learning content that aims to develop pupils' transversal competences. The last one refers to pupils' skills and ability to apply their knowledge and skills as required by the situation. The aim of developing transversal competences is to support pupils to grow as human beings and to promote skills required for membership in a democratic society and for a sustainable way of life. Special emphasis is placed on encouraging pupils to recognise their own uniqueness, strengths and development potential and to value themselves. The core curriculum lists seven transversal competence areas, one of which is thinking and learning to learn (L1). Thinking and learning skills lay the basis for the development of other competences as well as for lifelong, continuous learning. What is essential in these skills is how pupils view themselves as learners and interact with their environment, and how they learn to make observations and search for, evaluate, modify, produce and share information and ideas. The teacher's role is to guide pupils to realise that knowledge can be constructed in many ways and that an exploratory and creative approach, collaboration and the possibility to concentrate and be absorbed in one's activity promote the development of thinking and learning to learn. Teachers also have the important task of encouraging pupils to have confidence in themselves and their views and to be open to new solutions at the same time. They should give space to pupils' questions and inspire them to search for answers, listen to others' views and also reflect on their own inner knowledge. (Peruskoulun opetussuunnitelman perusteet 2014.)
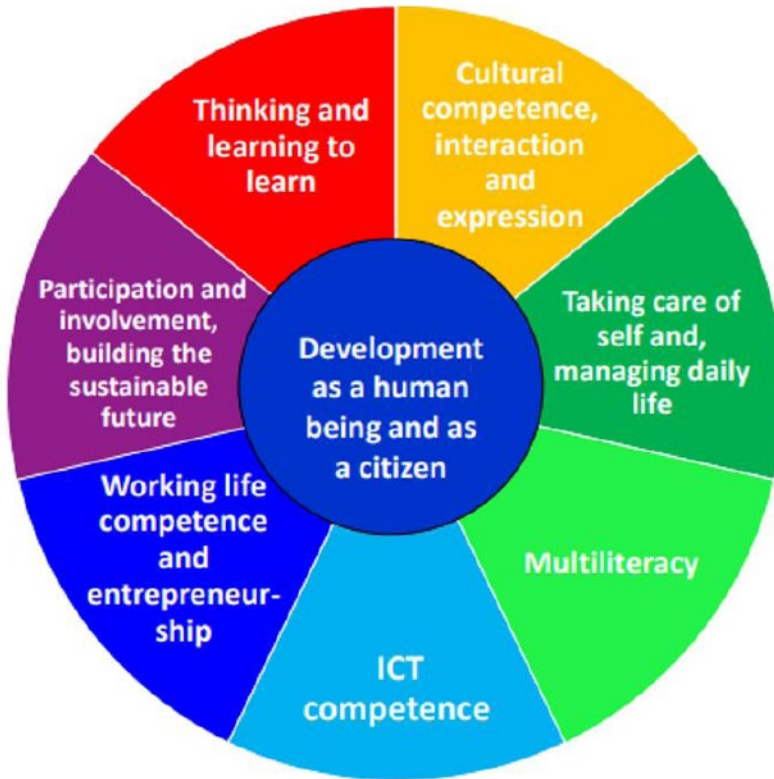
Figure 9. The aim of basic education is to promote transversal competences (Opetushallitus).

The development of a person's thinking depends on the cultural and developmental context in which they live, and it also requires educational arrangements. In Finland, the learning contents of secondary school and general upper secondary school require a certain level of thinking skills. At the same time, paradoxically, it has been assumed that school is exactly where those thinking skills are acquired, with the help of a curriculum divided into subjects. The fact that thinking skills are now given emphasis as one area of transversal competence marks a step towards teaching these skills in school. But can thinking be taught, or does it develop on its own? And if it is possible to teach thinking, how is it done? Do we need education that aims for the development of thinking skills and specific interventional programmes in Finland?

2.   Thinking is developed by thinking

Descartes' philosophical proposition *Cogito, ergo sum — 'I think, therefore I am' — describes well this unique human feature*. Thinking is an activity typical of human beings, which

no other species is capable of, at least to the same degree. Thinking skills, however, are a complex concept, which can be understood in many ways and for which no specific definition has been established. It has also been asked whether mental processes can even be described as skills similarly to motoric processes, for example.

EXERCISE 1: WHAT IS THINKING?

It is a good idea to discuss the contents of thinking skills with pupils: What is thinking? What does thinking include? How do pupils understand thinking, or what synonyms can they come up with for the word 'to think'? One useful method to discuss thinking and the contents of thinking skills is to create a Padlet wall on the subject in class.

Thinking skills form an essential part of pupils' cognitive i.e. information-processing skills. Simply put, thinking means the combining of thoughts in a way that enables new thoughts to be generated: Through thinking, people make sense of the world and produce something new. Thinking is modifying and processing information, which happens with the help of perception and recalling, and through thinking, people form concepts, solve problems, draw conclusions and make decisions. In a sense, thinking is the culmination of cognitive operations, but at the same time, it would not be possible without all the other cognitive operations.

In broad terms, thinking refers to all those mental activities that people use when processing information, making connections and decisions, and developing new ideas. Thinking skills refer to people's cognitive abilities and competences, which help them to adapt to the culture and world around them.

Adey, Csapó, Demetriou, Hautamäki and Shayer (2007) define thinking skills as general cognitive skills, which develop over time and are shaped by both biological maturation and learning. They also emphasise that thinking is a dynamic and developing human characteristic, which is not only determined by genes but rather can be developed. This conception highlights the significance of the environment and learning for the development of thinking skills, which is also the main idea behind a neuro-cognitive learning approach: a person's cognitive operations depend on the functional organisation of the brain's nervous system, which can be changed through appropriate exercises due to the plasticity of the brain (cf. Kivi 2000). In schools, too, learners should be seen as beings who are able to change and who change despite their deficiencies in processing information at a certain moment. Teachers have the task of guiding learning and thinking skills in such a way that learners can use their potential information-processing abilities to enhance their learning and the development of their cognitive processes. (Cf., e.g., Matilainen 1998.) As Finnish astronomer Esko Valtaoja has stated: 'We need brain building' (YLE, 17 August 2015).

To summarise, we can conclude that thinking is more than mere information processing, and it also involves metacognitive skills. Thinking includes at least the following elements: (1) collecting information, (2) organising information, (3) analysing

information, (4) drawing conclusions, (5) developing new ideas, (6) solving problems, (7) determining cause and effect, (8) planning and setting goals, (9) monitoring progress, (10) making decisions and (11) reflecting on one's own progress (Wilson 2000). In school education, pupils practise information-processing, problem-solving and metacognitive skills in particular. In elementary education (pre-primary education and the first and second grades), thinking skills involve organisation of information (categorisation and serialisation), spatial perception, understanding chronology and cause-effect relationships, and following rules. (Adey et al. 2007.)

According to Swartz and Perkins (2018), one way to define thinking is to divide it into four interrelated elements:

1. Memory and information processing are the basic tools of thinking. The more information a person's memory includes and the better it is organised, the more likely it is that their thought process also produces something. Processing makes information usable, in other words, 'thinkable'.

2. The second element is critical thinking, which is related to a person's will, and thus it involves individual variation. Criticality means that one is willing and able to consciously reflect on one's own thinking and that of others, and in that way pursue truth.

3. The third element, creative thinking, produces new, unforeseen results. It can be used to find connections between things that seem independent of one another. In principle, there are two kinds of thinking: convergent and divergent thinking. Convergent thinkers tend to reduce realities and problems to dichotomous, black-and-white, either-or alternatives. Divergent thinkers find several alternative ways of problematisation, creative solutions and several alternative truths and entities according to different contexts, for example. A divergent approach to thinking is a prerequisite for creativity.

EXERCISE 2: WHAT IS THE AIM OF EDUCATION?

There is one excellent video, entitled 'Changing education paradigms', in which Ken Robinson discusses the significance of school for the development of thinking and creative thinking in particular. You can find it at: https://www.ted.com/talks/ken_robinson_changing_education_paradigms.

EXERCISE 3: ATTENTIVE OBSERVATIONS

The internet is full of interesting exercises which require attentiveness from pupils or which can be observed from different viewpoints. You can also discuss different strategies for doing these exercises with your pupils in advance. The following visual exercises are examples of these types of exercises.
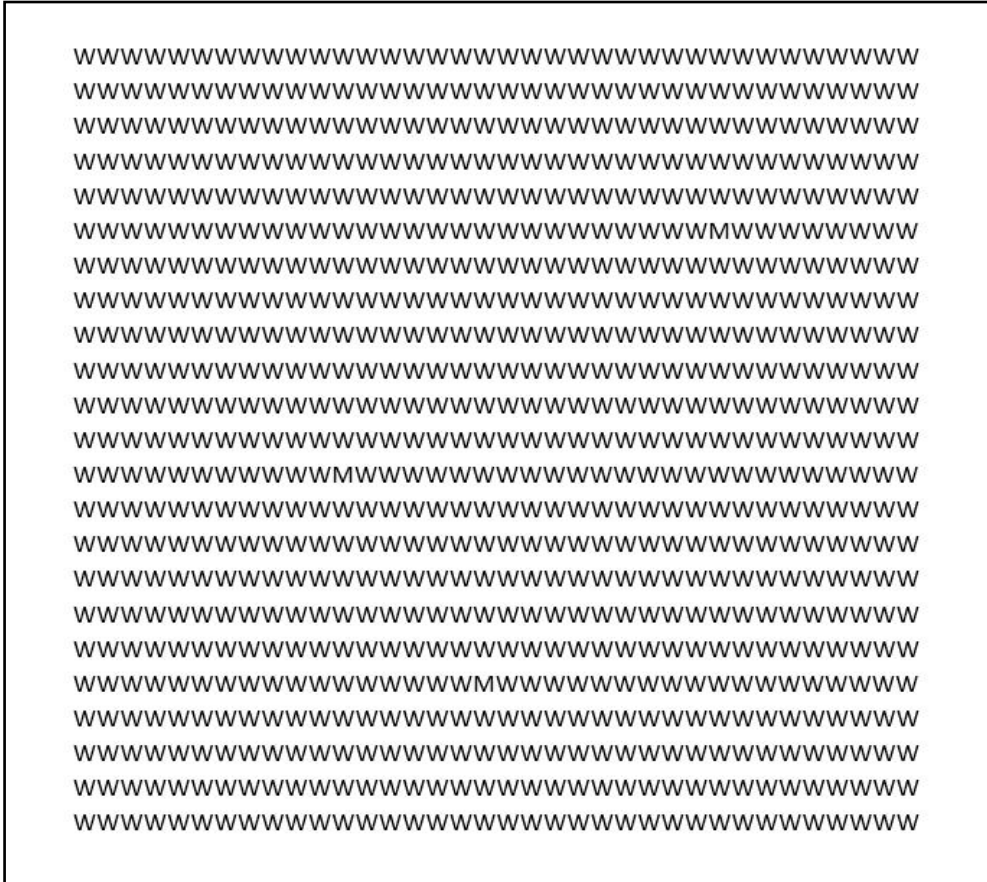
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Image 1. Find the letter M. How many can you find?
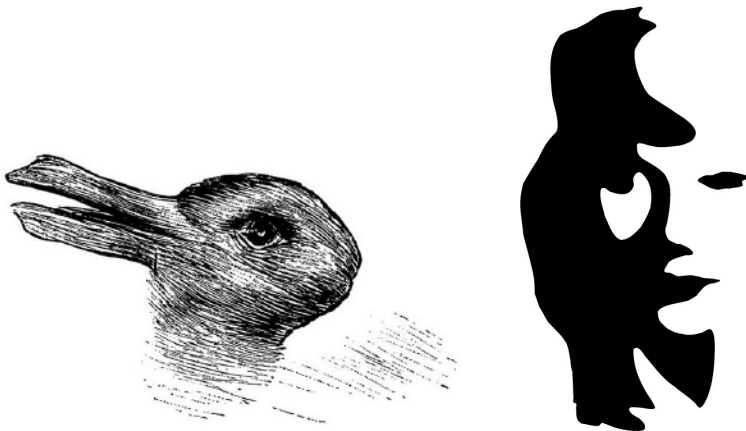
Images 2a and **2b.** What do you see in the pictures? (https://piilari.info/optiset-harhat/ ja http://www.kidsmathgamesonline.com/pictures/illusions/saxophoneorwoman.html).

EXERCISE 4: INSPIRATION CARDS

Inspiration cards are useful in activities that involve designing something new, writing a story or finding solutions to problems. They include random words and/or images, which can be used to generate new thoughts and ideas. You can use the cards of the Junior Alias board game, for example, as inspiration cards.

Start the exercise by choosing a problem to which you seek a solution. Examples of problems:

1. *How can we reduce littering in nature?*
2. *What could a broken umbrella be used for?*
3. *How do we solve the problem of school cafeteria noise?*

Once you have chosen the problem, pick a card from the deck. You write down words that describe the card or come to your mind when looking at the card. Once you have created a list of words, you use it to help you solve the problem. The aim is to use all the words in the list.

EXERCISE 5: THE 8 x 8 METHOD (based on an exercise called Lotus Blossom)

This method is a brainstorming method that resembles mind maps. Write a problem on an A4 sheet. Place eight sheets of paper around it and write a point of view related to the problem on each of them. Try to come up with eight ideas from each of the eight points of view.

An example of a problem: How do I save money?

Food: • *picking berries* • *fishing* • *baking*	*Physical exercise:* • *cycling* • *walking* • *lift sharing*	*Clothing:* • *tuning* • *second-hand markets*
Housing: • *turning off the lights* • *quick showers* • *lowering the room temperature*	**HOW DO I SAVE MONEY?**	*Free time:* • *hiking* • *using the library*
Shopping: • *using a permanent shopping bag, not buying plastic bags* • *shopping at sales*	*Making money:* • *recycling bottles*	*Others:* • *DIY gifts and cards*

4. *The fourth element of thinking consists of problem solving and decision making, which are natural human activities and require the use of all the above-mentioned elements of thinking.*

At the early stages of school, the basic tools of thinking, i.e. information processing and memory, are essential for the development of the necessary learning and working skills. For thinking to develop, on the one hand, it is important to learn to analyse one's environment and find problems that need solving in it, while on the other hand, it is also useful to practise the mechanical management of the problem-solving process.

EXERCISE 6: CONCEPT PAIRS

The purpose of the exercise is to make pupils think. Pupils must come up with a pair for the given concept, and the formed concept pair must be analogous with the preceding concept pair. Pupils can also invent new concept pairs.

Examples of concept pairs:
> Bird : air — fish : (water)
> Human being : home — horse : (stable)
> Pine : needle — birch : (leaf)
> Tree : trunk — plant : (stalk)
> Cloudberry : marsh — lingonberry : (forest)
> Einstein : relativity — Darwin : (evolution)
> Partner : husband — sibling : (brother)
> Europe : Mont Blanc — Asia : (Mount Everest)
> Finland : ice hockey — Norway : (skiing)
> Bottas : Mercedes — Räikkönen : (Alfa Romeo)
> Air : void — colour : (colourless)

EXERCISE 7: CREATIVE PROBLEM SOLVING

You can find useful problem-solving exercises on the 'Luovan ongelmanratkaisun työtavat' (Methods for creative problem solving) website (in Finnish) https://www.edu.helsinki.fi/malu/kirjasto/lor/main.htm

There is nothing new in emphasising the importance of thinking skills in school education. For example, Engeström (1981) discusses this issue in his classic study and divides children's thought operations into inductive operations, i.e. moving from specific cases to general rules, and deductive operations, which mean moving from general rules to specific cases. When he considers the development and teaching of thinking skills, he uses the logical operations required in thinking as the starting point. Along similar lines, Aksela (2006) examines thinking skills by dividing them into lower-level and higher-level skills and combining them with Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom 1956). Anderson developed this taxonomy

further in the 1990s, drawing on more recent developmental psychological perspectives and constructivist theory (Anderson & Krathwohl 2001). According to this taxonomy, human thinking develops from a lower level of thinking to higher-level operations.

The lower-level thought operations are divided into two groups:

1. Knowing and remembering: observe, list, define, identify, find
   Pupils
   • know times, events and places,
   • know the main issues,
   • master the main contents of the subject.

Pupil assessment: Are pupils able to relate/remember the learnt content?

Typical exercises: Make a list, define, relate, describe, identify, show, name, collect, investigate, recite (who, when, where etc.)

2. Comprehending and understanding: categorise, distinguish, modify, explain, summarise
   Pupils
   • understand information
   • find meanings
   • can transfer knowledge to a new context
   • interpret facts, compare them and contrast them
   • predict consequences

Pupil assessment: Are pupils able to explain an idea or concept?

Typical exercises: Summarise, describe, interpret, predict, combine, separate, evaluate, differentiate, discuss, elaborate

EXERCISE 8: INDUCTIVE REASONING

A set of inductive reasoning exercises for the first grade (in Finnish) https://blogs.helsinki.fi/thinkmath/files/2015/05/EKAOPETUSPAKETTI.pdf

A set of inductive reasoning exercises for the second grade (in Finnish) https://blogs.helsinki.fi/thinkmath/files/2015/05/TOKAPAKETTI.pdf

EXERCISE 9: PARTS AND WHOLES

The purpose of the exercise is to help understand the relations between parts and wholes. When we plan things, we think about parts and wholes.

AN EXCELLENT PRODUCT
   1. Begin by discussing interesting products and thinking about their characteristics. What makes a product excellent?

2. *Pupils should then think about the characteristics of a good bicycle in groups and write them down.*
3. *They must choose four characteristics that they consider the most important.*
4. *After that, you consider what the most important characteristics would be if the owner of the bicycle was more than 60 years old.*

A GOOD FOOTBALLER
1. *Pupils think about the characteristics of a good footballer in groups.*
2. *You can provide them with a list from which they must choose seven characteristics. You can include words that have nothing to do with the context.*
   fast, agile, strong, hardy, determined, motivated, follows instructions, curious, empathetic, attentive, muscular, has a sense of humour, supple, reliable, arrogant, risk-taker, good-looking, amusing, good negotiator, selfish, flexible
3. *Once the groups reach an agreement about the characteristics of a good footballer, they draw a character and give the character a name.*
4. *Each group presents their player to the others and explains how the different characteristics are related to one another and form a whole.*

Higher-level thought operations, on the other hand, can be divided into four groups:

3. Applying: apply, demonstrate, calculate, complement, solve, investigate, modify, put into perspective, change, experiment
   Pupils
   • use information
   • apply methods, concepts and theories in new situations
   • use necessary knowledge and skills to solve problems
Pupil assessment: Are pupils able to use their knowledge in new ways?
   Typical exercises: Apply, demonstrate, calculate, complement, describe, show, solve, investigate, modify, put into perspective, change, categorise, experiment, find

4. Analysing: evaluate, combine, criticise
   Pupils
   • see patterns
   • organise parts
   • perceive implicit meanings
   • identify parts
Pupil assessment: Are pupils able to distinguish separate parts/issues?
   Typical exercises: Analyse, distinguish, organise, explain, combine, categorise, divide, compare, choose, draw a conclusion

5. Evaluating: give reasons, compare, explain, interpret, put into perspective
Pupils

- compare and distinguish various ideas
- evaluate the meaning of theories and presentations
- make a choice after a convincing argument
- evaluate the value of evidence
- perceive subjectivity

Pupil assessment: Are pupils able to defend their perspective?

Typical exercises: Evaluate, decide, prioritise, test, measure, recommend, convince, choose, explain, distinguish, advocate, conclude, compare, summarise (In Bloom's original taxonomy, evaluation is the highest goal.)

EXERCISE 10: WHICH DOES NOT BELONG?

When pupils do exercises in which they must decide which picture or word does not belong, they are also learning to think about the special characteristics and features of things and their relations. Thinking about resemblances and differences helps to describe them in detail and attach other information to them.

Image 3. Which do you think does not belong? Give your reasons. (Pixabay.)

These kinds of exercises usually include several possible right answers. It is good to encourage pupils to give full answers in which they give reasons for their choice and say what the resemblances are and how the thing that does not belong differs from the rest.

EXERCISE 11: COMPARE WORDS

What similarities and differences are there between the following pairs of words?

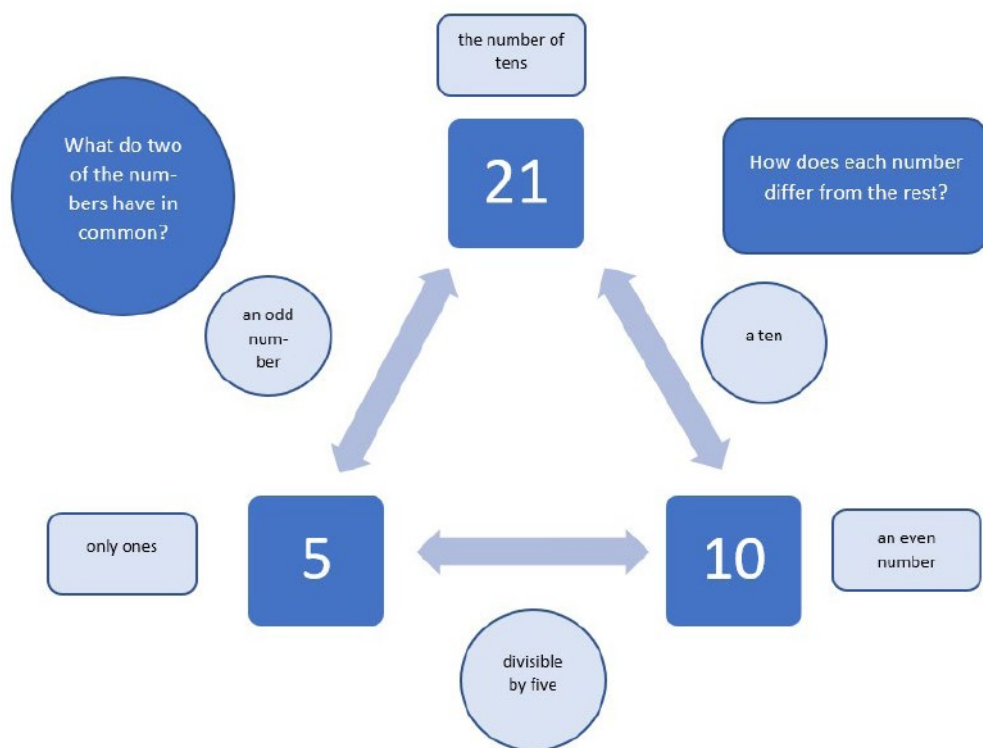| WORDS	SIMILARITIES	DIFFERENCES
Church Factory	building, house	spirit, holy day matter, working day
Love Hate	emotion	positive, liking negative, disliking
Earring Ring	piece of jewellery, round	worn on ear worn on finger
Bread Meat	food, food product	plant-based, product animal-based, ingredient
Milk Coca-cola	drink, liquid	natural product, white industrial product, black

EXERCISE 12: COMPARE NUMBERS

Image 4. Find similarities and differences between the numbers.

NOTE! The answers to the comparing exercises can be different from the examples given above. The main thing is that pupils can give reasons for their answers.

EXERCISE 13: DIAMOND SCALE
It may be difficult for pupils to consciously recognise the grounds on which their ideas are founded, and their evaluations may be superficial. The diamond scale is a tool to support thinking, which prompts pupils to prioritise things and also helps to analyse and evaluate the reasons for choices.

Example:
You are going on a one-day hiking trip to a fell in June. You have a backpack, which includes dry goods for two meals.

   Put the following pieces of hiking equipment into an order of importance on the diamond scale and give reasons for your choices.

knife	*map*	*sleeping bag*
tent	*compass*	*matches*
backpacking stove	*water bottle*	*spare clothing*

You can leave one of the alternatives out and replace it with another piece of equipment. Write the different pieces of equipment on the lines so that the topmost is the most important etc.

Image 5. Hiking equipment on the diamond scale.

EXERCISE 14: RELATIVE SYSTEM OF REFERENCE (Feuerstein, Hoffman & Miller: Instumental Enrichment: Orientation in Space I).

The aim is to provide pupils with a permanent, although relative system of reference with the help of which they can effectively describe spatial relations. The most important concepts are on the right, on the left, in front of and behind.

Image 6 shows a person in four different positions. In the four pictures, the sides of the person's body do not change; instead, the direction and relations change according to the person's position. Pupils should write the relation between the boy and the object in each of the four boxes. The exercise can also be done together by picturing the boy in the garden in different positions and figuring out together the locations of the different objects in relation to the boy.
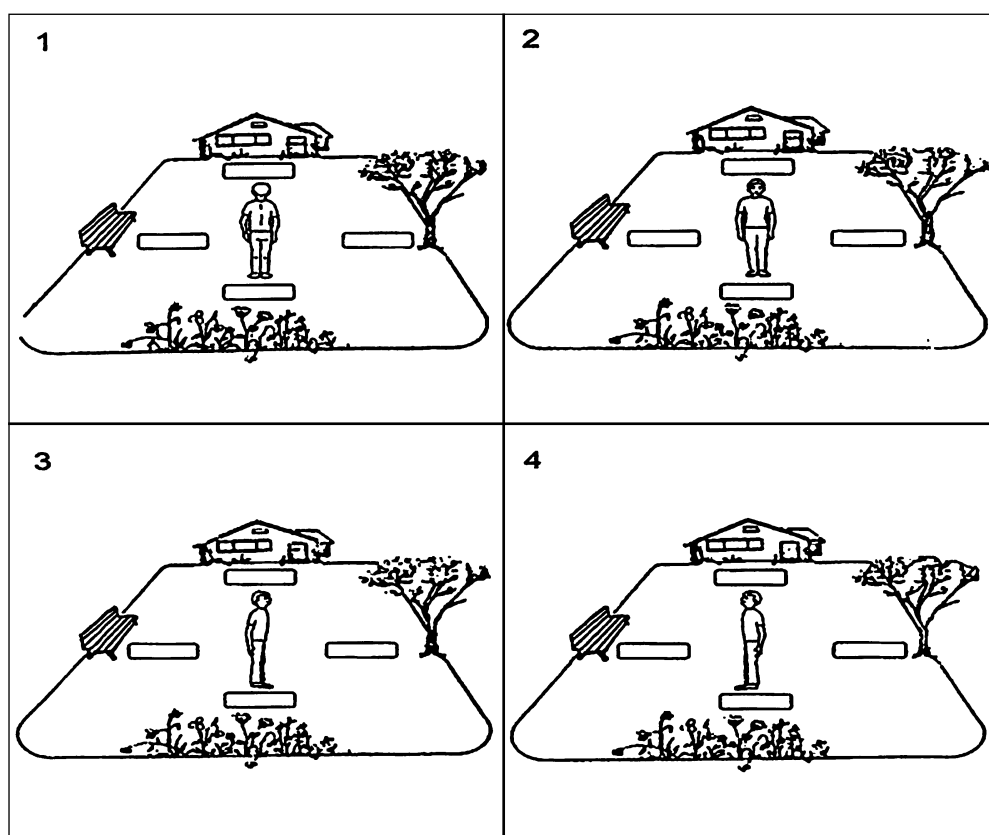

Image 6. What are the locations of the different objects (bench, house, tree, bush) in relation to the boy?

The aim is to learn the concept 'relative': one object or event may appear different to people who look at it from different perspectives. Their perspective depends on their frame of reference and position. Putting oneself in someone else's position is a prerequisite for understanding the other person's perspective.

6. Synthesising and creating new knowledge: change, plan, develop, elaborate, generalise

Pupils
- apply old ideas to create new ones
- generalise from given facts
- compare their knowledge from different fields
- predict, draw conclusions

Pupil assessment: Are pupils able to create new perspectives/productions?

Typical exercises: Combine, include, modify, reorganise, replace, plan, form, create, invent, what if?, draw up, formulate, prepare, generalise, rewrite

3. Aiming for formal thinking

When people's thinking is at the formal level, they think abstractly and use logical operations and hypotheses. They do not need a concrete observation. This kind of thinking is also referred to as hypothetical thinking. At this level, thinkers are able to generate various alternatives and rethink about the reality based on them; they are able to think abstractly and draw logical conclusions regardless of the factual content of the matter at hand.

EXERCISE 15: SCIENTIFIC THINKING
Consider the following rule, which applies to cards that have a number on one side and a letter on the other.

Image 7. Number and letter cards.

'If the card has a vowel on one side, it has an even number on the other side.'
Which of the cards must you turn to prove that the rule is true?

> THE ANSWER:
> E, because there must be an even number on the other side, and 7, because it is an odd number and there must not be vowel on the other side.
> The rule states nothing about what is on the other side of a consonant, nor that there is always or must be a vowel on the other side of an even number.

In scientific thinking, it is not enough to come up with a new interesting idea — it is also necessary to justify the idea by generally accepted means, which means reasoning if it is not possible to prove it through direct perception. At least when studying, people need the following types of reasoning:

1. Theoretical reasoning, which usually means deductive thinking: moving from general rules to specific cases. Logical reasoning is logically coherent thinking, in which logical conclusions are derived from one or several statements, i.e. premises. Deductive logic is formally valid reasoning, in which the relation between the premises and the conclusion is logically necessary. If the premises are true, the conclusion is also logically true. In other words, deduction is reasoning that preserves truth.

2. Hypothetical thinking, which is needed to plan activities. This type of reasoning involves the creation of new hypotheses as well as the verification and testing of the propositions created.

3. Practical reasoning, in which the conclusion is a line of action, or a new rule, formula or theory to be tested. This type of reasoning is inductive reasoning, which moves from specific cases to general rules and in which it is essential to gather data meticulously.

4. Analogical thinking, which provides learners with the ability to particularly apply their problem-solving and thinking skills outside school subjects. The central idea in all learning is that the acquired knowledge and skills can be applied outside the acquired content area.

EXERCISE 16: REASONING
1. *Einstein's problem*
2. *Police patrol*
3. *Skyscrapers*

You will find the instructions for these exercises on the 'Summamutikka' teaching material website (in Finnish) https://blogs.helsinki.fi/summamutikka/tag/paattely/

4. *Attentiveness and mathematical reasoning*

You can find examples of exercises (in Finnish) at http://www.arvoituksia.fi/matematiikka/

As suggested above, formal thinking builds on concrete, lower-level thinking. Therefore, for thinking to develop, the structures of the previous level must be combined to become parts of the next stage, a higher level of thinking. This development does not necessarily happen by itself, and Piaget (1972) has listed four factors that affect the development of thinking skills.
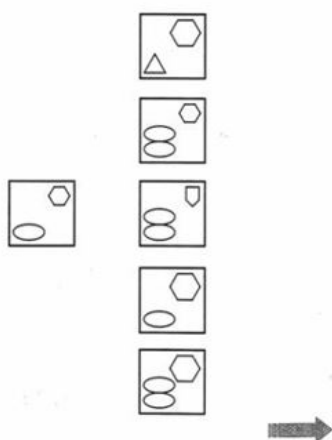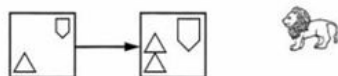
1. First, maturation follows a process typical for human beings and cannot be influenced through education.

1. Second, perceptional and logical-mathematical experiences affect the development of thought processes. They include direct perception, through which children acquire information about objects and their characteristics, conclusions drawn from these perceptions, actions and conclusions and insights drawn from the consequences of actions.

1. Third, there is a connection between social interaction and thinking skills. In particular, Piaget emphasises interaction between peers who are at the same cognitive level, which easily generates cognitive conflicts as children try to understand each other's ideas. Musgrove (1982), on the other hand, has suggested that the level of children's thinking depends of the level of development of their community, which highlights the role of educators as guides, organisers and mediators in interaction between children and their environment as well as in teaching arrangements. Along similar lines, Hautamäki (1995) has noted that the environment significantly affects the development of children. Observing so-called good educators as part of his research, Vygotsky (1982) has also noticed that adults can affect children's development to a great extent. He emphasises the role of guidance provided by adults as one of the main factors influencing the development of children's thinking. Guidance from adults can help children to become aware of cognitive conflicts and offer opportunities and materials that help them to process those conflicts.

1. According to Piaget, the fourth factor affecting cognitive development is equilibration, i.e. self-regulation, which integrates the effects of the other factors and forms an essential part of the development process. The development of thinking involves processes of adaptation, or of accommodation and assimilation, which are self-regulating processes in themselves: when children interact with their environment, they gather information that does not fit into their existing schema. This generates a cognitive conflict and a state of cognitive imbalance. To reach a state of equilibrium, children adapt their schema and build a new idea of 'reality' that is agreeable or at least satisfactory. Therefore, in a sense, children's natural curiosity spontaneously drives their cognitive development forward.
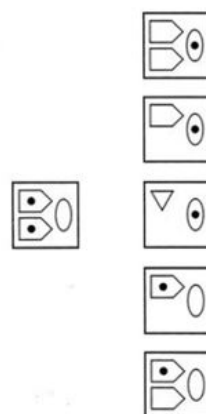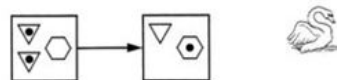
If we look at, for example, analogical thinking and information processing at the formal level, we can see that they would be impossible without the comparative operations of the concrete level. Making comparisons does not come naturally to all people, and thus it must also be taught; it can be started by comparing concrete physical objects and continued with comparisons of more abstract human and other features. Analogical thinking often also requires hypothetical thinking, the making of suppositions, which are also tested (if-then thinking). What is sometimes needed is serial thinking and the creation of patterns: it is necessary to come up with a logical order to follow.

EXERCISE 17: ANALOGICAL THINKING (Based on Ensiaskeleet. Tehtäviä ensimmäisen luokan oppilaille. Centre for Educational Assessment CEA.)

Image 8. Select a pair for the figure.

The exercise includes an example of a pair of figures and a figure that is missing its pair. The two figures of the first pair are connected by a rule, a geometric analogy, and pupils must figure out and apply this rule to find the pair for the second figure. Pupils must select the pair from the given alternatives. In the exercises, there are different levels of difficulty available.

When teaching and developing thinking skills, it is important that there is discussion, both between pupils and between the teacher and pupils. It is important to verbalise the issues studied, because when pupils discuss and explain issues, they are also organised in thoughts, and thinking develops. Research has also suggested that learning is deeper and most efficient when learners themselves verbalise and explain the content they are learning (Rose & Nicholl 1997).

EXERCISE 18: STRATEGY 3, 5, 7 — THE THINGS YOU ALREADY KNOW **(de A'Echevarria & Patience 2008).**

The following exercise offers one useful method to prompt pupils to discuss. It can be used as a preliminary exercise when starting a new topic or as a revising exercise after the topic has been discussed.

1. *Write down three things that you remember about the topic under discussion.*
2. *Share your thoughts with your partner and together, prepare a list of five things about the topic.*
3. *Discuss the topic in groups and choose seven things about the topic.*

4. Teaching thinking skills and developing the school

Thinking and learning to learn, one of the transversal competence areas in the Finnish core curriculum, lay the basis for the development of other competences and for lifelong, continuous learning, and they are needed in all areas of life. In classrooms, an exploratory and creative approach, collaboration and the possibility to concentrate and be absorbed in one's activity promote the development of thinking and learning to learn. Supportive and guiding feedback and encouragement received from the teacher play a central role in the development of pupils' positive self-concept of ability. A positive classroom atmosphere and the teacher's warm and supportive attitude are related to pupils' learning process, the development of their academic skills and the relationships between them (cf. Kiuru et al. 2015.) In teaching situations, it is essential to allow room for pupils' own thoughts and discussions and interaction between pupils. Given attention and time, problem solving, argumentation, reasoning, drawing conclusions, analysing, perceiving and combining alternatives, inventing new things, and systemic and ethical thinking can be blended in naturally in the daily activities of schools. It is also important to remember that, in addition to the more traditional classroom activities, different types of games, game elements and physical activities usually enhance pupils' study motivation, as does pupils' experience of being allowed and able to regulate their own learning process. (Peruskoulun opetussuunnitelman perusteet 2014.)

The following questions are examples of issues that people working in schools can think about in relation to teaching thinking and learning-to-learn skills and developing the school accordingly (cf. Opetushallitus 2015):

1. How is the pupil's role changing in our school?
   • How can thinking and learning be practised?
   • How is their development made visible?
   • What is the role of one's inner/experiential knowledge in learning?
   • How are those skills useful?

2. How does teaching change in our school?
   - How can thinking and learning-to-learn skills be taught?
   - What does it mean for school-work?
   - What is the role of each subject, what can different subjects offer?

3. How does our idea of learning, education and competence change?
   - What kinds of thinking skills are needed?
   - What is the significance of learning-to-learn skills at work/in working life?

4. How does the world change?
   - What universal phenomena affect our thinking and learning or change them?
   - What kinds of new possibilities will emerge?

In Finland and elsewhere, there has been discussion about whether thinking skills should be taught separately and included in the national core curriculum as a separate 'subject' (cf. Kivi 1995a; McGuinness 1999). Based on research (e.g. Kyrö-Ämmälä 2007), it can be noted that the specific teaching of thinking skills is necessary and useful especially in the case of weaker learners. There is a lot of variation in pupils' information-processing skills and ability to follow teaching; some need more time and support than others to acquire certain skills. The teaching of thinking skills could also be provided as remedial or additional teaching alongside regular lessons, which could improve weaker pupils' learning and working skills especially. In addition to the cognitive objectives of the curriculum, it is also essential to pay attention to pupils' skills to gather, process and produce information: a learner's knowledge base is built through information processing. Due to inadequate thinking skills, the learning objectives of different subjects and the knowledge acquired in school often appear as unconnected pieces of special information to pupils, and they are unable to perceive the whole (cf. Tzuriel, Kaniel, Kanner & Haywood 1999). Pupils should be guided to make links and connections in their knowledge and to create abstract rules and principles from experience. The teacher has a significant role in guiding the learning process: the teacher's task is to help pupils find connections between the content studied and the pupils' reality. The basic knowledge and skills taught in schools can only be learnt with the help of sound thinking skills.

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Enhancing the Inclusion of Immigrant Pupils

Satu Taskinen

Opening remarks

What is immigrant education? How can the inclusion of immigrant pupils be enhanced? What kinds of factors prevent inclusion? In this chapter, which is based on my doctoral thesis, I attempt to answer these questions, among others, and propose measures that would enhance inclusion.

1.   Enhancing the inclusion of immigrant pupils

The feeling of inclusion is a person's experience of belonging to a community and being able to influence its actions (Benson 2007). It is especially important for immigrant children and young people who have recently arrived in the country and promotes their integration and language learning (see, e.g., Pöyhönen, Tarvanainen, Vehviläinen, Virtanen & Pihlaja 2010). In this chapter, I discuss the promotion of immigrant pupils' inclusion in comprehensive schools and describe a few methods that have been used to achieve this goal.

This chapter is based on my doctoral thesis *'They can learn from the others' — An educational design research on class-room practices enhancing participation in immigrant students*, which was published in 2017. In my study, I ask how and why we should enhance the inclusion of immigrant pupils in schools.

The study describes practices that enhance inclusion and examines the connections between inclusion and the use of Finnish language in school-work. In the study, inclusion was enhanced through interventions developed on the basis of Lave and Wenger's (1991) communities of practice theory. According to this theory, communities consist

of individuals, who cooperate with one another and build community practices and social relations through this cooperation (Wenger 2010). To be a community of practice, a community must have a shared domain of interest that encourages cooperation, joint activities and discussions, as well as shared problem-solving practices (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner 2015). These form three paths to inclusion in a community.

My study demonstrated that immigrant pupils' willingness to learn and communicate plays the most central role in enhancing their inclusion. It is also important that they find a key person in the Finnish-speaking group who makes them want to become a member of that group. The teacher's role is to create situations that promote inclusion by listening and hearing, encouraging cooperation and promoting team building. In this chapter, drawing on my research results, I shortly describe ways to enhance inclusion in the daily activities of schools.

2.   Central concepts of immigrant education

The aim of the official Finnish migration policy is to integrate immigrants into Finland, which begins from their participation in societal activities of (see, e.g., Paavola & Talib 2010; Saukkonen 2013). For immigrant children and young people, this means, above all, education in the Finnish school system, to which all children of compulsory school age who live permanently in Finland are obligated and entitled (Opetushallitus 2017; Paavola & Talib 2010).

Immigrant children and young people begin school in Finland by participating in preparatory instruction for basic education, which takes place either in a mainstream education group or in an immigrant group that is integrated with mainstream education (see, e.g., Ikonen 2005; Helske 2010; Nissilä 2010). The purpose of preparatory instruction is to provide all children with the knowledge and skills they need to integrate and to enter mainstream education (Ikonen 2005, 13; Päivärinta 2010, 16; see also Saukkonen 2013, 91).

After preparatory instruction, immigrant pupils transfer to mainstream education, where they are referred to as pupils with a different language and cultural background. This means that their background includes several cultures and languages, which must be recognised in teaching and assessment (see, e.g., Onninselkä 2015).

They continue to study Finnish by taking the subject of Finnish as a second language and literature (see, e.g., Ikonen 2005; Martin 2007). Currently, Finnish second language teaching favours a functional approach to language learning, in which emphasis is put on authenticity in language learning. According to this approach, a language cannot be learnt without authentic language learning environments. For immigrant pupils and pupils with a different language and cultural background, this means that the best way

for them to learn Finnish is to observe and practise it among other pupils of their own age. (Aalto, Mustonen & Tukia 2009.)

3. Education system that enables immigrant pupils' group membership

As mentioned, immigrant pupils begin school in Finland by participating in preparatory instruction for basic education. Usually, they participate in this instruction for about one year, but this depends on the progress of each individual. It is important that during preparatory instruction, all pupils are at least in contact with a Finnish-speaking group as close to their own age as possible. (See, e.g., Ikonen 2005; Helske 2010; Nissilä 2010.) After the preparatory instruction, immigrant pupils continue their education in mainstream education, receiving the support they need. In an ideal situation, they would transfer to the group that they became acquainted with during preparatory instruction.
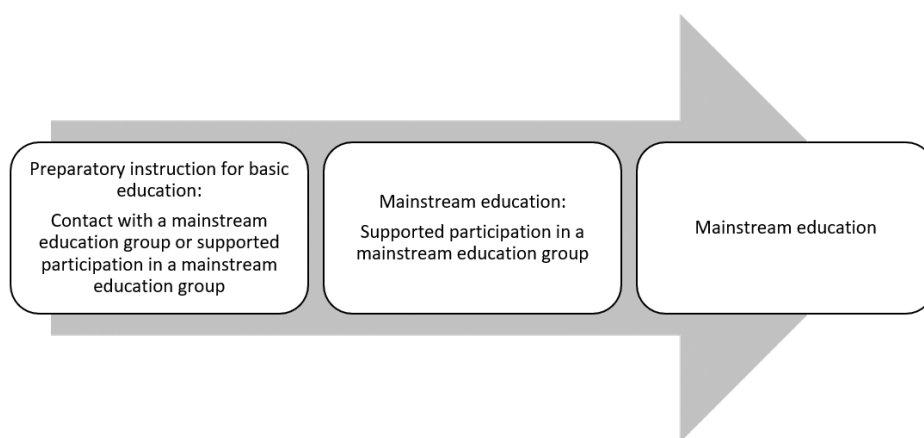
Preparatory instruction for basic education:

Contact with a mainstream education group or supported participation in a mainstream education group

Mainstream education:

Supported participation in a mainstream education group

Mainstream education

Figure 10. Progress from preparatory instruction for basic education to mainstream education.

Following a functional approach to language learning, being in contact with a mainstream group during preparatory instruction is important because languages are not studied for the sake of interaction; rather, the studying itself should involve interaction. For optimal language development, it is also necessary to provide pupils with appropriate challenges that they can tackle with support. (Aalto, Mustonen & Tukia 2009; Kuukka 2009, 16—17.) According to a functional approach to language learning, the language environment is a resource for learning and directs the aims of teaching, which means that the most important goal of language teaching is to help learners to become members of the language environment (Pavlenko & Lantolf 2000; Tukia, Aalto,

Taalas & Mustonen 2012). To a language learner, every native speaker is a potential language teacher. Therefore, inclusion in a language group that speaks the language being studied is crucial for second language learners (Martin 2007), and one aim of preparatory instruction for basic education is to enable this inclusion.

4. Examples of methods that enhance the inclusion of immigrant pupils

In this section, I describe examples of methods that help immigrant pupils to find contacts, i.e. key people, who facilitate their inclusion in a group. It is easy to apply them in classrooms to enhance inclusion.

I Seating arrangements
Seating arrangements can be used to encourage children to work together. For immigrant pupils, it is important to find someone, a key person, who helps them to become a member of the group. Often immigrant pupils themselves have an idea of the person with whom they would like to become acquainted. Offering them a chance to influence seating arrangements and choose the person they would like to sit next to activates them to make an impact on their inclusion in the group. It is easier to approach a classmate one likes to chat or ask for help. Furthermore, the possibility to influence one's learning environment makes immigrant pupils experts in their own situation and thus increases their activeness and motivation to improve their inclusion. These are among the most important factors that promote inclusion.

II Opportunities to get to know other people/present oneself
Organising theme days and exhibitions in schools offers immigrant pupils a chance to present themselves and their background. In this way, they will be introduced to other pupils, and it will be easier for them to participate in collaborative activities even though they cannot yet say a lot about themselves in Finnish. Ideally, these kinds of events enable intercultural learning but do not put immigrant pupils on a pedestal. At best, they offer opportunities for learning as well as tools for immigrant pupils' identity work. If planned poorly, these types of events may only emphasise the differences between cultures.

III Team building
Team building activities are generally practised at the beginning of the school year. However, they can be used throughout the school year to promote inclusion. Team building can be employed to introduce immigrant pupils to the rest of the group and

to encourage more informal collaboration between group members. It is a good idea to choose activities that require linguistic communication, so that immigrant pupils will also have a chance to talk with their classmates. Team building activities also work well when pupils are divided into smaller groups because the habitual classroom roles do not apply in these situations. In addition to classroom activities, team building exercises can be used during breaks if the teacher has a chance to supervise activities during breaks.

IV Cooperative learning

Cooperative and peer learning function well especially in situations in which an immigrant pupil and another pupil share an interest in a school subject. Cooperative learning not only improves inclusion but also increases the use of Finnish. Through the use of cooperative learning methods, it is possible to create situations involving an expert and a learner, which facilitate inclusion regardless of which of these roles is assumed by the immigrant pupil.

Learning together deepens inclusion as pupils solve problems together and share interests, and it works best in situations in which pupils already know one another to some extent. In these situations, too, the teacher has the important role of enabling participation and guiding pupils' work.

5. Factors that promote and prevent the inclusion of immigrant pupils

The promotion of immigrant pupils' inclusion can be captured in three principles. First, it is important to listen to and hear immigrant pupils themselves. While teachers cannot generate inclusion (Morita 2004), their help is needed to recognise or create favourable situations that facilitate inclusion. It is essential to give immigrant pupils themselves the chance to influence their learning environment even when they still have poor language skills. Several studies have pointed out the central role of listening and paying attention to children in the promotion of inclusion (see, e.g., Shier 2001; Louhela 2012; Rudduck & Flutter 2010; Whitehead & Clough 2004). It has been perceived that the feeling of being listened to increases willingness to participate and communicate.

These observations about listening and paying attention to immigrant pupils are also important for the reason that teachers influence learning environments as conveners (see, e.g., Handley, Sturdy, Fincham & Clark 2006; Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner 2015). It means that they have the power to create situations that generate inclusion. While adults' expectations seldom generate inclusion (Morita 2004), pedagogical tact, community spirit and maturity are necessary features especially in school communities (Määttä & Uusiautti 2012).

Second, when the aim is to enhance inclusion, it is important to encourage immigrant pupils to collaborate with others and offer them opportunities for participation. Teachers can encourage collaboration between pupils and support their activity. Immigrant pupils may have challenges with language skills, which may lead to non-participation which naturally hinders the achievement of inclusion. If immigrant pupils have been able to participate in the activities of their new class already during preparatory instruction for basic education, they are in a better position to achieve inclusion. In such a situation, it is important that there is enough support available in the classroom and that the teaching is based on language awareness, i.e. an understanding of the central meaning of language (see, e.g., Kuukka 2010, 16—17). Language awareness benefits all pupils and not only those who have difficulties with language.

Third, to enhance inclusion, it is also critical to provide pupils with team building opportunities in which language skills play a secondary role. Such opportunities may arise in team building activities as well as in informal situations, such as breaks and lunch breaks. Nevertheless, teachers should create opportunities for interaction because without them, immigrant pupils may find it difficult to participate in the school's community of practice. (See also, e.g., Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner 2015; Kubiak et al. 2015.) In addition to school, hobbies also offer important team building opportunities and enhance inclusion as children and young people interact around a shared interest. The fact that hobbies promote inclusion has been observed in several studies (see, e.g., Harinen, Honkasalo, Ronkainen & Suurpää 2012; Rublee & Shaw 1991; Talib & Lipponen 2008).
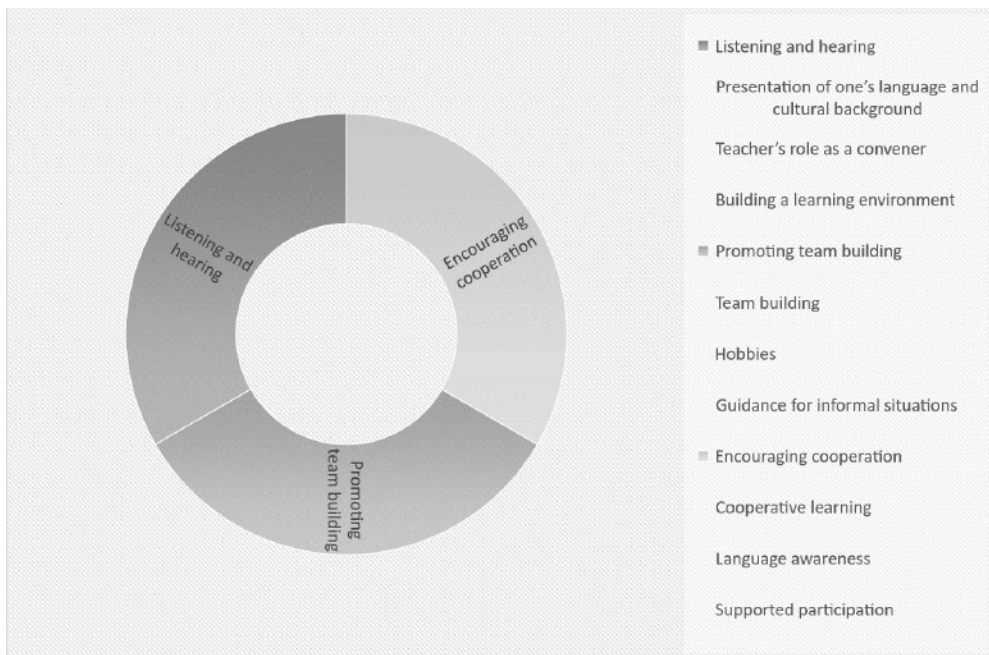

Figure 11. A model for enhancing inclusion (Taskinen 2017).

The most important obstacles to inclusion are pupils' lack of activeness and motivation. It is difficult to achieve inclusion if immigrant pupils themselves are not active and do not want to or have the courage to use the new language and get to know their group. Studies suggest that willingness to communicate (WTC) and participate in activities in a foreign language enhances inclusion even more than pupils' actual skills in the language (see, e.g., Ghonsooly & Showqi 2012; Kivi 2000).

Another important factor that promotes inclusion and encourages learners to overcome language challenges is sufficient support in classrooms. Immigrant pupils need a lot of support in classroom situations that require academic language skills. They must receive support either from their teacher or from their classmates.

It is also difficult to enhance inclusion without motivation. In classrooms, teachers decide who is allowed to participate and how. Pupils must have motivation to participate, and teachers must have motivation to organise situations that enable participation. Participation is a prerequisite for inclusion (Turja 2016). Rather than accepting a certain situation as given, teachers can behave in a way that encourages pupils to cooperate and supports retiring pupils to be active.

With strong motivation, it is possible for pupils to be included in a group even though their language skills are weak and the group had a negative initial attitude towards the newcomer. While there is great potential in Finnish-speaking groups to receive immigrant pupils, it is not always easy for them to participate in their class community. To achieve membership in a Finnish-speaking group, immigrant pupils must be willing to work for their membership and be able to combine the new membership with their old ones (see also Handley et al. 2006). Building an identity related to the group plays a central role in becoming a member of the group. This process may be challenging if the new group is very different from the pupil's previous communities. This is also why it often takes some time to achieve inclusion.

In addition to identity work, learning a culture of collaboration is another factor that sometimes forms a major challenge to inclusion. People who come from other cultures have often acquired a solitary approach to learning. Often peer learning, too, represents a new way of working for immigrant pupils. This explains why immigrant pupils may appear retiring in cooperative learning situations. On such occasions, the teacher's role as a convener is very important. When immigrant pupils receive enough support for group work, they are also provided with opportunities for interaction. This helps them to improve both their learning skills and inclusion.

6. The connection between inclusion and the development of language skills

It is important to realise that there are many types of inclusion and that group members have different positions within the group. For some immigrant pupils, their first form

of participation is one that does not require linguistic communication. They participate in the group's activities with the help of gestures, expressions and body language. It is important to achieve even a low level of inclusion because it prevents exclusion and makes it possible to gradually achieve fuller membership in the community.

Teachers' role in the promotion of inclusion cannot be understated. They can create opportunities for immigrant pupils to get to know and collaborate with others. This requires that teachers make active efforts to enhance inclusion, use their pedagogical expertise and have good knowledge of each pupil. The motivation to learn a new language and participate also plays a crucial role in immigrant pupils' integration into society, because there is a cause and effect relationship between these factors (Clément, Baker & MacIntyre 2003). Language learners' use of the new language is also greatly affected by the interaction in their closest group (Clément, Baker & MacIntyre 2003; see also Mitchell & Myles 2004). Many culturally specific expectations related to communication and context can only develop in interaction with others (Au 1980).

Teachers should make an effort to arouse immigrant pupils' motivation to participate, and they can use simple daily activities to give their pupils a positive push towards learning the new language and integration. On the other hand, groups must be willing to receive new members. Usually, it is not difficult to generate initial excitement towards newcomers, but for them to achieve a deeper involvement in the group, they need to learn the group's language, and the group needs to renew its established relationships. Thus, improving inclusion requires active effort from both immigrant pupils and the members of Finnish-speaking groups. It is worth the effort, however, because it is good to remember that inclusion and integration are always two-way processes: everything that facilitates immigrant pupils' inclusion also helps Finnish-speaking pupils to interact with them.

To sum up, inclusion is a central factor affecting language learning and integration. When immigrant pupils want to form contacts with their peers and belong to their class community, it is possible to achieve a positive spiral of inclusion. It is accompanied by a positive attitude towards the foreign-language speaking group, a wish to belong to the group and a wish to learn the language and integrate. (Ghonsooly & Showqi 2012; Mahoney, Harris & Eccles 2006.) While teachers cannot force pupils to participate in a group, nor groups to include new members, they can offer opportunities that facilitate immigrant pupils' inclusion in a new group and arouse their motivation to participate and become members of the new group. Teachers can achieve this by persistently creating opportunities for participation. It is important to remember that achieving inclusion is a slow process, and marginal membership in a group also constitutes membership. Once pupils are included in a group, they can, if they wish, begin their progression towards core membership.

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GUIDE TO CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE TEACHING AND DIVERSE LEARNERS IN THE DAILY LIFE OF SCHOOLS

The purpose of this booklet, *Guide to culturally responsive teaching and diverse learners in the daily life of schools*, is to increase research-based knowledge of culturally responsive teaching and offer practical examples that can be used in primary school teacher training and when tutoring and teaching learners with a diverse needs and minority or immigrant backgrounds. The name of this booklet derives from the idea, shared by the three projects, of applying culturally responsive teaching in the daily activities of teachers and schools. This guide is a response to the need to manage increasingly diverse teaching contexts. Teachers and primary school student teachers need information about the theory and practice of culturally responsive teaching in order to manage complex learning and teaching situations. The authors of this guide are experts from the three projects as well as invited writers.

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