año LXXVI, enero-abril 2018

aniversario
1943-2018

revista española de pedagogía



nº269

rep

DIRECTOR:

José Antonio Ibáñez-Martín.

Catedrático de Filosofía de la Educación.

DIRECTOR ADJUNTO:

Gonzalo Jover Olmeda, Catedrático de la Universidad Complutense de Madrid.

CONSEJO EDITORIAL:

Isabel Cantón Mayo. Catedrática de la Universidad de León. Antonio J. Colom Cañellas. Catedrático de la Universidad de las Islas Baleares. Juan Escámez Sánchez. Catedrático de la Universidad Católica de Valencia. Mª José Fernández Díaz, Catedrática de la Universidad Complutense de Madrid. **Bernardo Gargallo López**, Catedrático de la Universidad de Valencia. María Victoria Gordillo Álvarez-Valdés. Catedrática de la Universidad Complutense de Madrid. Emilio López-Barajas Zavas. Catedrático de la Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia. Alejandro Mayordomo Pérez, Catedrático de la Universidad de Valencia. **Concepción Naval.** Catedrática de la Universidad de Navarra. Petra Mª Pérez Alonso-Geta, Catedrática de la Universidad de Valencia. Aquilino Polaino-Lorente, Catedrático de la Universidad San Pablo-Ceu. María Dolores Prieto Sánchez, Catedrática de la Universidad de Murcia. Jaume Sarramona. Catedrático de la Universidad Autónoma de Barcelona. **Javier Tejedor, Catedrático** de la Universidad de Salamanca. Javier Tourón, Catedrático de la Universidad Internacional de La Rioja. **Conrado Vilanou Torrano.** Catedrático de la Universidad de Barcelona.

CONSEJO ASESOR:

Wilfred Carr, University of Sheffield (Inglaterra)
Luciano Corradini, Università di Roma (Italia)
Michele Corsi, Università degli Studi di Macerata (Italia)
Randall Curren, University of Rochester (Estados Unidos)
Fernando Gil Cantero, Universidad Complutense de Madrid
Antonio Medina, Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia

SECRETARÍA DE REDACCIÓN:

Juan Luis Fuentes, Profesor de la Universidad Complutense de Madrid. **David Reyero**, Profesor Titular de la Universidad Complutense de Madrid.

La **revista española de pedagogía**, fue fundada en 1943 por el Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas y es editada desde el número 259 por la Universidad Internacional de La Rioja. La revista tiene carácter investigador y vocación universal. Ha sido la primera revista en español presente en el apartado de educación del *Social Sciences Citations Index* y del *Journal Citation Reports*.

La **revista española de pedagogía** publica tres números al año, que constituyen un volumen con un total aproximado de 600 páginas. Los autores expresan las ideas contenidas en sus respectivos artículos bajo su exclusiva responsabilidad. En la web de la revista hay una versión completa en inglés de los artículos publicados a partir de 2017.

La correspondencia debe dirigirse al Director de la revista española de pedagogía, C/ Almansa, 101, 28040, Madrid, España.

Para más información sobre sumarios, números anteriores de la revista, modo de suscripción, compra de artículos o de números sueltos, etc.: www.revistadepedagogia.org

revista española de pedagogía año LXXVI, nº 269, enero-abril 2018



Spanish Journal of Pedagogy year LXXVI, n. 269, January-April 2018

Table of Contents

Sumario

Jose Antonio Ibanez-Martin 75 years at the service of education	3	Jaume Camps Bansell and Elisabeth Vierheller	
David Menéndez Álvarez-Hevia A critical approach to Emotional Intelligence as a dominant discourse in the field of education	7	Single-sex schools in Spain: A qualitative analysis of the reasoning and perceptions of their principals	101
Javier Tourón, Deborah Martín, Enrique Navarro Asencio, Silvia Pradas and Victoria Íñigo Construct validation of a questionnaire to measure teachers' digital competence (TDC)	25	Pilar Martínez Clares and Cristina González Lorente Career guidance, employability, and entering the workforce at university through a structural equation model	119
Jordi Longás Mayayo, Elena Carrillo Álvarez, Albert Fornieles Deu and Jordi Riera i Romaní Development and validation of a questionnaire about determinants of academic success		Olga Duarte Piña Teaching history: innovation and continuity since Rafael Altamira	141
in secondary school students	55	Josefina Sánchez Rodríguez, Talía Cristina Morillo Lesme and	
Carmen Caro Samada, Josu Ahedo Ruiz and Francisco Esteban Bara Kohlberg's moral education proposal and its legacy at university: present and future	85	Concepción Riera Quintana Evaluating the affective needs of adopted children: demonstrations of psychomotor expressiveness	157

Book reviews

Martínez, M., Esteban, F., Jover, G. and Payá, M. La educación, en teoría [Education in theory] (Juan Luis Fuentes). Sarramona, J. Conservadores e izquierdistas frente a la educación [Conservatives and leftists regarding education] (José Antonio Jordán). Buxarrais, M. R. and Burget, M. (Coord.) Aprender a ser. Por una pedagogía de la interioridad [Learning to be. For a pedagogy

of interiority] (Gema Pilar Sáez Suanes). **Musaio, M.** Realizzo me stesso. Educare i giovani alla ricerca delle possibilità
[Self-realisation: Educating young people in exploring their possibilities]
(Carmen Urpí Guercia). **Pérez-Pérez, C.**Educación en valores para la ciudadanía.
Estrategias y técnicas de aprendizaje [Education in values for citizenship. Learning strategies and techniques] (José L. González-Geraldo).

177

This is the English version of the research articles and book reviews published originally in the Spanish printed version of issue 269 of the **revista española de pedagogía.** The full Spanish version of this issue can also be found on the journal's website http://revistadepedagogia.org.



ISSN 0034-9461 - Depósito legal: M. 6.020 - 1958 e-ISSN 2174-0909 Rev. esp. pedagog. (Internet) INDUSTRIA GRÁFICA ANZOS, S.L. Fuenlabrada - Madrid

revista española de pedagogía año LXXVI, nº 269, enero-abril 2018



Spanish Journal of Pedagogy year LXXVI, n. 269, January-April 2018

sumario*

table of contents **

José Antonio Ibáñez-Martín

75 años al servicio de la educación 75 years at the service of education

Estudios Studies

David Menéndez Álvarez-Hevia

Aproximación crítica a la Inteligencia Emocional como discurso dominante en el ámbito educativo A critical approach to Emotional Intelligence as a dominant discourse in the field of education

Javier Tourón, Deborah Martín, Enrique Navarro Asencio, Silvia Pradas y Victoria Íñigo

Validación de constructo de un instrumento para medir la competencia digital docente de los profesores (CDD)

Construct validation of a questionnaire to measure teachers' digital competence (TDC)

Jordi Longás Mayayo, Elena Carrillo Álvarez, Albert Fornieles Deu y Jordi Riera i Romaní

Desarrollo y validación del cuestionario sobre condicionantes de éxito escolar en alumnos de secundaria

Development and validation of a questionnaire about determinants of academic success in secondary school students

55

Notas Notes

Carmen Caro Samada, Josu Ahedo Ruiz y Francisco Esteban Bara

La propuesta de educación moral de Kohlberg y su legado en la universidad: actualidad y prospectiva Kohlberg's moral education proposal and its legacy at university: present and future

85

25

^{*} Todos los artículos están publicados en inglés en la página web de la revista: www.revistadepedagogia.org.

^{**} All the articles are published in English on the web page of the journal: www.revistadepedagogia.org.

Jaume Camps Bansell y Elisabeth Vierheller

Escuelas diferenciadas en España: un análisis cualitativo de las razones y percepciones de sus directivos Single-sex schools in Spain: a qualitative analysis of the reasoning and perceptions of their principals

Pilar Martínez Clares y Cristina González Lorente

Orientación, empleabilidad e inserción laboral en la universidad a través de un Modelo de Ecuaciones Estructurales Career guidance, employability, and entering the workforce at University through a Structural Equation Model

Olga Duarte Piña

La Enseñanza de la Historia: innovación y continuidad desde Rafael Altamira Teaching History: innovation and continuity since Rafael Altamira

Josefina Sánchez Rodríguez, Talía Cristina Morillo Lesme y Concepción Riera Quintana

Evaluación de las necesidades afectivas en niñas y niños adoptados: manifestaciones en su expresividad psicomotriz Evaluating the affective needs of adopted children: demonstrations of psychomotor expressiveness

Reseñas bibliográficas

Martínez, M., Esteban, F., Jover, G. y Payá, M.
La educación, en teoría (Juan Luis Fuentes).
Sarramona, J. Conservadores e izquierdistas
frente a la educación (José Antonio Jordán).
Buxarrais, M. R. y Burget, M. (Coord.) Aprender
a ser. Por una pedagogía de la interioridad
(Gema Pilar Sáez Suanes). Musaio, M. Realizzo
me stesso. Educare i giovani alla ricerca delle
possibilità (Carmen Urpí Guercia).
Pérez-Pérez, C. Educación en valores para la
ciudadanía. Estrategias y técnicas de
aprendizaje (José L. González-Geraldo).

175

Informaciones

101

119

141

157

Conferencia TEPE 2018 sobre «Reclutamiento y educación de los mejores docentes: política, profesionalismo y pedagogía». I Congreso Internacional sobre «Educación del Carácter en Latinoamérica: Retos y Oportunidades». IX Congreso Internacional de Psicología y Educación (CIPE) sobre «Psicología, Educación y Neurociencias. Construyendo puentes para el desarrollo humano». V Congreso Internacional EDO (CIEDO) sobre «Liderazgo y gestión del talento en las organizaciones».

Una visita a la hemeroteca (Eva Ramírez Carpeño).

Una visita a la red (David Reyero).

Instrucciones para los autores

Instructions for authors 201



ISSN 0034-9461 - Depósito legal: M. 6.020 - 1958 e-ISSN 2174-0909 Rev. esp. pedagog. (Internet) INDUSTRIA GRÁFICA ANZOS, S.L. Fuenlabrada - Madrid

75 years at the service of education

When living in a city for a long time, one has the opportunity to see the changes that businesses undergo and to reflect upon the reasons why. Quite a few close due to the retirement of their owners. However, in many other cases, their closure is due to the fact that there was quality missing in what they were offering, not to mention imagination in order to meet the requirements of the new social circumstances.

This thought came to me as the 75th anniversary of the creation of **revista española de pedagogía** (the *Spanish Journal of Pedagogy*) was approaching, an anniversary which, in relation to marriage, is called a *diamond* wedding anniversary. I believe this is a description that can be applied to our journal's track record. Indeed, there are very few pedagogical research journals throughout the world that have reached their 75th anniversary, still with the same name and producing punctual publications. Thus, this anniversary is the expression of a sparkling journey with both national and international recognition, one that has stood the test of time, such that we were the first journal in the Spanish language to be accepted in the most renowned database in the world, that of the *Journal Citation Reports (JCR)*, and we are a publication boasting the highest ranking for research evaluation criteria, followed by Spanish public bodies. Countless people have worked with us to achieve these great results, whether on the journal's Boards, by reviewing the articles, writing them or working in the dark and effective back office, which enables us to bring out a beautifully-produced issue. My most heartfelt recognition goes to these people.

Over the years, the **revista española de pedagogía** has very positively contributed to improving the quality of educational research, which has been the criteria for selecting articles, as we have defended the idea that it is misguided to believe that, in education, there is only *one best system*, forgetting the plurality of human beings, and that it is even more misguided to promote a political ideology from a scientific journal. These principles have lead to the fact that, alongside internationally renowned researchers, our authors include practically all of those who have been at the forefront of pedagogical research in Spain over recent decades, many of whom began to publish their work here at a time when they still did not have an established academic position, but whose talent was discovered by the reviewers, who do not know the name of the authors whose articles they review.

In addition to nurturing quality, we have sought to encourage imagination. We were the first to publish articles in other cultured languages, produce monographic issues, adapt to international standards regarding the presentation of articles, sell journal issues and articles online, etc. We have recently embarked on the adventure of publishing an online version of the articles and reviews in English, in addition to the printed



José Antonio IBÁÑEZ-MARTÍN

issue in Spanish, which is a policy that we consider necessary given that 95% of journals included in the JCR are written in English.

In order to commemorate this 75th Anniversary, there will be two Round Tables held in Madrid on 19th April, in which journal editors will take part —all of which are included in the JCR— Spanish, American, English, Mexican, etc. Details of this event will be provided in the News section of our website and also on the journal's social media profiles, and we would like to extend an invitation to our readers now.

José Antonio Ibáñez-Martín Editor



This is the English version of an article originally printed in Spanish in issue 269 of the **revista española de pedagogía**. For this reason, the abbreviation EV has been added to the page numbers.

A critical approach to Emotional Intelligence as a dominant discourse in the field of education

Aproximación crítica a la Inteligencia Emocional como discurso dominante en el ámbito educativo

David MENÉNDEZ ÁLVAREZ-HEVIA. PhD. Senior Lecturer. Manchester Metropolitan University, United Kingdom (d.menendez-alvarez-hevia@mmu.ac.uk).

Abstract:

This article offers a critical analysis of emotional intelligence (EI) as a dominant discourse that establishes ways of understanding, managing, and learning about emotions in the field of education. The first section gives an overview of the recent interest in the emotional along with how the popularity of ideas associated with emotional intelligence derives from its ability to associate itself with other influential discourses that emerge from the brain sciences (neurology, cognitive psychology etc.). As part of this discussion, some of EI's main qualities are questioned, for example, its neutrality, its potential to go beyond the dualist approaches that dominate traditional conceptions, and its proposal for a paradigm shift. The second part of the article examines the presence and impact of the discourse of emotional intelligence in the field of education in the form of mechanisms for measuring emotional intelligence and programmes of emotional intelligence or emotional literacv. The importance of educators' emotional involvement is discussed, as is the problem

of the subjectivating power of this discourse. It concludes with arguments that invite us to reflect and explore alternative ways of understanding and framing the emotional and emotional education.

Keywords: emotional intelligence, discourse. emotional education, emotional literacy subjectivation, educators' emotional involvement, emotionality.

Resumen:

Este artículo presenta un análisis crítico de la Inteligencia Emocional cómo discurso dominante, a través del cual se concretan formas de entender, gestionar y aprender sobre las emociones en el ámbito educativo. En la primera parte se discute el reciente interés por lo emocional y cómo la popularidad de las ideas asociadas a la Inteligencia Emocional viene dada por su capacidad para asociarse con otros discursos de gran influencia que emergen desde las ciencias del cerebro (neurología, psicología cognitiva etc.). Como parte de esta discusión se cues-

7 EV

Revision accepted: 2017-09-01.

This is the English version of an article originally printed in Spanish in issue 269 of the revista española de pedagogía. For this reason, the abbreviation EV has been added to the page numbers. Please, cite this article as follows: Menéndez Álvarez-Hevia, D. (2018). Aproximación crítica a la Inteligencia Emocional como discurso dominante en el ámbito educativo | A critical approach to emotional intelligence as a dominant discourse in the field of education. Revista Española de Pedagogía, 76 (269), 7-23. doi: 10.22550/ REP76-1-2018-01

tionan algunas de sus cualidades principales como son su neutralidad, su potencial para transcender planteamientos dualistas que imperan en las concepciones tradicionales, así como su propuesta de cambio de paradigma. La segunda parte del artículo examina la presencia e implicaciones del discurso de Inteligencia Emocional en el contexto educativo a través de los mecanismos de medición de inteligencia emocional y los programas de educación o alfabetización emocional. También se discute la importancia de las impli-

caciones emocionales para los educadores, a la vez que se trata la problemática asociada al poder subjetivador de dicho discurso. Para concluir, se exponen argumentos que invitan a reflexionar v explorar formas alternativas de entender y plantear lo emocional y la educación emocional.

Descriptores: inteligencia emocional, discurso, educación emocional, alfabetización emocional, subjetivación, implicación emocional de educadores, emocionalidad.

1. Introduction

Recent events like the bombings on the Madrid Metro in 2004, the Twin Towers of New York in 2001, or the attack on the Bataclan theatre in Paris in 2015; natural disasters like the Haiti earthquake of 2010, the Japanese tsunami of 2011, or Hurricane Katrina in 2005: political upheaval such as that experienced in the Arab Spring between 2010 and 2013, Brexit in 2016, or the recent election of Donald Trump as president of the USA. Despite happening at different times, these all received very extensive media coverage that reached a broad audience and featured intense and polarised emotional aspects. The way they were presented to the public and handled is associated with the constant display and manipulation of emotional aspects that transmit multiple messages (Yell, 2012). On top of this, there is also affective (and sexual) saturation in films, TV series, and novels, magazines and newspapers that are packed with sensationalist journalism, and the emer-

gence of a television line-up dominated by sensationalist programmes that explore social dramas in a superficial manner, reality-shows where the main characters expose themselves emotionally, and melodramatic documentaries that are presented as educational. Faced with this prospect, it is no surprise that television is presented to us as «the kingdom of emotions and appearances» (Ferrés, 1996, p. 23) and as a medium that promotes an egotistic and consumerist culture that particularly targets the young (Gordo López and Burman, 2004). The use and abuse of emotions is characteristic of a society that Mestrovicic (1997, p. xi), like Schlaeger and Stedman (1999, p. 20), defines as post-emotional, thanks to the frivolous and relativistic way it treats affective matters. This exercise in emotional extremism responds to symbolic and material interests that involve the appearance of forms of individual, social, and cultural manipulation and control (Mestrovicic, 1997) and have the ultimate aim of colonising, domesticating, and instrumentalising a part of our being that was still evasive. They agree with Denzin (2007), who sees this treatment as a constituent element of the postmodern moment in which we live.

In the late 1970s and early 1980s, authors such as MacIntyre (1984) stated their concerns on noting that the emotional realm disregarded the complexity of moral judgements, politics, and social proclamations. Over the last two decades we have seen how interest in studying the emotional realm and its implications for the field of education have become a central topic of research and debate.

A search for scientific publications containing the term emotion¹ in the Thomson Reuters' Web of Science database for the twenty years up to 1996 returns 7,175 publications; the figure for the following twenty years increases to 92,483 publications. Consequently, there is talk of an emotional revolution with multidisciplinary implications that transcend the field of psychology, philosophy, or education (Rosenthal, 2002; Reddy, 2001; Squire, 2001).

Interest in the world of emotions is nothing new. It has always been an attractive topic for thinkers such as philosophers and theologians who wished to understand the transcendence of the emotional experience, for writers who made emotional outbursts into the central topic of their stories, and for scientists who wished to escape from what prevented objective perception. What really stands out is the appearance in the modern academic and educational

world of a topic that had traditionally been on the margins of knowledge, but has now come to be seen as being of particular interest. This requires in-depth reflection to understand what it is happening in the behind the scenes of this situation.

This interest in the emotional can be associated with the success of the publication in 1996 of a book by Daniel Goleman originally called Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ². This work presents emotional intelligence (EI) as a set of skills that are partly determined by our genetic-evolutionary baggage, but that can also be changed through learning processes. The ability to control, adapt, and modify our emotions is the backbone of Goleman's project and is especially appealing in the field of education where it has been enthusiastically received. Much of this work's popularity can be explained by the author's ability to spread the idea of EI using a journalistic and anecdotal style that simultaneously seeks legitimation by aligning itself with the scientific work of authors such as Salovey and Mayers (1990), Gardner (1993), and Le-Doux (1993, 1998). However, for some authors the concept of EI is nothing new; instead it is the revision and revitalisation of a set of ideas that had gone unnoticed within the fields of psychology, neuroscience, and education (Damasio, 1996; Landy and Mayer, 2005).

All of these ideas grouped around the concept of EI share a common theoretical underpinning, centred on cognitivist and constructivist focuses influenced by the latest discoveries from the field of neuro-



science. This alliance is one of the focal points on which some criticisms of EI are based. For example, Edwards, Gillies, and Horsley (2016) invite us to consider this relationship as *brain porn*, as it can be accused of making superficial and decorative use of the neuroscience and psychological discourse. It is therefore a relationship that places more emphasis on its seductive capacity than on its explanatory capacity or its content. Could this partly explain the success of EI discourse?

This article questions how EI discourse relates to other dominant discourses, examining how these are interwoven, interact, and emerge in the field of education, in order to explain its presence. To this end, a discursive focus is proposed in which EI is presented as a dominant discourse within the current educational framework (Boler, 1999; Hartley, 2003; Zembylas, 2006; Fernandez-Berrocal and Ruiz Aranda, 2008). To understand EI as a discourse, the socio-cultural, historical, and political context in which it occurs is considered, starting from the idea that discourses are practices that produce meanings, shape subjects, and regulate conduct within societies and institutions (MacLure, 2003).

Next, the problem associated with the neutrality and harmony of EI discourse is presented and analysed. EI's supporters portray it as universal and capable of overcoming the Western dualist tradition that separates: body/mind; internal/external; personal/social. In other words, it is represented as capable of resolving the epistemological conflict between reason and emotion.

2. Emotional intelligence as discourse

EI is based around 5 domains or skills: knowing one's own emotions, managing emotions, motivating oneself, recognising emotions in others, and handling relationships (Goleman, 1996, pp. 43-44). These are in turn grouped into two categories or competences:

- a) Personal, to which the first three domains correspond.
 - b) Social, to which the last two belong.

Examining them in more depth, therefore reveals two traditionally antagonistic categories presented as though they were in a harmonious and complementary relationship. The problem this approach presents us with is none other than the reproduction of a dualist approach applied to understanding emotions. The personal category represents the inner realm, the private and purely emotional, while the social category is associated with what is public and less emotional. This heritage is inscribed in Western thinking where truth and reason are privileged, while the emotional, physical, and subjective are relegated to a secondary position (Boler, 1997; Game and Metcalfe, 1996; Greenspan, 2003). As in an antagonistic dialectic, in the case of the discourse of EI this is not presented as an arbitrary break where one extreme prevails over the other, but as a balanced and neutral relationship between both poles. Therefore, EI discourse requires an even more exhaustive and in-depth analysis, as the relationships between its terms are not neutral, and attempts to represent it as neutral might mask dynamics and practices that eventually perpetuate a prob-



lematic distribution of power that privileges a hierarchical situation (Burman and MacLure, 2005).

EI discourse, despite its efforts to seek a new order between reason and emotion. is not a break with dualist thinking, but instead feeds it. Knowledge of emotions through the studying of cognitive and neuro-physiological processes is prioritised over any other ways of understanding the phenomenon of emotions. This form of knowledge shapes and delimits the discursive framework on which any educational practice associated with EI is constructed. Similarly, we find that cognitive structures and possibilities are presented as natural, internal, and primary and are given priority over existential anthropological approaches that are seen as artificial, external, and secondary. Therefore, other more independent and transformative educational forms for which teaching starts from the infinite human possibilities before considering the cognitive nature of the individual are restricted (Penalva, 2009). The body/ mind, emotion/reason dichotomy and its derivatives are reconfigured to remain present.

The starting point for the debate about emotions from the approaches associated with EI is the body, more specifically the brain, its processes, and its nature. The ideas about the brain's functioning, its development, and the processes that occur in it appear not just in Goleman's work, but in the prior and subsequent ideas of other authors that comprise the IE universe³. It is not an isolated idea that is gaining momentum in the field of education thanks to

its ability to cause a paradigm shift. Therefore, putting into practice the thought of postmodern authors such as Foucault (1997) or Lyotard (1984) it is possible to question the breakthrough of EI discourse and its approval, arguing that it is not part of a neutral scientific process —which underpins rationalist and empiricist historiography— but rather the power dynamics that govern knowledge, define positions, and manage possibilities.

This explains how EI has gained acceptance as it can be positioned alongside other dominant discourses within the field of education. To illustrate this argument, the way in which the relationship between EI discourse and constructivist and cognitivist ideas, which are implemented in the field of education, goes beyond scientific logic and does not represent a real break with dualist thinking is set out below.

Constructivist ideas have a strong presence and influence on the modern field of education. This is a theoretical-epistemological approach that aims to give knowledge and learning a transdisciplinary and individualised presence, encouraging critical scrutiny. Originally it sought to break with traditional models and promote an alternative approach. Constructivism is not a homogeneous idea, since, as Coll notes, «in the field of education we usually find a wide range of differing proposals and approaches under the label of 'constructivism'» (1996, p. 153). Despite their differences, the ways of presenting constructivist teaching theories all feature the confluence of a range of psychological focuses



that combine contributions from cognitivism, neurophysiology, and developmental and social psychology. They are therefore the same sources EI draws on to present itself as a scientific discourse and so gain a privileged position in relation to other ways of representing and understanding the emotional realm within the field of education. This association simultaneously counterbalances epistemological and ontological deficiencies associated with the idea of social construct⁴ and EI. However, this also involves relegating more exhaustive exploration of anthropological, axiological, and especially political questions to a subsidiary position. The big dilemma raised here is that if these latter aspects are not questioned, the discourse of EI will struggle to overcome the problems associated with a dualist system and so will continue to be suspected of helping to perpetuate it.

EI legitimises its universality in its relationship with cognitivist ideas which are used to justify universal psychological processes and basic biological structures. However, authors such as Matthews, Zeidner, and Roberts (2002) present evidence that calls into question the cognitivist approaches set out by Goleman, such as the existence of neuronal processes that comprise emotional control. For these authors, EI is no more than a construct that reflects personal competences and abilities to interact and adapt to the demands of the context in which one moves. EI's status as a science is also questioned by Manrique Solana (2015) who sees it as a development of new age theory that situates it between

positivism and innatism. Its way of regarding certain biological elements as natural and universal is especially questioned by the more pioneering perspectives, such as the poststructuralist and feminist focuses of new materialism (see: Harding, 1986; Haraway, 1991; Ahmed, 2004; Grosz, 2005). This is not a question of denying the corporeality or materiality of certain phenomena, but rather the way EI is presented as a discourse that derives its historicity, ideological charge, and politicisation of bodies and objects from emotional experience. Nevertheless, the ability to erase these traces does not mean that the conflicts associated with them are eliminated; instead they are perpetuated as they continue to support themselves on the same immovable hase.

The alliance between EI and the so-called brain sciences can be understood in a more profound way through Nikolas Rose's genealogical study of psychology (1998) in conjunction with his analysis of the use of neuroscience to colonise the social and human sciences (Rose and Abi-Rached, 2013). From this perspective, this alliance is understood as part of a project for constructing and managing the self that has a strong presence in contemporary societies. The result of this project, which is led by the psy disciplines⁵, is the emergence of a promise that is hard to keep. This is the promise of a coherent, enclosed, individualised self that comprises our internal universe and unites it with our body. Its ultimate goal is the possibility of self-discovery and finding our «authentic» self. EI is what Rose (1998) would call a «psychology of everyday life»,



or, in educational terms, a «pedagogy of self-realisation» (p. 17) that enables us to satisfy our longing for knowledge of the human aspects that have historically been presented to us as determinants of our deepest self. As its culmination, and considering the current concern with the employment situation, EI presents a springboard towards professional success. All of this is exhibited through an accessible and up-to-date explanation, accompanied by the techniques needed to make it possible to work on EI. So, the emotional realm opens up to new possibilities that go beyond the personal, social, or educational fields to be redirected towards productive, business, and/or corporatists interests.

The ways EI discourse is formalised in the field of education are examined below.

3. Presence and implications of the discourse of emotional intelligence in the field of education

For Hartley (2003), the spread of EI discourse in the field of education is essentially instrumental; its purpose is to serve the economic system by creating emotionally malleable workers and consumers. This means that educators and students accept the idea that they are primarily responsible for their professional, social, or educational successes or failures. This discourse leads them to see the cause of their problems in their ability to handle their emotions and so creates a need and subsequent demand for tools and strategies that enable them to work on them. In response to this, EI is pack-

aged in different ways to make it accessible and easily consumed. It reacts to the demand for educational tools that make it possible to develop EI through this commodification process. In the field of education, pedagogical material is appearing that is consumed by educational institutions and professionals. They are offered guidebooks and manuals, educational programmes for different levels, talks and symposia, evaluation tools, training courses, etc. All of these come under the «umbrella of emotional intelligence» (Boler, 1999, p. 85), the approval of different authorities, its scientific justification, and its great commercial success. It is worth emphasising two products: emotional quotient tests and the emotional literacy programmes.

3.1. El measurement tests

While there is no evidence to suggest that emotion measurement tests have a significant presence in the field of education, analysing them enables us to understand different aspects of EI discourse.

These are standardised tools⁶ that follow the same scientific patterns as traditional intelligence tests. They aim to measure the individual's capacity to develop in the five domains that define the construct of EI. It is a marketable social engineering tool that requires the participation of a type of expert for its implementation (scientists) and distribution (principally psychologists who use these tools for diagnostic purposes, HR professionals in staff selection, and educational counsellors seeking answers to



the demands of parents and educators). Furthermore, less refined and more popular tools can be found in magazines and on websites that people can use on themselves.

The result of the test is an emotional quotient (EQ) that is presented as an even more precise predictor of social and professional success than the traditional intelligence quotient (IQ). In a world shaped by a neoliberal ideology in which education is just another element of the global market, it is not surprising that there is little resistance to a tool with great commercial potential. Furthermore, this type of measuring tool makes it possible to rationalise and compare, allowing the creation of new organisation and classification parameters. This interest in measuring how people feel is not exclusive to the educational world, and, as Davies explains (2015), over the last decade we have seen how governments and corporations have shown a growing interest in emotional and well-being indicators that has led to the emergence of a happiness industry. This form of emotional measurement entails a new idea of normality and classification that involves the possibility of identifying an emotional elite, but also of identifying and being able to pathologise an inferior emotional class. Like IQ, EQ is a subjectivating and regulatory technique or tool with governmental ends that can operate at an individual and social level. For Foucault (1990), this would be a form of exercising power that does not need to resort to discipline or to legal containment. It is the evolution of the sovereign power that now needs group complicity and

a discourse that not only focuses on the body, but also moves on to organise other aspects of social and productive lives. Individuals en masse become accomplices in the exercise of this form of power: a continuous, scientific power that manages different aspects of our lives at the individual and population levels. Consequently, it is worth considering moments and situations where this type of power goes beyond different educational stakeholders. This question should also be accompanied by others that focus on examining forms of resistance that make it possible to explore new spaces in which EI discourse blurs and opens up to new forms. The innovation of the concept of EQ compared with IQ is that the former is plastic and so can be taught. Consequently, another type of product has emerged to accompany the measurement and classification technology: educational programmes, most notably, emotional literacy programmes and social-emotional learning.

3.2. Emotional education and literacy programmes

Emotional education programmes are put forward as an educational tool for developing EI skills. These programmes have been developed and are available in multiple formats adapted to different contexts. For example, some take the form of courses that are offered to businesses to develop emotional skills to improve the labour relations with their workers or even so that managers can learn to manage human and emotional capital «more efficiently»⁷. Nonetheless, we should ask ourselves how much of the



enthusiastic welcome these programmes receive within the world of direction and management is humanist or seeks personal development and how much of it is instrumental. Above all, as discussed in the next section of this article, it is necessary to consider these programmes' implications for the subjectivation process of the people exposed to these practices, as this process is what explains the emergence and the possibility of building and manifesting different identities or ways of constructing one's identity and being recognised.

In the educational setting, these programmes are usually presented in centres as interdisciplinary or even extracurricular activities for students (e.g. Netlibrary, 2003; Humphrey et al., 2008; Cornwell and Bundy, 2009), becoming an indicator of educational quality and effectiveness (Hartley, 2003). Consequently, we find that the latest Spanish educational reforms through the Organic Law to Improve Educational Quality of 2013 (LOMCE), while not mentioning specific focuses, do state that the educational administration should try to encourage emotional development. This is not new since, as Buey notes (2002), this interest was already manifest in earlier laws. However,

in other settings such as England, while there is an interest in providing education in these areas, through initiatives such as Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning, various reforms have led to this interest fading (for more information see: Wigelsworth, Humphrey and Lendrum, 2012).

As for teachers, emotional education programmes are offered to them as training courses or manuals and have a dual function. On the one hand, they aim to train teachers to improve their labour relations and how they perform their job. On the other hand, they aim to prepare them to perpetuate their students' emotional education by applying the EI philosophy. We even find that some universities have developed their own courses and masters programmes in EI. We could, therefore, state that this is an expanding market with great commercial appeal.

Taking as a reference point the arguments developed by Burman (2009), Zembylas (2005a, 2005b), and Boler (1999), Table 1 reviews and summarises the main problems associated with the fundamental objectives that make up emotional education and literacy programmes.



David MENÉNDEZ ÁLVAREZ-HEVIA

Table 1. Problems associated with the fundamental objectives of emotional education and literacy programmes.

Fundamental objectives of emotional education and literacy programmes	Associated problem
Teaching emotions as competences or skills.	Emotion is reduced to a set of predefined, quantifiable, and normalised skills that can be developed in the classroom.
Learning to communicate through standardised forms of emotional expression.	A space is established for regulating and standardising expressive emotional potential.
Showing how EI is based on scientific theories including psychology, biology, and neurology.	Historical, cultural, political, and above all biographical variables, associated with emotions, are ignored. EI's status as a science and the possibilities other disciplines offer are not questioned.
Accepting EI's relationship with social, academic, and professional success. Promoting EI helps resolve major educational and social conflicts.	Simplification of the social world that places all responsibility for her future on the individual at the same time as disregarding and not helping to question the influence of social and political structures that condition people socially.
Understanding that social harmony comes about through controlling negative emotions and promoting positive ones.	The moral and ethical problem is transformed into an emotional problem.
Recognising the existence of universal emotional structures and rules.	This raises the following questions: How are emotional rules negotiated? How are they questioned? Who can question the pre-established regulations and structures?

Source: Own elaboration.

Emotional literacy programmes along with the techniques for measuring EQ are one of the ways in which EI discourse is implemented in the field of education. It is through these that EI discourse acquires its capacity to operate on subjects, disseminating and establishing a framework of emotional knowledge that involves normalising some forms of expression, while excluding others that do not fit within these margins. A fundamental

part of this process occurs through regulation of the communicative and associative capacity that happens partly through training (emotional programmes) and partly through evaluating (EQ) normalised expressive-emotional protocols. It takes shape in the form of a language that is not without pre-established values and hierarchies (e.g. names of emotions, classifications, evaluations, etc.) and includes specific jargon (e.g. emotional



hijacking, state of flow, emotional contagion, etc.) and which creates a discursive space governed by emotional rules that are recognised and internalised by the people who inhabit that space.

3.3. Subjectivation through El

The set of emotional rules or regulations has the potential to influence pedagogical processes, decisions about school organisation, and interactions in the classroom, as well as how the different participants in the educational process conceive how they should or should not experience, understand, and express their emotions (Zembylas, 2005a, 2005b). These become a constitutive element on which teachers and students articulate their identity, based on a discourse that is presented to them as emancipatory and that seeks to give education back its humanist character within a dehumanising context.

This way of operating at an emotional level had previously been examined by authors such as the Marxist-feminist sociologist Arlie Hochschild (1979, 2003), who made visible a form of worker exploitation some workers suffer as they manipulate emotional expressions to expose themselves emotionally in their work. The problem is not emotional exposure in itself, but rather the fact that it ends up being manipulated for corporatist and productive ends (Colley, 2006). The author uses as examples the work of flight attendants, debt collectors, and salespeople whose everyday work requires a close and public-facing demeanour. This involves an emotional discipline and ex-

being a fundamental aspect of their labour interactions. The author's main thesis maintains that the end product is the commodification and commercialisation of emotions with the subsequent emergence of a group of «emotionally exploited workers» who are predominantly female and suffer precarious conditions and high risks to their mental health. While it might be tempting to put teachers and educators into this category, this would be an over-simplification. There are studies that try to explain the negative consequences associated with this emotional exposure which manifest themselves as occupational stress or in the form of specific depression, technically defined as burnout (Lens and Neves de Jesus, 1999; Lasky, 2000; Troman, 2000) but there are also arguments that lead us to understand that educators' emotional involvement is vital for understanding educational work and the development of their identities (Lortie, 1975; Nias, 1989, 1996; Dinham and Scott, 1997; Hargreaves, 1998). For example, Hargreaves' research (2000) presents a series of teachers who very positively value close work with the student. The suffering that might be associated with this is partially accepted as it is regarded as an identifying element that is a characteristic of educational work (Zembylas, 2004). Emotional aspects cease to be exclusively private and become a cross-cutting element that allows flow from the private to the public and vice versa, to the point that their differences blur. The problem then is not the work or emotional exposure educational professionals might be exposed to, but the way in which emotionality and its

posure that in many cases is feigned, it



subjectivating potential are manipulated externally. In this way, EI discourse as a dominant emotional discourse is complicit in contributing to the promotion of subjects who can be adapted to a liberal, commercial, and competitive system on which educational and social life are based. Therefore, it is important to examine in-depth how education professionals, especially teachers, challenge and disturb the hegemony of this discourse.

4. Conclusion

Finally, we should note that the arguments presented in this article should not be seen as incompatible with the idea of the emotional realm playing an important role in the field of education. Quite the contrary. It is a call to action to ensure that a topic this complex and multifaceted is considered in a more exhaustive, thorough, and above all critical way. The educational domain of emotions already existed with more discretion before EI appeared (Dixon, 2012; Newberry, Gallant and Riley, 2013), although EI is what enables affective issues to be regarded as public and important in various areas such as work or education, without considering its contingency. Critical study of its negative implications is usually relegated to a secondary level, and so is excluded from the dominant narrative that then circulates in the field of education.

Based on the ideas presented above, one can infer that to overcome the problems associated with EI discourse, we must propose alternatives and ways of understanding emotionality that enable us to

recognise its social and political character. Based on these, it will be possible to reconsider how to approach emotional education and the different subjectivation processes associated with it. We cannot continue ignoring the fact that the emotional is affective, and that the affective contains elements of power (Deleuze, 2006). Consequently, and starting from this point, it is worth suggesting a way of understanding emotionality that not just aims to be compatible with the latest scientific trends associated with the brain sciences, but that in turn evaluates and examines the profoundly contradictory and power relationships through which emotional experiences and ways of being are determined and managed. In this way, emotional rules can become the product of a situated negotiation that makes it possible to question and appropriate new forms of emotional management. Although the ability to act will continue to be limited, educational initiatives will be able to move from consuming EI to deconstructing it and recovering the affective realm. It is vital to note the need to promote practices that emerge in specific settings (e.g. classroom, educational centre, educational level, etc.) and that concentrate on the particular features of these spaces (e.g. social, cultural, etc.) and their inhabitants (e.g. social educators, teachers, etc.). By exploring what is objective, universal, and scientific in EI discourse, it is possible to reach a point from which the main problem associated with this discourse can be discussed: the type of educator, teacher, student, citizen that it conceives and represses.

Therefore, a more critical and exhaustive focus when facing the postmodern use



of emotionality should show that there is an opportunity to theorise certain cultural elements that would unleash an exploration of the ideological, constitutive, and provocative potential of emotional aspects (Squire, 2001). The arguments emerging from this critical exercise could and should create educational practices that make it possible to equip students and educators with intellectual tools to help them understand emotional complexity. not just as cognitive or neurobiological processes that derive from axiomatic emotional practices and regulations, but also as a space open to multiple as yet undefined possibilities that can be approached from many perspectives. Similarly, we must stop suggesting that unhappiness and failure are caused by poor management of emotions. After more than 20 years of EI, it is worth asking how far it has contributed to introducing a humanist educational vision, or has it instead become something that participates in the dehumanising machinery on which other educational visions are built.

Notes

- ¹ The search term was the word *emotion* in English.
- ² Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ translates as Inteligencia Emocional: Por qué importa más que el coeficiente intelectual in Spanish, but it was published in the Spanish-speaking world as Inteligencia Emocional (Emotional intelligence), omitting the subtitle. This is the first of many works in which Goleman develops his thesis of emotional intelligence (e.g.: Goleman 1999, 2003, 2011).
- Both Buey (2002) and Bisquerra (2006) present clear explanations in their work of the concept of emotion and the different sources and elements that comprise the concept of El within the field of education.

- To understand some of the criticisms associated with constructivism in general, see Hacking (2001) and for a more specific analysis within the sphere of education, see Penalva (2008a, 2008b).
- Rose describes the *psy* disciplines as a group of disciplines or sciences (psychosciences: psychology, psychiatry, psy) that emerged at the end of the 19th century, making «visible and intelligible certain features of persons, their conducts and their relationships» (1998, p. 1). The *psy* disciplines assert their capacity to understand the inner world of people and explain how this shapes their conduct. All of this is through the creation of a body of knowledge and practices that create a specific relationship between power and subjectivity. Its appeal lies in its capacity to control, govern, discipline, and normalise through the ideas of happiness, liberty, and personal realisation-encounter.
- The most widely-used EI measurement tests are: ECI (Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee, 2000), MEIS/ MSCEIT (Mayer et al., 2003), and EQ-i (Bar-On, 1997, 2000). A detailed list of these tools can be found in Gowing (2001) while Conte (2005) provides a more technical discussion of their validity.
- The idea of emotional capital can be understood through the work of Reay (2004), who develops this concept from a feminist perspective, taking Bourdieu's ideas as a theoretical framework. Emotional capital is created through a form of work that generates devotion, generosity, and solidarity and is generally performed by women.

References

Ahmed, S. (2004). *The cultural politics of emotion*. London: Routledge.

Bar-On, R. (1997). Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Technical manual (EQ-i). Toronto: Multi-Health Systems.

Bar-On, R. (2000). Emotional and social intelligence: insights from the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i). In R. Bar-On and J. D. A. Parker (Eds.), Handbook of emotional intelligence (pp. 363-388). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.



- Bisquerra, R. (2006). *Educación emocional y bienestar*. Madrid: Woulters Kluwert.
- Boler, M. (1997). Disciplined emotions: philosophies of educated feelings. *Educational Theory*, 47 (2), 203-227.
- Boler, M. (1999). Feeling power: emotions and Education. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Boyatzis, R. E., Goleman, D. and Rhee, K. S. (2000).

 Clustering competence in emotional intelligence. In R. Bar-On and J. D. A. Parker (Eds.), The handbook of emotional intelligence: Theory, development, and assessment, and application at home, school, and in the workplace (pp. 343-362). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Burman, E. (2009). Beyond 'emotional literacy' in feminist and educational research. *British Educational Research Journal*, 35 (1), 137-155.
- Burman, E. and MacLure, M. (2005). Deconstruction as a method of research. In B. Somekh and C. Lewin (Eds.), *Research Methods in the Social Science* (pp. 284-293). London: Sage.
- Buey, M. L. (2002). Importancia de la inteligencia emocional: un nuevo reto para la orientación educativa. *Educación XX1*, 5, 77-96.
- Coll, C. (1996). Constructivismo y educación escolar: ni hablamos siempre de lo mismo ni lo hacemos siempre desde la misma perspectiva epistemológica. Anuario de Psicologia, 69, 153-178.
- Colley, H. (2006). Learning to labour with feeling: class, gender and emotion in childcare education and training. *Contemporary Issues in Early Childhood*, 7 (1), 15-29.
- Conte, J. M. (2005). A Review and Critique of Emotional Intelligence Measures. *Journal of* Organizational Behaviour, 26 (4), 433-440.
- Cornwell, S. and Bundy, J. (2009). The emotional curriculum: a journey towards emotional literacy. London: Sage.
- Damasio, A. (1996). Descartes' error: Emotion, reason and the human brain. London: Macmillan.

- Davies, W. (2015). The happiness industry: How the Government and Big Business Sold Us Well-Being. London: Verso.
- Deleuze, G. (2006). *Foucault*. Londres: Continuum.
- Denzin, K. N. (2007). *On understanding emotion*. New Jersey: Transaction Publisher.
- Dinham, S. and Scott, C. (1997). The teacher 2000 project: A study of teacher motivation and health. Perth: University of Western Sydney.
- Dixon, T. (2012). Educating the emotions from Gradgrind to Goleman. Research Papers in Education, 27 (4), 481-495.
- Edwards, R., Gillies, V. and Horsley, N. (2016). Early intervention and evidence-based policy and practice: framing and taming. *Social Policy and Society*, *15* (1), 1-10.
- Fernández-Berrocal, P. and Ruiz, D. (2008). La inteligencia emocional en la educación. Revista Electrónica de Investigación Psicoeducativa, 15 (6), 421-436.
- Ferrés, J. (1996). Televisión subliminal: Socialización mediante comunicaciones inadvertidas. Barcelona: Paidós.
- Foucault, M. (1990). The history of sexuality 1: An introduction. London: Penguin.
- Foucault, M. (1997). Arqueología del saber. Madrid: Siglo XXI.
- Game, A. and Metcalfe, A. (1996). *Passionate Sociology*. London: Sage.
- Gardner, H. (1993). Frames of mind. The theory of multiples intelligences. New York: Basic Books.
- Goleman, D. (1996). Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ. London: Bloomsbury.
- Goleman, D. (1999). La práctica de la inteligencia emocional. Barcelona: Kairós.
- Goleman, D. (2003). Emociones destructivas. Barcelona: Kairós.
- Goleman, D. (2011). Emotional Mastery. *Leadership Excellence*, 28 (6), 12-13.



new%20wine%20with%20Landv.htm. (Consul-

rrell, P. (2008). Primary social and emotional

aspects of learning: evaluation of small group

work. Research Report RR064. Nottingham:

DCSF Publications.

ted on January 27, 2017).

- Le-Doux, J. (1993). Emotional networks in the brain. In M. Lewis and J. M. Haviland Handbook of emotions (pp. 159-179). London: Guilford Press.
- Le-Doux, J. (1998). The emotional brain. London: Phoenix.
- Lens, W. and Neves de Jesus, S. (1999). A psychosocial interpretation of teachers Burn Out. In R. Vandenverghe and A. M. Huberman (Eds.), Understanding and preventing Burnout (pp. 192-201). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Organic Law to Improve Educational Quality 8/2013, as of December 9 (LOMCE, BOE, no. 295, 10 December 2013).
- Lortie, D. C. (1975). Schoolteacher: a sociological study. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Lyotard, J-F. (1984). The postmodern condition: a report on knowledge. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- MacIntyre, A. (1984). After Virtue. Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press.
- MacLure, M. (2003). Discourse in Educational and Social Research. Maidenhead: Open Universitv Press.
- Manrique Solana, R. (2015). La cuestión de la inteligencia emocional. Revista de la Asociación Española de Neuropsiquiatría, 35 (128), 801-814.

Gordo, A. J. and Burman, E. (2004). Emotional capital and information technologies in the changing rhetorics around children and childhoods: Emotional capital and information technologies. New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development, 105, 63-80.

A critical approach to Emotional Intelligence as a dominant discourse ...

- Gowing, M. K. (2001). Measurement of individual emotional competence. In C. Cherniss and D. Goleman (Eds.). The emotionally intelligent workplace: How to select for; measure, and improve emotional intelligence in individuals, groups, and organizations (pp. 83-131). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Greenspan, P. (2003). Emotions, Rationality, and Mind/Body. Royal Institute of Philosophy Supplement, 52, 113-125.
- Grosz, E. (2005). Time travels: feminism, nature, power. Durham: Duke University.
- Hacking, I. (2001). ¿La construcción social de qué? Barcelona: Paidós.
- Haraway, D. (1991). Simians, Cyborgs, and Women. New York: Routledge.
- Harding, S. (1986). The Science Question in Feminism. New York: Cornell University
- Hargreaves, A. (1998). The emotional practice of teaching. Teacher and Teaching education, 14 (8), 835-859.
- Hargreaves, A. (2000). Mixed emotions, teachers' perceptions of their interactions with students. Teaching and Teacher education, 16, 811-826.
- Hartley, D. (2003). The instrumentalisation of the expressive in Education. British Journal of Educational Studies, 51(1), 6-19.
- Hochschild, A. (1979). Emotion work, feeling rules, and social structure. American Journal of Sociology, 85, 551-575.
- Hochschild, A. (2003). The managed heart: Commercialization of human feeling. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Humphrey, N., Kalambouka, A., Bolton, J., Lendrum, A., Wigelsworth, M., Lennie, C. and Fa-

- Matthews, G., Zeidner, M. and Roberts, R. (2002). Emotional Intelligence: Science and Myth. Cambridge, MA and London: MIT Press.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D. R. and Sitarenios, G. (2003). Measuring emotional intelligence with the MSCEIT V2.0. *Emotion*, 3, 97-10.
- Mestrovicic, S. G. (1997). *Postemotional society*. London: Sage.
- Nias, J. (1989). Primary teachers talking: a study of teaching at work. London: Routledge.
- Nias, J. (1996). Thinking about feeling: The emotions in teaching. Cambridge Journal of Education, 26, 293-306.
- Park, J. (2003). Emotional literacy handbook: promoting whole-school strategies: antidote. London: David Fulton.
- Penalva, J. (2008a). Constructivismo y comprehensividad en la enseñanza superior: análisis crítico de los aspectos antropológicos, semánticos, epistemológicos y ontológicos. *Revista de la educación superior*, 37 (146), 155-169.
- Penalva, J. (2008b). Análisis filosófico de la construcción social de la escuela: claves críticas a partir de Ian Hacking. *Teoría de la Educación*, 20, 65-81.
- Penalva, J. (2009). Análisis crítico de los aspectos antropológicos y pedagógicos de la educación emocional. Revista Iberoamericana de Educación, 49, 247-265.
- Reay, D. (2004). Gendering Bourdieu's concepts of capitals? Emotional capital, women and social. *The sociological review*, 52 (2), 57-74.
- Reddy, W. M. (2001). The navigation of feeling: a framework for the history of emotions. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rosenthal, N. E. (2002). *The Emotional Revolution*. New York: Kensington Publisher.
- Rose, N. and Abi-Rachid, J. M. (2013). Neuro: the new Brain Science and the management of the mind. New Jersey: Princeton University Press.

- Rose, N. (1998). Inventing Ourselves: psychology, power and personhood. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Salovey, P. and Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional Intelligence. *Imagination*, cognition and personality, 9, 185-211.
- Schlaeger, J. and Stedman, G. (Ed.) (1999). Representation of emotions. Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.
- Squire, C. (2001). The Public Life of Emotions. International Journal of Critical Psychology, 1, 27-38.
- Troman, G. (2000). Teacher stress in the low-trust society. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 21, 331-353.
- Wigelsworth, M., Humphrey, N. and Lendrum. A. (2012). A national evaluation of the impact of the secondary social and emotional aspects of learning (SEAL) programme. *Educational Psychology*, 32 (2), 213-238.
- Yell, S. (2012). Natural disaster news and communities of feeling: The affective interpellation of local and global publics. *Social Semiotics*, 22 (4), 409-428.
- Zembylas, M. (2004). The emotional characteristics of teaching: An ethnographic study of one teacher. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20, 185-201.
- Zembylas, M. (2005a). Discursive practice, genealogies and emotional rules: a poststructuralist view of emotion and identity in teaching. *Teaching and teacher education*, 21, 935-948.
- Zembylas, M. (2005b). Teaching with emotion. A postmodern enactment. Greenwich: Information Age.
- Zembylas, M. (2006). Challenges and Possibilities in a Postmodern Culture of Emotions in Education. *Interchange*, 37 (3), 251-275.



Author's biography

David Menéndez Alvarez-Hevia is Senior Lecturer in Education Studies at the Metropolitan University of Manchester and since 2013 member of the Executive Committee of the British Education Studies Association (BESA). He studied his PhD with a fellowship from the Educational and Social Research Institute (ESRI) and has participated in different research projects related to the commercialization of higher education and emotional education.

Construct validation of a questionnaire to measure teachers' digital competence (TDC)

Validación de constructo de un instrumento para medir la competencia digital docente de los profesores (CDD)

Javier TOURÓN, PhD. Professor. Universidad Internacional de La Rioja (UNIR) (javier.touron@unir.net).

Deborah MARTÍN, PhD. Lecturer. Universidad Internacional de La Rioja (UNIR) (deborah.martin@unir.net).

Enrique NAVARRO ASENCIO, PhD. Assistant professor. Complutense University of Madrid (enriquenavarro.a@gmail.com).

Silvia PRADAS, PhD. Lecturer. Universidad Internacional de La Rioja (UNIR) (silvia.pradas@unir.net).

Victoria ÍÑIGO, PhD. Assistant professor. Universidad Internacional de La Rioja (UNIR) (victoria.inigo@unir.net).

Abstract:

Teachers' digital competencies have become an essential aspect of training teachers to promote learning in their students that moves away from the knowledge transfer model and moves towards a talent development model. This work validates an instrument developed by the authors to evaluate the digital competency of teachers, in accordance with the current framework established by INTEF. A sample of 426 teachers was used in the validation process. These were approached through an online process. The total reliability of the instrument, estimated using Cronbach's Alpha, is 0.98. The reliability for the dimensions on the «Knowledge» scale varies from 0.89 to 0.94 and for the «Use» scale from 0.87 to 0.92. The construct validity has been modified from an initial model with 5 factors to another with 4 factors and 4 sub-factors. The factor loads of the items with the dimension to which they belong are mainly above 0.5 and in many cases above 0.70. On the «Knowledge» scale there is only 1 weight that does not reach this value. The overall fit results for both scales show optimum results, with values lower than 3 for the normalised chi-squared index, values below 0.06 in RMSEA, and values of 0.9 in IFI and CFI. Data is also provided regarding convergent and discriminant validity that is significant and acceptable. The construct reliability for the convergent validity in all cases approaches 0.90. As for the discriminant validity, the proposed model is better than the alternatives, with small variations in the «Use» scale that will be the object of future analyses. This instrument will make it possible to evaluate teachers' competencies and help with the planning of personalised training pathways depending on their results.

Keywords: teachers' digital competence, construct validity, convergent validity, discriminant validity, online questionnaires.

Revision accepted: 2017-09-21.

This is the English version of an article originally printed in Spanish in issue 269 of the **revista española de pedagogía**. For this reason, the abbreviation EV has been added to the page numbers. Please, cite this article as follows: Tourón, J., Martín, D., Navarro, E., Pradas, S., & Íñigo, V. (2018). Validación de constructo de un instrumento para medir la competencia digital docente de los profesores (CDD) | Construct validation of a questionnaire to measure teachers' digital competence (TDC). Revista Española de Pedagogía, 76 (269), 25-54. doi: 10.22550/REP76-1-2018-02



Resumen:

La competencia digital docente se ha convertido en un aspecto esencial en la formación de los profesores que deben promover un aprendizaje en sus alumnos que se aleja del modelo de transmisión del conocimiento para acercarse a otro de desarrollo del talento. En este trabajo se valida un instrumento desarrollado por los autores para valorar la competencia digital de los docentes, de acuerdo con el marco actual establecido por el INTEF. Para el proceso de validación se utiliza una muestra de 426 profesores a los que se accede por un procedimiento online. La fiabilidad total del instrumento, estimada con el Alpha de Cronbach es de 0.98. La fiabilidad para las dimensiones de la escala de conocimiento varía entre 0.89 y 0.94 y para la escala de uso entre 0.87 y 0.92. En cuanto a la validez de constructo se ha pasado de un modelo inicial con 5 factores a otro con 4 factores v 4 subfactores. Las cargas factoriales de los ítems con la dimensión a la que pertenecen están en su mayoría por encima de 0.5 y en muchos

casos de 0,70. En la escala de conocimiento sólo hay 1 peso que no alcanza ese valor. Los resultados de ajuste global para ambas escalas muestran resultados óptimos, con unos valores inferiores a 3 para el índice de chi-cuadrado normalizado, valores por debaio de 0.06 en RMSEA v de 0.9 en IFI v CFI. Se ofrecen evidencias también respecto a la validez convergente y discriminante, que resultan significativas y aceptables. La fiabilidad del constructo para la validez convergente se aproxima en todos los casos a 0.90. En cuanto a la validez discriminante el modelo propuesto es mejor que sus alternativos, con ligeras variaciones en la escala de uso que serán objeto de futuros análisis. Este instrumento permitirá valorar las competencias de los profesores y ayudar en la planificación de itinerarios de formación personalizados en función de los resultados.

Descriptores: competencia digital docente, validación de constructo, validez convergente, validez discriminante, cuestionarios online.

1. Introduction

The European Commission in its *Education and Training Monitor* (2016) report emphasised the educational priorities that must be invested in to improve the quality and relevance of educational systems and develop the competencies needed in contemporary society. One of the basic pillars it establishes is the development of the teaching profession, and it is forceful when explaining the role teachers and educational leaders must take on with regards to the impact teachers' professional development must have on improving pedagogical practices.

The Education and Training 2020 Strategic Framework (ET2020) also refers to the development of educational systems and the competencies students must acquire, although it particularly focuses on the ones teachers must integrate into their educational practice to provide quality education, proposing open and innovative education and training fully integrated into the digital era as a locus for priority action.

Teaching competencies could be defined as the set of knowledge, personal traits, attitudes, and skills that make it



possible to perform educational actions, generally recognisably pragmatic in nature, relating to achievement in the field of education (Álvarez Rojo, 2010). In other words, we speak of competencies if there is performance, knowledge, and actions; these competencies are not constructed solely in the methodological sphere, but rather in the transformations that link curricular and methodological elements, more specifically, in the technical-didactic adaptation that is carried out to attain the objectives students must achieve in their learning (Cardona, 2008).

The learning needs of current students require other forms of teaching, and so teaching competencies will be shaped by the styles and needs of the students, who must learn to live and function in a society that produces vast quantities of information (Cardona, 2008). They must satisfy the needs of students as future active citizens of a globalised, digitised, intercultural and changing society that demands education that, to be promoted effectively, requires interaction between pedagogy (how it is taught), substantive knowledge of what is being taught, and technology (the tools used), as is proposed by the TPACK (Technology, Pedagogy, and Content Knowledge) model for the teacher of today (Koehler, Mishra, and Cain, 2013; Tourón, 2016). Each of these three components must be interconnected to produce improvements in students' learning outcomes, and although defining these teaching skills in general can be difficult, both in knowledge and in skills or experiences, in this study we focus on teachers' digital competency, defining it and, more specifically, evaluating it.

The European Commission (2006) identifies this as a key competence which it defines thus:

Digital competence involves the confident and critical use of Information Society Technology (IST) for work, leisure and communication. It is underpinned by basic skills in ICT: the use of computers to retrieve, assess, store, produce, present and exchange information, and to communicate and participate in collaborative networks via the Internet (European Parliament and the Council, 2006, see annexe).

The subsequent DIGCOMP (*Digital Competence*) report identifies this as a transverse competency that enables us to acquire other competencies, and is related to many of the skills of the twenty-first century that all citizens must acquire to ensure we can participate actively in society and the economy (Ferrari, 2013).

Educational research in recent decades (Cope and Ward, 2002; Windschitl and Salh, 2002; Solmon and Wiederhorn, 2000; UNESCO, 2002) has had the objective of analysing how the use of digital tools affects teaching and learning situations, with the objective of designing proposals to improve its implementation in curriculum design. Some of it focuses on teachers' attitudes and perception of the use of technology in their teaching practice, in didactic decisions regarding the selection and use of digital tools, and even on the training needs and demands of teaching staff for integrating technology into the teaching-learning process adequately (Davis, Preston, and Sahin 2009; UNESCO 2002). Field research



performed in schools and classrooms has shown that the teacher has a significant role (Sangrà and González-Sanmamed, 2010) but given developments in technology, and in particular its inclusion in the classroom, new studies have been carried out on the impact and the effects of its use in education (Cuban, 2001; UN-ESCO, 2003; OECD, 2003; EURYDICE 2001; Tondeur, Valcke, and Van Braak. 2008; Davis, 2009). Technology can provide immediate access to information. systematically record actions on students' progress to create new pathways. allow collaboration between classmates inside and outside school, generate new knowledge and resources, provide feedback for teachers to improve their educational practice, etc. Therefore, teacher training must focus not only on the use of technology in itself, but also on how it can support collaboration and effective interaction between the different factors in the teaching-learning process (Fullan and Donelly, 2013).

Teachers' digital competence has been linked with knowledge of the environment in which students live, and to using technology to encourage their learning and development of competencies. Accordingly, it can be defined as the group of capacities and skills that lead us to incorporate—and appropriately use—information and communication technology (ICT) as a methodological resource integrated in the teaching-learning process, thus becoming learning and knowledge technologies with a clear didactic application.

To increase teachers' awareness of the need to improve their digital competencies, states are making a considerable effort to disseminate emerging good practices by organising discussion sessions and creating informative websites. Many schools hold meetings and sessions outside teaching hours where teachers can train with the support of a colleague, the technology coordinator, or even with courses organised by institutions dedicated to teacher training (UNESCO, 2002). In these cases, evaluating competencies becomes the central element in establishing a digital training plan that meets the needs of teachers.

UNESCO Under the framework (2002) where nine IT-literacy units were described and justified on the professional development programme for teachers, subsequent programmes appeared, such as DIGCOMP and its revisions, until, in the case of Spain, the Marco de Competencia Digital (Digital competences framework, INTEF, 2003) appeared, followed by the current one (INTEF, 2017). This last framework, revised in September 2017, is used as a reference tool to identify the areas and levels to consider, both in teacher evaluation, and in the different training plans for its optimum development. The framework's rationale starts from the need to establish benchmarks towards which teachers should work.

Those people who are responsible for teaching the students of the new millennium must be capable of guiding them on their educational journey through the new media. Teachers need a clear political message in this regard. This public recognition will in turn require special attention in the systems for training teachers and recognising their professional development (INTEF, 2017, p. 2).



What, therefore, is expected of digitally competent teachers? What knowledge, skills, and expertise should be developed? What should they use? The Common Framework (INTEF, 2017, p. 9) describes

five dimensions, and although each one is specific, they are not self-contained or exclusive, and so they can be interrelated. These dimensions are defined thus (INTEF, 2017, p. 10):

GRAPH 1. Dimensions and associated competencies. Adapted from INTEF 2017.

2017 Common Framework	Competencies
IT Information and Literacy	 Browsing, searching, and filtering digital information, data, and content. Evaluating digital information, data, and content. Storing and recovering digital information, data, and content.
Communication and Collaboration	 Interacting through digital technologies. Sharing information and content. Citizen participation "online". Collaboration through digital channels. Netiquette. Managing digital identity.
Creating digital Content	 Developing digital content. Integrating and reworking digital content. Copyright and licences. Programming.
Security	 Protecting devices and digital content. Protecting personal data and digital identity. Protecting health and welfare. Protecting your surroundings.
Troubleshooting	 Solving technical problems. Identifying technological needs and responses. Innovation and creative use of digital technologies. Identifying gaps in digital competencies.

Source: Own elaboration.



- 1. IT information and literacy information: identifying, finding, retrieving, storing, organising, and analysing digital data, evaluating its purpose and relevance.
- 2. Communicating and collaborating: communicating in digital settings, sharing resources through online tools, connecting and collaborating with others through digital tools, interacting and participating in communities and networks; intercultural awareness.
- 3. Creating digital content: creating and editing new content (text, images, videos, etc.), integrating and reworking prior knowledge and content, making artistic productions, multimedia content, and computer programming, knowing how to apply intellectual property rights and user licences.
- 4. Security: personal protection, data protection, digital identity protection, using security, secure and sustainable use.
- 5. Troubleshooting: identifying digital needs and resources, taking decisions when choosing the appropriate digital tool depending on the purpose or need, solving conceptual problems through digital media, solving technical problems, using technology creatively, updating one's own competencies and those of others.

Dimensions 1, 2, and 3 are presented as linear, with specific purposes, while dimensions 4 and 5 are transversal, in other words they apply to any type of activity, the last dimension (number 5, «Trouble-shooting») is the «transversal [dimension] par excellence» (INTEF, 2017). These are

all shown in Graph 1 along with their associated indicators.

Taking this framework as a basis, we prepared the questionnaire that is validated here in accordance with the proposed classification. It comprises 54 items that measure the five dimensions on two scales that evaluate teachers' knowledge and use of these competencies in their school and classroom. The answers as a group have the purpose of evaluating teachers' digital competencies. And, therefore, the general objective is to analyse the quality of the constructed instrument, on the one hand evaluating its reliability and, on the other, confirming the validity of the proposed theoretical construct.

2. Method

A validation study was performed for the «Teachers' Digital Competencies Questionnaire» (TDC) instrument through an analysis of its reliability and construct validity, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Cronbach's Alpha measure of internal consistency was used to test the reliability of the tool. This test is the most widely used as it only requires one application of the questionnaire and it assumes that if the questionnaire is intended to measure a particular trait, all the items that comprise it should have this aim. To validate the structure of the theoretical dimensions the test measures, the confirmatory factor analysis technique (CFA) was used, estimating a measurement model comprising observed variables (items) and latent factors (dimensions).



2.1. Sample

This validation study does not require a strict or necessarily random sampling procedure. It does, however, require a sample with wide variance so that if there are relationships between the variables, these are not attenuated by a reduction in the size of the sample. The questionnaire was implemented through an online process using the *formsite28* commercial platform. Teachers from all educational levels were invited through social networks and institutions for training teachers who

perform online activities (INTEF [National Institute of Educational Technologies and Teacher Training], CRIF [Regional Innovation and Training Centre]). The data collection tool was available to interested respondents for approximately two months. The result and composition of the resulting sample by gender, age, and experience of participants is shown in Tables 1 and 2. Other data about the composition of the sample that was available does not appear to be relevant to the results of this study.

Table 1. Composition of the sample by gender.

Gender	N	%
Female	276	64.8
Male	150	35.2
Total	426	100.0

Source: Own elaboration.

Table 2. Composition of the sample by participants' age and experience in years.

Age	N	%	Experience	N	%
21<30	42	9.9	1-5	72	16.9
31<40	124	29.1	6-10	90	21.1
41<50	151	35.4	11-15	92	21.6
51<60	99	23.2	16-20	74	17.4
61<70	10	2.3	>20	98	23.0
Total	426	100.0	Total	426	100.0

Source: Own elaboration.

2.2. Instrument

The instrument, the first validation of which was performed in this piece of work, comprises five dimensions that reflect the digital competencies framework proposed by INTEF in January 2017,



the structure of which in dimensions and associated competencies is shown in Graph 1.

It includes fifty-four items distributed over the five dimensions identified. Various sources and the opinions of experts were taken into account when preparing it, in an attempt to saturate each dimension with the smallest possible number of items for reasons of practicality. Each item is answered twice using a seven-point Likert-type scale to indicate the level of «Knowledge» and «Use» of the aspect to which each item refers. For example, the content of item 3 refers to: «Specific channels for selecting teaching videos»; teachers who respond to this item must state their level of knowledge of these channels and must also indicate how much they use this knowledge. It could be said that we are validating two questionnaires: one concerning knowledge of the various elements that comprise teachers' digital competencies and another on their use. The relationship between these two dimensions is analysed below.

To encourage interviewees to focus on the content of each item, and not allow their answers to be influenced by answers to previous items with the same or similar content, the order of presentation of the items was randomised.

2.3. Procedure

rep

Firstly, a reliability study for all of the knowledge and use scales was performed with Cronbach's Alpha index of internal consistency. This was also calculated separately for each of the five dimensions. This way of studying reliability is the most common and involves correlating the answers to the different items to ensure that they are equivalent and measure in the same direction. The index ranges from 0 to 1. Values above 0.8 are considered to be optimal and a reliability of 0.9 is very good as Nunnally and Bernstein suggest (1994). On this point, the homogeneity of the items from each dimension was also analysed using the item-total correlation and the same authors establish values of 0.3 or higher as indicating a good result.

Secondly, the construct validity was verified using the confirmatory factor analysis technique, specifically by estimating a measurement model for checking the fit of the 54 items in the five theoretical dimensions defined. The knowledge and use scales were analysed separately. This procedure involves determining whether the relationships established between items and factors, defined in the theoretical model, fit the empirical reality that the respondents' answers provide. The different models were defined and estimated using the AMOS 23 software, following a series of steps described helow.

a) Imputation of missing cases: Catell (1978) recommends having between 3 and 6 subjects per item included in the analysis, but when the answers omitted exceed 10% of the cases in the sample, a process for estimating the values is recommended (Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson, 2014). In this case, on the «Knowledge» scale, approximately 43% of the teachers did not answer one or more items.

and 42% on the «Use» scale, therefore, it is necessary to impute these values. Owing to the ordinal nature of the observed variables, these cases have been replaced with the median for each item.

- b) Verifying the assumption of multivariate normality: if this requirement is not met, this could affect the fit results. To test it, the multivariate kurtosis index was used with its critical ratio. Values greater than 5 show this lack of multivariate normality (Bentler, 2005). As is explained in the results, it is not possible to assume this case from this data.
- c) Estimation of the model through maximum likelihood using re-sampling (bootstrapping). The lack of normality of the data requires an appropriate method for estimating the parameters of the data and this procedure is a good solution (Byrne, 2009). This estimation method extracts subsamples from the original data and estimates the parameters a particular number of times (500 in this case). The final result is not a single value but a complete distribution with mean and variance.
- d) Estimating the defined model, the null model, and the saturated model. The first of these reflects the structure of items and dimensions proposed in the work, the second assumes that there is no relationship between the items and, therefore, is considered the worst possible result, and finally, the saturated model is the opposite of the null model and assumes that all possible parameters are significantly distinct from zero; this is a perfect fit model that, therefore,

- fully reflects all of the information from the data (Gaviria, Biencito and Navarro, 2009).
- e) Checking the fit of the models. Absolute fit indices are used that analyse how the specified model fits the observed data, in other words, whether the underlying theory fits the data from the sample. Firstly, the chisquared value divided by the degrees of freedom of the model (CMIN/df), where values below 2 are considered very good and values from 3 to 5 are acceptable (Hair et al., 2014). Another index is the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) that attempts to verify the fit between the proposed model and hypothetical population data. In this case, values below 0.05 are considered to be very good and between 0.05 and 0.08 acceptable (Byrne, 2009). Incremental fit indices such as the IFI and CFI are also used. These compare the defined model with the null model, and values greater than 0.9 are considered optimal (Hair et al., 2014); finally, statistics are included that evaluate the complexity of the model, such as PRatio (values above 0.9), and the appropriateness of the sample size, such as Hoelter (above 200).
- f) Finally, the standardised residuals and the modification index are studied to try to improve the defined model.

As an additional analysis to validate the construct, the convergent and discriminant validity of the proposed model are also considered. The former analyses the variance that the items that comprise a



dimension have in common. To do so, the factor loads are analysed (standardised latent regression coefficients). These must exceed values of 0.5. The reliability of the construct which is estimated is also calculated based on the factor loads and the error variance for each of the estimated dimensions: values above 0.7 indicate a good convergent validity. The second type of validity -discriminant- analyses whether one dimension is really different from the other. This is tested based on the comparison of different models with the defined one. These alternative models are defined starting from all possible combinations among the five dimensions, from a model with a single dimension, up to the combination of two factors or groups of three or four. Once estimated, the chisquared test is used to analyse whether they differ significantly from the starting model.

3. Results

The results for the reliability of the scale and the homogeneity of the items are presented first, then the results referring to construct validity are described, including analyses of convergent and discriminant validity.

3.1. Reliability and homogeneity

The reliability results given by Cronbach's Alpha easily fulfil the criterion proposed by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), both for the five dimensions and for the total of the knowledge and use scales. In all cases (Table 3), the values exceed the optimal standard of 0.8. The reliability indices obtained vary between 0.89 and 0.98 on the «Knowledge» scale and between 0.87 and 0.98 on the «Use» scale. Therefore, the internal consistency of the scales and the dimensions that comprise them can be confirmed.

Table 3. Reliability indices (Cronbach's Alpha) of the dimensions of the knowledge and use scales.

Dimension	Knowledge scale	Use scale
Information and communication	0.906	0.874
Communication and collaboration	0.892	0.877
Digital creation	0.944	0.930
Security	0.908	0.884
Troubleshooting	0.942	0.925
Scale total	0.984	0.979

Source: Own elaboration.



If we focus on the homogeneity indices of the items that comprise part of the 5 dimensions, it is apparent that in all

cases they are greater than 0.3 (Table 4). On the «Knowledge» scale the item-total correlation values vary from 0.48 for I3

revista española de pedagogía year LXXVI, n. 269, January-April 2018, 25-54

of the Communication and Collaboration dimension, up to values above 0.8 for I31 and I42 of the Troubleshooting dimension.

On the «Use» scale, the results are slightly lower, nonetheless, they are still located within the acceptable margins.

Table 4. Homogeneity indices of the items for each dimension of teachers' digital competence on the knowledge and use scales.

		Knowledge scale	Use scale
Dimension	Items	Corrected item-total correlation	
	I1	0.700	0.581
	I24	0.744	0.707
	I18	0.644	0.582
Information	I20	0.741	0.665
and communication	I44	0.748	0.708
	I11	0.69	0.621
	I36	0.621	0.522
	16	0.755	0.673
	I10	0.731	0.630
	I3	0.480	0.545
	I8	0.491	0.388
	I54	0.746	0.682
Communication and collaboration	I17	0.651	0.595
	I33	0.726	0.692
	I35	0.699	0.665
	I15	0.736	0.685
	I23	0.669	0.700
	I37	0.755	0.703
	I47	0.749	0.714
Digital creation	I16	0.684	0.644
	I50	0.781	0.72
	I30	0.746	0.649
	I28	0.684	0.669
	I12	0.705	0.663
	I51	0.720	0.705



	25.
	2018,
gía	April
pedagog	January-/
de	269, Ja
española	l, n. 2
sta esp	XX
evis	/ear

		Knowledge scale	Use scale
Dimension	Items	Corrected item-to	tal correlation
	I19	0.646	0.561
	17	0.511	0.405
	I2	0.623	0.587
Digital creation	I52	0.755	0.674
Digital creation	I49	0.759	0.728
	I34	0.776	0.74
	I38	0.636	0.573
	I22	0.696	0.703
	I29	0.711	0.641
	I39	0.753	0.718
	I5	0.695	0.615
	I27	0.718	0.695
Security	I43	0.716	0.684
	I53	0.682	0.623
	I32	0.728	0.696
	I13	0.510	0.451
	I46	0.684	0.593
Through look options	I26	0.682	0.635
Troubleshooting	I9	0.735	0.684
	I41	0.728	0.62
	I4	0.651	0.547
Troubleshooting	I45	0.745	0.721
	I14	0.603	0.513
	I48	0.693	0.67
	I42	0.820	0.786
	I25	0.751	0.674
Troubleshooting	I40	0.793	0.785
	I31	0.844	0.786
	I21	0.776	0.768

revista espanoia de pedagogi year LXXVI, n. 269, January-April 2018, 25-5

As can be seen in Table 5, most of the items have homogeneity indices above 0.7, on both scales in over 50% of cases. And there are only 2 and 3 items on the

«Knowledge» and «Use» scales respectively with a homogeneity lower than 0.5, but without it falling below the recommended value of 0.3.

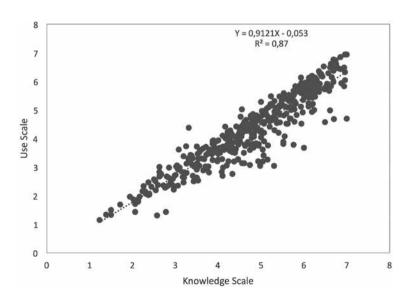
TABLE 5. Homogeneity indices for the items for the knowledge and use scales by ranges indicated.

Scale	Know	ledge	Use		
Homogeneity intervals	N	%	N	%	
< 0.50	2	3.7	3	5.6	
0.51 - 0.69	21	38.9	23	42.6	
> 0.70	31	57.4	28	51.8	

Source: Own elaboration.

Finally, to analyse the relationship between the answers on the Knowledge and Use scales, a scatter plot was prepared showing the total scores for the teachers from the sample (Graph 2).

Graph 2. Relationship between the total «Knowledge» and «Use» scales of teachers' digital competencies.



Source: Own elaboration.



In Graph 2 the positive relationship between both scales can be seen. These share 87% of their variance. Teachers who report greater knowledge of digital competencies also report greater use. Although it can also be seen that this is not always the case and greater knowledge does not imply more use; these cases are represented by the points located below the regression line.

This structure of items and dimensions observed in the homogeneity analysis is the proposed model we are trying to validate through confirmatory factor analysis. The results obtained are described below.

3.2. Construct validity

The proposed model for validation comprises 54 observed variables (items) that are also considered to be endogenous

(dependent) and their associated errors, 5 latent dimensions (Information and Communication, Communication and Collaboration, Digital Creation, Security, and Troubleshooting) that are also regarded as exogenous (independent). The model allows for correlation between the 5 factors (a total of 10 correlations). To identify the model, the variances of the dimensions are set at 1 and a total of 118 parameters are estimated (54 regression weights, 54 error variances, and 10 correlations). The process is the same for both scales (Knowledge and Use).

The multivariate normality analysis determines that the data does not fulfil this assumption (critical ratio values associated with kurtosis above 5) and, consequently, the normal estimation of maximum likelihood procedure might alter the fit indices. Consequently, a bootstrap estimation process was used.

Table 6. Multivariate normality indices of the scales.

Scale	Kurtosis	Critical ratio		
Knowledge	691.029	91.699		
Use	478.157	63.451		

Source: Own elaboration.

Once the models were estimated, as a summary, Graphs 3 and 4 show the values for the estimated parameters in the Knowledge and Use scales respectively. The regression weights and the error variances and correlations are statistically significant. And, as can be seen in the figures, these standardised regression weights or factor loads of the items with

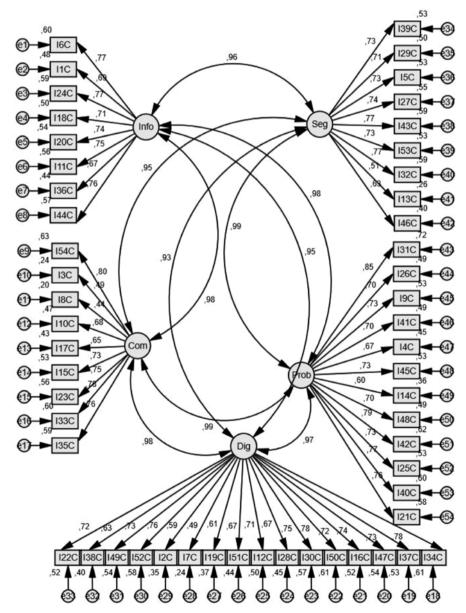
the dimension are mostly above 0.5. In the case of the Knowledge scale there are only 3 weights that do not reach this value, I3 and I8 on the Communication and Collaboration dimension and I7 on the Digital Creation dimension. On the Use scale they are I8 and I7, along with I32 from the Security Dimension.



revista española de pedagogía year LXXVI, n. 269, January-April 2018, 25·54

The data also shows high correlations between dimensions, something that could suggest a model with a single overall dimension or combining some of the dimensions. And, as study of the modification indices (MI) has shown, a fit of the factorial structure is pertinent.

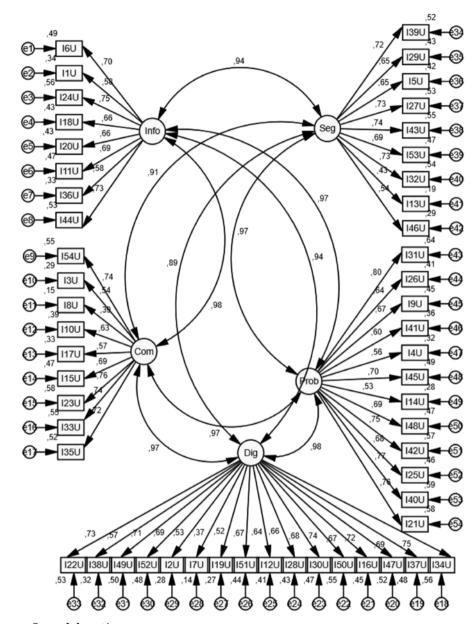
Graph 3. Model of the standardised estimated «Knowledge» scale parameters.



Source: Own elaboration.



Graph 4. Model of the standardised estimated «Use» scale parameters.





The overall fit results for both scales show acceptable results, with values close to 3 for the normalised chi-squared index and values below 0.08 in RMSEA, as shown in Table 7. In the case of the root

mean square error of approximation, the confidence intervals are also below the cut-off point established for accepting the model. And, as can be seen, the results of the defined model obtain better indices

of fit than the null model. Nonetheless, the incremental fit indices (IFI and CFI) and index of suitability of the sample size (Hoelter) do not indicate such a good fit of the model, with values below 0.9 and 200 respectively (see Table 7).

Table 7. Overall and incremental fit indices, parsimony and sample suitability.

	Kn	owledge so	ale	Use scale			
	Null	Initial	Final	Null	Initial	Final	
CMIN/DF	13.261	3.390	2.259	11.204	3.203	2.201	
RMSEA	.170	.075	.054	.155	.072	.053	
RMSEA LO 90	.168	.073	.052	.153	.70	.051	
RMSEA HI 90	.172	.077	.057	.157	.074	.056	
IFI	0	.814	.907	0	.795	.892	
CFI	0	.814	.906	0	.794	.892	
PRatio	1	.955	.916	1	.955	.922	
Hoelter .05	35	134	201	41	142	206	
Hoelter .01	35	137	20	42	145	212	

Source: Own elaboration.

Consequently, the modification indices (MI) were analysed, finding covariances between the estimation errors of some items and also reciprocal causation between them, something that could indicate the existence of sub-dimensions within the general factors or from combining some of these dimensions. As a result of this analysis and of the study of the residual covariance matrix and the theoretical starting referent, the decision was taken to modify the starting model by adding a sub-dimension of Cloud Storage (I4, I5, and I11) linked to the Information and Communication factor; two sub-dimensions associated with the Digital Creation factor, one relating to Projects in the School (I3, I7, I8, I9, and I45) and another with Evaluation (I25, I37, and I25); also

the Security and Troubleshooting factors were combined, with this new factor being added to the Maintenance sub-dimension (I26, I27, I29, I36, I38, and I41).

In this reorganisation, 8 items change factor: I3 and I8 move from the Communication and Collaboration factor to the Projects in the School sub-dimension of the Digital Creation factor. Item I9, which was part of the Information and Communication factor, also moves into this sub-dimension. Item 25 which was in the Troubleshooting factor becomes part of the Evaluation sub-dimension within the Digital Creation factor. I36, which formed part of the Information and Communication factor, moves to the Maintenance sub-dimension of the new Troubleshooting



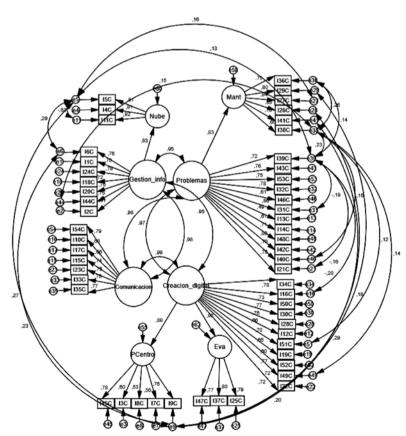
factor. Items I4 and I5 from the Trouble-shooting and Security factors respectively move to the sub-dimension of Cloud Storage from the Information and Communication factor. And, finally, I2 moves from the Digital Creation factor to the Information and Communication factor.

This analysis of the MI also showed the relationship between the residuals of four items (I5, I9, I38, and I39) and a group of items from other dimensions. It appears that these questions are transversally related to the others and so correlations

between these errors are included in the new model.

The difference between the factorial structures of the «Knowledge» and «Use» scales is located in I5, which, although it belongs to the same general dimension of Information and Communication, is not located in the new Cloud Storage sub-dimension. The correlations between the errors for I41 and I9, I29 and I9, I11 and I5, I39 and I5, I39 and I36, and I39 and I21 were not significant in the «Use» scale and were, therefore, rejected in the final model (see Graphs 5 and 6).

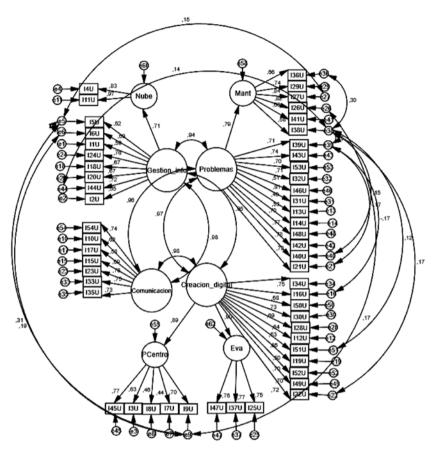
Graph 5. Final model of the standardised estimated «Knowledge» scale parameters.





Source: Own elaboration.

 $\begin{array}{c} G\textsc{Raph}\ 6.\ Final\ model\ of\ the\ standardised\\ estimated\ \text{``Use''}\ scale\ parameters. \end{array}$



Summaries of the modification indices used for performing the re-specification of

the factor structure are included (Tables 8 and 9).

Table 8. Modification indices of the covariances between errors of the items from the sub-dimensions.

				Kno	owledge		Use
Sub-Dimension	Covariance		M.I.	Par Change	M.I.	Par Change	
	e11	<>	e4	137.995	0.627	201.487	1.359
Cloud Storage	e5	<>	e4	50.601	0.44		
	e11	<>	e5	21.739	0.264		



de ped	269, Janu
española d	VI, n.
revista e	year LXXV

			Kno	wledge	Use		
Sub-Dimension	Sub-Dimension Covariance		M.I.	Par Change	M.I.	Par Change	
	e27	<>	e26	130.666	0.957	115.764	1.185
	e29	<>	e26	78.315	0.825	51.427	0.861
	e36	<>	e38	66.572	0.872	69.63	0.964
	e36	<>	e27	48.11	0.589	41.608	0.64
	e36	<>	e26	44.98	0.627	32.896	0.652
	e29	<>	e27	36.381	0.511	43.546	0.69
	e26	<>	e41	30.948	0.459	30.799	0.632
Maintenance	e29	<>	e41	29.919	0.457	32.196	0.615
	e38	<>	e41	23.93	0.462	12.145	0.403
	e27	<>	e41	22.987	0.36	14.192	0.374
	e36	<>	e41	22.641	0.398	12.321	0.36
	e38	<>	e26	17.592	0.442	18.44	0.551
	e36	<>	e29	17.881	0.4	4.003	0.216
	e38	<>	e29	6.752	0.277		
	e38	<>	e27	10.847	0.315	6.075	0.276
	e3	<>	e8	38.371	0.713	14.198	0.52
	e9	<>	e45			28.802	0.58
	e3	<>	e45	21.002	0.451	21.338	0.155
	e7	<>	e45	4.328	0.064	6.058	0.124
Projects in School	e3	<>	e7	12.249	0.475	11.718	0.531
	e3	<>	e9	20.218	0.42	8.968	0.331
	e8	<>	e7	14.701	0.476	4.499	0.273
	e8	<>	e9	27.341	0.447	16.799	0.471
	e8	<>	e45	4.133	0.183	5.356	0.26
Evaluation	e37	<>	e25	40.223	0.471	34.904	0.578
Lvaiuation	e37	<>	e47	18.123	0.358	18.168	0.418
	e36	<>	e29	17.881	0.4	4.003	0.216
	e36	<>	e38	66.572	0.872	69.63	0.964
Sub-dimension	e36	<>	e26	44.98	0.627	32.896	0.652
Maintenance	e36	<>	e27	48.11	0.589	41.608	0.64
	e36	<>	e41	22.641	0.398	12.321	0.36
	e29	<>	e26	78.315	0.825	51.427	0.861

year L)	
XXVI, n.	
year LXXVI, n. 269, Januar	revista
ン	español
/-April 2018, 25-54	iñola de pec
, 25-54	edagogia

			Kno	owledge	Use		
Sub-Dimension	Co	variaı	nce	M.I.	Par Change	M.I.	Par Change
	e29	<>	e41	29.919	0.457	32.196	0.615
	e29	<>	e27	36.381	0.511	43.546	0.69
	e38	<>	e29	6.752	0.277		
	e27	<>	e26	130.666	0.957	115.764	1.185
Sub-dimension Maintenance	e38	<>	e27	10.847	0.315	6.075	0.276
	e27	<>	e41	22.987	0.36	14.192	0.374
	e38	<>	e26	17.592	0.442	18.44	0.551
	e26	<>	e41	30.948	0.459	19.348	0.19
	e38	<>	e41	23.93	0.462	12.145	0.403

Table 9. Modification indices of the covariances between errors for transversal items.

			Kn	owledge	Use		
Covariance		ce	MI Par Change		MI	Par Change	
e41	<>	e9	4.047	0.136			
e26	<>	e9	14.234	0.248	14.015	0.336	
e29	<>	e9	6.423	0.187			
e5	<>	e9	18.4	0.289	38.633	0.597	
e6	<>	e9	17.023	0.28	11.151	0.311	
e6	<>	e5	23.584	0.313	21.649	0.435	
e11	<>	e5	13.509	-0.169			
e27	<>	e5	12.728	0.215	10.736	0.274	
e39	<>	e5	10.288	0.241			
e36	<>	e38	27.316	0.473	41.393	0.672	
e44	<>	e38	12.658	0.326	8.566	0.296	
e49	<>	e38	9.192	0.328	5.926	0.261	
e51	<>	e38	9.806	0.337	6.085	0.271	
e40	<>	e38	7.951	0.241	4.29	0.198	
e39	<>	e38	25.902	0.503	7.296	0.297	
e39	<>	e16	18.356	-0.243	13.809	-0.281	

			Kn	owledge		Use
Co	Covariance		MI Par Change		MI	Par Change
e39	<>	e36	6.589	0.209		
e39	<>	e31	12.473	-0.218		
e39	<>	e21	14.714	-0.277	11.743	-0.287

To complete the construct validity study, the convergent and discriminant validity results are presented. In the case of convergent validity, as noted above, this is the analysis of the parameters of the model. Most of the factor loads are above the acceptable value of 0.5 (except I13 in «Knowledge» and I8, I7, and I13 in «Use») and many exceed the optimum value of 0.7. However, another indicator of this type of validity is the construct reliability calculated based on these regression weights and, as is shown in Table 10, in all cases it approaches values of 0.9.

Table 10. Construct reliability for convergent validity.

	Knowled	lge scale	Use scale				
Dimension	Construct reliability						
	Initial	Final	Initial	Final			
Managing Information	0.903	0.906	0.866	0.877			
Communication and Collaboration	0.887	0.891	0.867	0.867			
Digital Creation	0.937	0.941	0.921	0.929			
Troubleshooting	0.932	0.938	0.912	0.922			
Security	0.900		0.873				

Source: Own elaboration.

To study the discriminant validity (Table 11), the final defined model of 4 dimensions is compared with 10 alternative models that test all of the possible combinations of connection between the proposed factors. The first one considers a single dimension, setting all of the correlations at 1, before trying combinations of pairs of

dimensions setting the correlation at 1 between them both and also groups of three. The results indicate that on the «Use» scale the defined model differs significantly from the others, with the exception of the model that combines the Communication and Collaboration factor with Digital creation. On the «Knowledge» scale, there are no



differences with the alternative model that combines the Troubleshooting-Security dimensions with Communication and Collaboration, nor are there any with the model that combines Communication and Collaboration with Digital Creation. Nonetheless, it has been shown that the overall fit does not improve with any of the alternative models mentioned.

TABLE 11. Significant differences between the defined model and the alternatives for discriminant validity.

Model	1	Knowledg	ge scale	Use scale			
Wiodei	gl	CMIN	P	CMIN	P		
Info/Prob/Com/Dig	6	54.01	0	57,224	0		
Info/Prob	1	32.817	0	36,954,232	0		
Info/Com	1	5.545	0.019	5,105	0.024		
Info/Dig	1	31.219	0	21,249	0		
Prob/Com	1	2.367	0.124	14,375	0		
Prob/Dig	1	20.494	0	19,044	0		
Com/Dig	1	0.653	0.419	3,342	0.068		
Info/ProbCom	3	33.221	0	45,507	0		
Info/ProbDig	3	53.475	0	50,176	0		
Prob/Com/Dig	3	21.09	0	28,117	0		

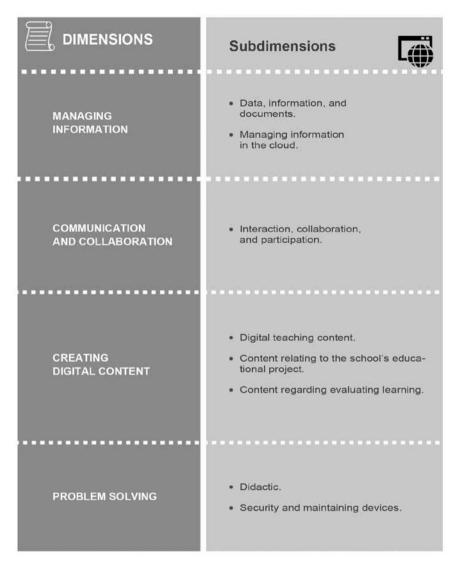
Source: Own elaboration.

In summary, the initial five-dimension model has reasonably good fit and displays overall fit indices that are acceptable but could be improved. Nonetheless, the incremental fit and sample appropriateness indices suggest changes should be made. After making the modifications, the new structure comprises four dimensions or general factors («Man-

aging information», «Communication and Collaboration», «Problems and Security», and «Creating Digital Content») and four sub-dimensions («Cloud Storage», «Security and Maintenance», «Projects in the School» and «Evaluation»). The resulting overview Table is shown in Graph 7, thus improving, the model proposed by INTEF (2017) and shown in Graph 1.



Graph 7. Improved structure of teachers' digital competence.



The convergent validity is also confirmed, although the high correlations between factors might affect the discriminant validity. None of the alternative models that combines the different dimensions improves the fit indices.

4. Discussion and conclusions

Any validation process is always an unfinished process. Dividing validity into types, as the APA rules suggest, could lead to confusion as people might think that testing one type of validity is enough to validate a test or questionnaire. Testing one type of validity is not enough to



decide that a test is valid (see Messick 1980). It is important to bear in mind that validity refers to the validity of the inferences, not the test itself. As the third version of the APA states (1986), validity refers to the appropriate use of the inferences drawn from the scores from a test or some other form of evaluation.

Construct validity is understood as the concept that best integrates the different types of validity. In effect, a construct is understood as a concept that represents a quality or attribute of the subjects that can be more or less abstract in nature and that is supposedly represented in the scores for a given instrument, something for which Cattell (1964) prefers the term concept since, in his opinion, this better combines the theoretical conceptualisation with pure psychometry (although his idea has not prevailed). It is, in any case, a matter of untangling the trait or construct underlying the variance of the scores for an instrument. Studying this type of validity requires proof, experimental evidence, and so it accepts gradations and is not restricted to an index or coefficient. This is a complex process that requires numerous studies, and in a way, is always unfinished, as Nunnally (1978) and Cronbach (1971) note. Furthermore, quantitative data is insufficient, and a solid logical rationale is required to complement it. As Messick notes (1980), the data and the reasoning harmonise and integrate in a given interpretation.

In this work, sufficient proof is provided, albeit always incomplete, to consider the educational applications of the instrument developed for evaluating teachers' digital competencies, although the authors plan to continue analysing more data with larger samples.

The quality of the tool has, therefore, been proven by obtaining high reliability indices and confirming the validity of the theoretical construct it measures. Nonetheless, the fit values produced by the confirmatory factor analysis, while acceptable, could be improved. This has led us to propose some modifications to the initial model, something that has enabled us to refine the structure and achieve better levels of fit. New studies will allow us to verify whether this modified structure is plausible over time and with different samples to the one used in this preliminary study.

In any case, this is a practical instrument that is intended to facilitate analysis of the position regarding knowledge and use of certain digital strategies by teachers, so that training pathways can be offered based on the results that are appropriate and are personalised. The results presented here suggest that the use of this instrument is feasible given its appropriate metric characteristics that will be the object of new studies with larger samples in the future since, as stated above, validating an instrument is an always-unfinished process.



revista española de pedagogía year LXXVI, n. 269, January-April 2018, 25-54 Annexe. Validated Teachers' Digital Competence Questionnaire.

Please note this questionnaire has been validated for its use in Spain. In the event that this questionnaire is to be used outside of Spain, this should be validated accordingly.

Order	Item no.	DIMENSION
		Computer information and literacy
1	1	Internet browsing strategies (e.g.: searches, filters, using operators, specific commands, using search operators, etc.).
24	2	Strategies for searching for information in different media or formats (text, video, etc.) to find and select information.
18	3	Specific channels for selecting teaching videos.
20	4	Rules or criteria for critically evaluating the content of a website (updates, citations, sources).
44	5	Criteria for evaluating the reliability of the sources of information, data, digital content, etc.
11	6	Tools for storing and managing shared files and content (e.g.: Drive, Box, Dropbox, Office 365, etc.).
36	7	Tools for recovering files that are deleted, damaged, inaccessible, have formatting errors, etc.
6	8	Strategies for managing information (using tags, recovering information, classification, etc.).
		Communication and collaboration
10	9	Online communication tools: forums, instant messaging, chats, video conferencing, etc.
3	10	Projects in my school relating to digital technology.
8	11	Software available in my school (e.g.: marks, attendance, communication with families, content, evaluating tasks, etc.).
54	12	Spaces for sharing files, images, work, etc.
17	13	Social networks, learning communities, etc. for sharing educational information and content (e.g.: Facebook, twitter, google+ or others).
33	14	Other people's educational experiences or research that might provide me with content or strategies.
35	15	Shared and collaborative learning tools (e.g.: blogs, wikis, specific platform such as Edmodo or others).
15	16	Basic rules for behaviour and etiquette in internet communication in the educational context.
23	17	Ways of managing digital identities in the educational context.

Order	Item no.	DIMENSION				
	Creating digital content					
37	18	Herramientas para elaborar pruebas de evaluación.				
47	19	Herramientas para elaborar rúbricas.				
16	20	Herramientas para crear presentaciones.				
50	21	Herramientas para la creación de videos didácticos.				
30	22	Tools to facilitate learning such as infographics, interactive graphs, concept mapping, time lines, etc.				
28	23	Tools for producing QR codes (Quick Response).				
12	24	Tools for creating voice recordings (podcasts).				
51	25	Tools that help gamify learning.				
19	26	Tools for content based on augmented reality.				
7	27	The interactive whiteboard software in my centre.				
2	28	Open educational resources (OERs).				
52	29	Tools for reworking or enriching content in different formats (e.g.: texts, tables, audio, images, videos, etc.).				
49	30	Different types of licences for publishing my content (copyright, copyleft, and creative commons).				
34	31	Sources for finding rules concerning copyright and licences.				
38	32	The basic logic of programming, compressing the structure, and basic modification of digital devices and their set-up.				
22	33	The potential of ICT for planning and creating new products.				
		SECURITY				
29	34	Protecting devices against threats from viruses, malware, etc.				
39	35	Protecting information relating to people from your immediate surroundings (colleagues, students, etc.).				
5	36	Systems for protecting devices and documents (access control, privileges, passwords, etc.).				
27	37	Ways of eliminating data/information for which you are responsible about yourself or third parties.				
43	38	Ways of controlling use of technology when it becomes a distraction.				
53	39	How to maintain a balanced attitude in use of technology.				
32	40	Rules about the responsible and healthy use of digital technologies.				
13	41	Recycling points to reduce the environmental impact of technological waste on the environment (unused devices, mobile phones, printer toner, batteries, etc.).				



Order	Item no.	DIMENSION				
	Troubleshooting					
46	42	Basic energy saving measures.				
26	43	Basic computer maintenance tasks to avoid possible operational prob- lems (e.g.: updates, cleaning cache or disc, etc.).				
		Troubleshooting (cont.)				
9	44	Basic solutions for technical problems resulting from the use of digital devices in class.				
41	45	The compatibility of peripherals (microphones, headphones, printers, etc.) and connectivity requirements.				
4	46	Solutions for management and storage in the «cloud», sharing files, granting access privileges, etc. (e.g.: Drive, OneDrive, Dropbox and others).				
45	47	Digital resources adapted to the educational centre's project.				
14	48	Tools that help respond to diversity in the classroom.				
48	49	Ways of solving problems among peers.				
42	50	Options for combining digital and non-digital technology to find solutions.				
25	51	Tools for carrying out the evaluation, mentoring, or monitoring of students.				
40	52	Creative didactic activities for developing students' digital competency.				
31	53	Ways to update myself and include new devices, apps, and tools.				
21	54	Spaces for me to train and update my digital competencies.				

References

Álvarez Rojo, V. (2010). Evaluación de competencias en la Universidad. Material del curso «Evaluación de competencias en el proceso de enseñanza aprendizaje». Secretariado de Formación y Apoyo a la Calidad, Universidad de Granada.

American Psychological Association (1986). Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing: Six Reviews. *Journal of Educational Measurement*, 23, 83-98.

Bentler, P. M. (2005). EQS 6 Structural equations program manual. Encino: Multivariate Software.

Byrne, B. M (2009). Structural Equation Modeling with AMOS, 2nd Ed. New York: Routledge.

Cardona, A. J. (2008). Formación y desarrollo profesional del docente en la sociedad del conocimiento. Madrid: Ed. Universitas.

Catell, R. B. (1964). Validity and reliability: a proposed more basic set of concepts. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 55, 1-22.



- Cattell, R. B. (1978). The scientific use of factor analysis. New York: Plenum.
- Cope, C.H. and Ward, P. (2002). Integrating learning technology into classrooms: The importance of teachers' perceptions. *Educational Technology & Society*, 5 (1), 67-74.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1971). Test validation. In R. L.
 Thorndike (Ed.), Educational Measurement,
 2nd Ed., (p. 143). Washington: American
 Council on Education.
- Cuban, L. (2001). Oversold and underused: Computers in the classroom. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Davis, N., Preston, C. and Sahin, I. (2009). ICT teacher training: Evidence for multilevel evaluation from a national initiative. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 40 (1), 35-48.
- European Commission (2001). Basic indicators on the incorporation of ITC into European Education Systems: 2000-01 Annual Report. Bruselas: Eurydice.
- European Commission (2009). Marco estratégico Educación y Formación 2020 (ET2020). Euridyce España. Retrieved from http://www.mecd.gob.es/educacion-mecd/mc/redie-eurydice/prioridades-europeas/et2020.html
- European Commission (2016). *Education and training. Monitor 2016. Portugal.* Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/education/sites/education/files/monitor2016-pt_en.pdf
- European Parliament and Council (2006). Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council of 18 December 2006 on key competences for lifelong learning. Official Journal of the European Union.
- Ferrari, A. (2013). DIGCOMP: A Framework for Developing and Understanding Digital Competence in Europe. Sevilla: European Commission. Joint Research Centre. Institute for Prospective Technological Studies.
- Fullan, M. and Donelly, K. (2013). Alive in the Swamp: assessing digital innovations in education. London: Nesta.

- Gallego, M. J., Gámiz, V. and Gutiérrez, E. (2010).
 El futuro docente ante las competencias en el uso de las tecnologías de la información y comunicación para enseñar. EDUTEC, Revista Electrónica de Tecnología Educativa, 34.
- Gaviria, J. L., Biencinto, M. C. and Navarro, E. (2009). Invarianza de la estructura de covarianzas de las medidas de rendimiento académico en estudios longitudinales en la transición de educación primaria a secundaria. Revista de educación, 348, 153-173.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J. and Anderson, R. E. (2014). Multivariate Data Analysis (7th Ed.). Essex: Pearson.
- INTEF (2017). Marco de Competencia Digital.
 Madrid: Ministerio de Educación, Ciencia y Deportes.
- Koehler, M. J., Mishra, P. and Cain, W. (2013).
 What Is Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK)? *Journal of Education*, 193 (3), 13-19.
- Mesick, S. (1980). Test Validity and the Ethics of Assessment. American Psychologist, 35, 1012-1027.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory* (2nd Ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Nunnally, J. C. and Bernstein, I. H, (1994). *Psy-chometric Theory* (3rd Ed.). Nueva York: McGraw-Hill.
- OECD (2003). Education at a glance. OECD INDI-CATORS 2003. Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.
- Sangrá, A. and González-Sanmamed, M. (2004). La transformación de las universidades a través de las TIC: Discursos y prácticas. Barcelona: Ediuoc.
- Solmon L. C. and Wiederhorn J. A. (2000). Progress of technology in the school: 1999. Report on 27 states. Santa Monica, CA: Milken Family Foundation.
- Tondeur, J., Valcke, M. and Van Braak, J. (2008). A multidimensional approach to deter-



minants of computer use in primary education: Teacher and school characteristics. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 24 (6), 494-506.

Tourón, J. (2016). TPACK: un modelo para los profesores de hoy. Educación, Tecnología y Talento. Retrieved from http://www.javiertouron. es/2016/05/tpack-un-modelo-para-los-profesores-de.html (Consulted on July 18, 2017).

UNESCO (2002). Information and communication technology. A curriculum for schools and programme of teacher development. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO (2003). Communiqué of the ministerial roundtable on 'Towards Knowledge Societies'. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO (2008). ICT competency standards for teachers: Competency standards modules. Paris: UNESCO.

Windschitl, M. and Sahl, K. (2002). Tracing teachers' use of technology in a laptop computer school: The interplay of teacher beliefs, social dynamics, and institutional culture. *American Educational Research Journal*, 39 (1), 165-205.

Authors' biographies

Javier Tourón is a professor and the vice-rector for Innovation and Educational Development at the Universidad Internacional de La Rioja (UNIR). Past-President of the European Council for High Ability (2000-2004) and a member of the National Advisory Board of the Center for Talented Youth (CTY) at Johns Hopkins University (2003-2011). His research focuses on high ability and talent development; educational evaluation and educational technology.

Deborah Martin is a lecturer at the Universidad Internacional de La Rioja

(UNIR). She was awarded her PhD in Education by the Complutense University of Madrid. She is Forensic and Criminology Psychologist. She is a member of the Adaptive Pedagogy research group at the Complutense, and the Flipped Mastery Learning in Online Settings and Secondary Evaluation and Analysis of the Educational System research groups at the Universidad Internacional de La Rioja (UNIR).

Enrique Navarro Asencio is an assistant professor at the Complutense University of Madrid (UCM). He was awarded his PhD in Pedagogy by the Complutense in 2013, and received the special PhD prize. His work relates to psychometry and evaluating academic performance and associated factors.

Silvia Pradas is a lecturer and the director of the Master's in Neuropsychology and Education, and of the Master's in Educational Technology and Digital Competencies at the Universidad Internacional de La Rioja (UNIR). Her PhD in Educational Sciences was awarded by Camilo José Cela University (UCJC). Her research focusses on neuropsychology and technology applied to education.

Victoria Íñigo is an assistant professor at the Universidad Internacional de La Rioja (UNIR) and is the director of the Master's in Teacher Training in the Faculty of Education at the UNIR. Her PhD is from the University of La Rioja, her current research focuses on training teachers in digital competencies and flipped classroom.



Development and validation of a questionnaire about determinants of academic success in secondary school students

Desarrollo y validación del cuestionario sobre condicionantes de éxito escolar en alumnos de secundaria

Jordi LONGÁS MAYAYO, PhD. Lecturer. Universidad Ramon Llull (jordilm@blanquerna.url.edu).

Elena CARRILLO ÁLVAREZ, PhD. Lecturer. Universidad Ramon Llull (elenaca@blanquerna.url.edu).

Albert FORNIELES DEU, PhD. Serra Húnter fellow. Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (albert.fornieles@gmail.com).

Jordi RIERA I ROMANÍ, PhD. Professor of Education. Universidad Ramon Llull (jordirr@rectorat.url.edu).

Abstract:

Introduction: School failure is a major challenge at individual and social levels, owing to its negative impact on social cohesion, citizen participation, economic development, and sustainability and also its impact on health habits. Various studies have shown the link between family socio-economic level and educational results, to the point that this factor has been regarded as their principal determinant. Nonetheless, the essentially attributing school failure to the students' milieu is only descriptive in value and could impede the development of more appropriate responses to this challenge. A better systemic and integral understanding of the phenomenon might contribute to a better approach to the problem through the development of new proposals for public policy and socio-educational actions. To this end, it is necessary to have appropriate measurement instruments that evaluate different dimensions in an integrated manner. Method: The objective of this study is to evaluate the psychometric properties of the Questionnaire on Determinants of Success at School (QDSS) in a sample of 858 secondary-school students resident in vulnerable socio-demographic settings from 5 Spanish cities. The questionnaire combines items about factors that specialist literature has significantly linked to educational attainment, excluding those that already have specific validated questionnaires. Results: The principal component analysis gave 7 factors: school environment. relationships with classmates, personal expectations, social capital, ITC study resources, climate in class, and family support. The goodness of fit indices show good properties for the questionnaire. Conclusion: The QDSS is an instrument that has appropriate psychometric properties for use in identifying factors that support educational success in secondary-school students.

Revision accepted: 2017-07-19.

This is the English version of an article originally printed in Spanish in issue 269 of the **revista española de pedagogía**. For this reason, the abbreviation EV has been added to the page numbers. Please, cite this article as follows: Longás Mayayo, J., Carrillo Álvarez, E., Fornieles Deu, A., & Riera i Romani, J. (2018). Desarrollo y validación del cuestionario sobre condicionantes de éxito escolar en alumnos de secundaria | *Development and validation of a questionnaire about determinants of academic success in secondary school students. Revista Española de Pedagogía*, 76 (269), 55-82. doi: 10.22550/REP76-1-2018-03 https://revistadepedagogia.org/



Keywords: success at school, school failure, secondary education, poverty, validation, questionnaire.

Resumen:

Introducción: El fracaso escolar supone un gran desafío tanto a nivel individual como a nivel social, por su impacto negativo en la cohesión social, la participación ciudadana, el desarrollo económico, la sostenibilidad e incluso su incidencia sobre los hábitos de salud. Diversos estudios han puesto de manifiesto la asociación entre el nivel socioeconómico familiar y los resultados escolares, hasta el punto que dicho factor se ha considerado su principal determinante. No obstante, el hecho de atribuir el fracaso escolar esencialmente al contexto de pertenencia sólo tiene valor descriptivo v podría estar dificultando el desarrollo de respuestas más adecuadas a este gran desafío. Una mejor comprensión sistémica e integral del fenómeno podría contribuir a un mejor abordaje de la problemática mediante el desarrollo de nuevas propuestas de política pública y de acción socioeducativa. Para ello, es necesario disponer de los instrumentos de medida adecuados que evalúen diferentes di-

mensiones de una manera integrada. Método: El obietivo del presente estudio es evaluar las propiedades psicométricas del Cuestionario sobre Condicionantes de Éxito Escolar (CCEE) en una muestra de 858 alumnos de secundaria residentes en contextos socio-demográficos vulnerables de 5 ciudades españolas. El cuestionario recoge ítems sobre aquellos factores que la literatura especializada ha vinculado de manera relevante con el rendimiento escolar, excluvendo aquellos que ya disponen de cuestionarios específicos validados. Resultados: El análisis de componentes principales dio lugar a 7 factores: contexto escolar, relaciones con los compañeros, expectativas personales, capital social, recursos TIC para el estudio, clima en clase y apoyo familiar. Los índices de ajuste muestran unas buenas propiedades del cuestionario. Conclusión: Se concluye que el CCEE es un instrumento que posee propiedades psicométricas adecuadas para su uso en la identificación de factores que apoyan el éxito educativo en alumnos de secundaria.

Descriptores: éxito escolar; fracaso escolar, educación secundaria, pobreza, validación, cuestionario.

1. Introduction

This study is part of a research project that proposes a complex and systematic approach to the phenomenon of school success/failure in Spain and examines the importance of the factors that support educational resilience in students living in vulnerable sociodemographic settings.

School failure, as opposed to success at school, is in itself an imprecise and ambig-

uous concept (Marchesi and Hernández, 2003). It normally refers to the proportion of individuals who do not complete compulsory studies (Calero, Chois and Waisgrais, 2010; Escudero and Martínez, 2012) although it is also sometimes used to refer to people who fail in post-compulsory secondary education, a definition that would more closely correspond with the notion of early school leaving (Mena, Fernández-Enguita and Riviere, 2010).



The term early school leaving refers to failure to attain level 3 on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCE), which in Spain corresponds to completing post-compulsory secondary education (baccalaureate or professional training). According to figures from Eurostat (2015), the early school leaving rate among people aged between 18 and 24 in Spain is 21.9%, almost twice the EU average and one of the worst rates among European Union members.

Being unable to prove you have the minimum competences valued and required in society causes great problems with labour integration, thus putting people from Spain who are in this situation at a greater risk of social exclusion and vulnerability resulting from poverty (Boada, Herrera, Mas, Miñarro, Olivella, and Riudor, 2011; Gil-Flores, 2011; Jolonch, 2008; Sarasa and Sales, 2009). Recent data show that people with low levels of qualifications, without education, or who have only completed primary education have unemployment rates of around 48.9% and 35.2% respectively, figures that fall as levels of studies increases (INE, 2015a and 2015b).

So, school failure, in any of its definitions, is a major challenge at individual and social levels owing to its negative impact on social cohesion, citizen participation, economic development, sustainability, and even on the development of healthy lifestyle habits and public health matters (Belfield, 2008; Brunello and Da Paola, 2013; WHO, 2013). So much so, that the European Union, in its Europe 2020 strategy commits to reducing early school leaving to under 10% in 2016 (Eu-

ropean Commission, 2010, 2011). Nonetheless, reaching this milestone is difficult and requires an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon of school failure and its underlying causes (Brunello and Da Paola, 2013).

In this context, various studies have made clear the association between family socioeconomic level and educational attainment (Bravo and Verdugo, 2007: Cordero, Crespo and Santín, 2010; Choi and Calero, 2013; Renée and McAlister. 2011), to the extent that this factor is considered to be its main determinant (Goldthorpe, 2000; Fernández-Enguita, Mena, and Riviere, 2010; Ferrer and Albaigés, 2008). However, correlation does not imply causation and lack of qualifications or early school leaving might be caused by the convergence of very diverse circumstances. In effect, attributing school failure to the students' milieu is only descriptive and, in our view, could hinder the development of more appropriate responses to this great challenge (Smith, 2003). Accordingly, a greater effort to achieve a systemic and integral understanding of the phenomenon could contribute to a better approach to the problem though the development of new proposals for public policy and socio-educational activities (Civís and Longás, 2015; Longás, Cussó, Querol, and Riera, 2016).

One of the main difficulties in advancing in this direction is the lack of sufficiently thorough and methodologically appropriate studies for obtaining data, as while there are pieces of research that specifically gather empirical evidence about the influence of individual (Berlin-



er, 2009), family (Hernando, Oliva, and Pertegal, 2012; Jeynes, 2007), school (Flecha, 2002 and 2009), and community factors (Hatcher and Leblond, 2001) on failure and success at school, we were unable to identify any quantitative research that combines all of these dimensions.

Starting with a review of recent literature performed as part of this research project (Díaz-Gibson et al., 2017) and the first results obtained based on analysis of life stories of students who are vulnerable and have a record of success at school (Longás et al., 2016), the principal determinants of failure and success at school are summarised below.

In the individual sphere, it is clear that the intellectual capacities of each student relate to their success at school. However, a number of social, economic, and cultural determinants from the family and school settings have a direct impact on the educability of children and adolescents, thus limiting the weight of intelligence as an explanatory factor for success (Bonal, Tarabini, Constans, Kliczkowski, and Valiente, 2010). This makes it possible to understand that the bulk of the literature about PISA (Calero et al., 2010; Cordero et al. 2010; Choi and Calero, 2013; Sánchez and García-Rodicio, 2006 among others) identifies as the most decisive variables of success at school: a) the family's socio-economic level; b) coming from minority cultures and immigrant families; c) a high concentration (>20%) of students of immigrant origin in schools.

Other more focused studies allow us to expand the range of factors that are determinants of success at school for each individual, also determined by family relationships. The following factors and variables stand out:

- a) Psycho-affective (self-esteem, perception of family support, positive family expectations, personal motivations) (Carpenter et al., 2010; Longás et al., 2016; Núñez et al., 2013; Renée and McAlister, 2011; Roman, Cuestas, and Fenollar, 2008; Santana and Feliciano, 2011).
- b) Personality, principally the development of responsibility and capacity for effort (Torres-Acosta, Rodríguez-Gómez and Acosta-Vargas, 2013) and social competency linked to school socialisation and the development of social capital (Maccoby and Martin, 2006); biological ones, like a low birth weight or poor health conditions (Berliner, 2009); and material factors such as access to sufficient cultural and technological resources (OCDE, 2013). Deficiencies in these variables (García Alegre, 2014) are more frequent in situations of poverty because the situation of vulnerability also shapes the family's educational environment, the parents' engagement in education. their relationship with the school and access to resources (Collet and Tort, 2011; Fernández-Enguita et al., 2010; Jevnes, 2007).

Among the variables corresponding to the school environment, educational and organisational actions intended to improve educational success stand out, including strategies for responding to diversity, early preventive intervention, encouraging cooperation between teachers and promoting the school-family relationship (Depalma, Matusov, and



Smith, 2009: Murillo and Roman, 2011: Pozo, Suárez, and García-Cano, 2012; Rodríguez, Ríos, and Racionero, 2012). Recent studies also show the importance of teaching quality, which includes teaching competencies, pastoral care, and the capacity to generate a bond and positive expectations (Hanushek and Woessmann. 2010; Rivkin et al., 2005). Some pieces of research give special value to the bond or the students' sense of belonging to the school (Archambault, Janosz, Morizot, and Pagani, 2009; Geddes, 2010; Marcus and Sanders-Reio, 2001). This bond that favours success could be the result of integration into the peer group and the positive climate -of coexistence and workin the classroom and the school that the PISA model explores, alongside the perception of support from teachers (Roorda, Koomen, Spilt, and Oort, 2011; Santana and Feliciano, 2011) and the construction from school experience of expectations of success in relation to education and study (Pàmies, 2013). Studies based on PISA give school resources little significance (Calero and Escardíbul, 2007).

In turn, having a rich socio-educational framework or community social capital, something that is impossible if there is no collaboration between educational and social bodies in the community, favours educational success, especially in settings of low socio-economic level (Bravo and Verdugo, 2007; Moliner, 2008; Pedró, 2012; Pozo, Suárez, and García-Cano, 2012) thanks to its impact on the construction of scenarios of opportunity for learning and social development (Miller, 2016).

Having completed our review, we identified the need for an instrument to sys-

tematise and unify data collection on factors relating to success at school to be able to relate them empirically and enable a more holistic analysis. There are specific validated and highly recognised questionnaires that provide reliable information about some of the determinants of success identified in the literature. In the framework of our research, we consider that the following are relevant:

- a) The Hollingshead Four-Factor Index of Socioeconomic Status (SES) to determine the socio-economic level (Canals, 2002: Hollingshead, 1975).
- b) The European scale of household material deprivation (Guio and Marlier, 2013) for identifying situations of vulnerability.
- c) NEO-FFI to evaluate the responsible personality (Costa and McCrae, 2008).
- d) VISA-TEEN (Costa-Tutusaus and Guerra-Balic, 2016) to evaluate healthy habits and state of health. In order to provide a specific instrument that integrates the other relevant factors in the literature to complement those mentioned above, this study aims to construct and validate a questionnaire intended for secondary-school students that enables an integrated evaluation of determinants of success at school based on their perceptions.

2. Method

2.1. Sample

The sample for this study was chosen using convenience sampling and comprised 858 students from year 4 of ESO



(compulsory secondary education) and year one of Baccalaureate (2014-2015) at 29 schools in the following cities and their metropolitan areas: Barcelona (32.2%), Seville (13.8%), Murcia (22.6%), Tenerife (19.3%), and Palma de Mallorca (12.1%). Of these, 50.2% were male and 49.4% female, 81.5% of them were in year 4 of ESO in the 2014-15 academic year and the remaining 18.5% were studying towards the baccalaureate. Of the participants, 67.8% were born in 1999, 20.7% in 1998, 9.9% in 1997 and 1.5% between 1992 and 1996.

The average grades for the previous academic year, provided by each school, indicated that 4% had obtained a fail grade, 27.4% a pass, 32.5% good, 24.8% very good, and 11.3% excellent. Of the schools in the sample, 17% (5) are in medium or medium-high level socio-economic settings, while the others are located in settings of low socio-economic levels comprising demographics with average income and unemployment. Table 1 shows the frequencies and percentages of the main demographic variables of the sample.

Table 1. Characteristics of the sample.

Variables	N	%
TOTAL	858	100
City		
Barcelona	276	32.2
Seville	194	22.6
Murcia	104	12.1
Palma de Mallorca	166	19.3
Santa Cruz de Tenerife	118	13.8
Year of birth		
1992-1996	13	1.5
1997	84	9.9
1998	175	20.7
1999	574	67.8
No data	12	1.4
Gender		
Male	431	50.2
Female	424	49.4
No data	3	0.3
Place of birth		
Spain	715	83.3
Outside Spain	138	16.1
No data	5	0.6
Years in the city		
>15	434	50.6
11-15	267	31.1
6-10	76	9.0
0-5	70	8.3
No data	11	1.3

Variables	N	%
TOTAL	858	100
Current year		
Y4 ESO	699	81.5
Y1-2 Baccalaureate	156	18.5
Average grade		
Excellent	34	11.3
Very good	235	24.8
Good	279	32.5
Pass	213	27.4
Fail	97	4.0
Father's level of studies		
No education	66	7
Primary education completed	237	25.1
Baccalaureate or CFGS incomplete	119	12.6
Baccalaureate or CFGS completed	178	18.8
University studies incomplete	56	5.9
University studies 1st cycle	69	7.3
University studies 2nd cycle	131	13.9
No data	89	9.4
Mother's level of studies		
No education	59	6.2
Primary education completed	240	25.4
Baccalaureate or CFGS incomplete	127	13.4
Baccalaureate or CFGS completed	181	19.2
University studies incomplete	74	7.8
University studies 1st cycle	83	8.8
University studies 2nd cycle	121	12.8
No data	60	6.3



Development and validation of a questionnaire about determinants of academic ...

Variables	N	%
TOTAL	858	100
Father's employment status		
Working	700	74.1
Unemployed	115	12.2
Retired	52	5.4
No data	78	8.3

Variables	N	%
TOTAL	858	100
Mother's employment status		
Working	624	66
Unemployed	237	25.2
Retired	24	2.7
No data	58	6.1

2.2. Instrument

The Questionnaire on Determinants of Success at School (QDSS) combines items concerning factors for which the specialist literature has identified a significant link to educational attainment, excluding those that already have specific validated questionnaires. Consequently, in addition to socio-demographic variables, the questionnaire we initially designed, attempted to evaluate the following determinants of success at school (Table 2): personal expectations of suc-

cess; inclusion (students' bond or sense of belonging) in the school; relationship of trust with classmates; student-teacher relationship of trust; teaching model on which the learning process is based; class/peer group climate; family support; social capital; and access to study resources. All items are answered on a five-point Likert scale reflecting how much the respondents agree with each statement (A: strongly agree/phrase totally true, value 5; E: strongly disagree/phrase completely false, value 1).

Table 2. List of factors and items from the initial questionnaire.

Factor (*)	Items
Personal expectations	Q13 (University studies), Q14 (Professional training), Q15 (Not continuing studies), Q16 (Future with studies), Q17 (Money without education), Q18 (Motivation to study), Q19 (Social mobility), Q20 (Interest in learning), Q21 (Improving society), Q22 (Obliged to study), Q23 (No alternative to studying), Q24 (No reasons for studying), Q25 (Waste of time), Q26 (Unable to continue studying), Q27 (Not disappointing family).
Inclusion in the school	Q28 (Learning school), Q29 (Useful preparation), Q30 (Desire to go to class), Q31 (Effort in class), Q32 (Interested in class work), Q33 (Uninteresting subjects), Q34 (Challenge), Q35 (Feeling of belonging at school), Q36 (Feels valued at school), Q37 (Treated well by school), Q38 (Participation at school), Q39 (Isolated at school), Q40 (Satisfied w. school).
Relationship with classmates	Q41 (Make friends easily), Q42 (Bullying), Q43 (Good relationship with classmates), Q44 (Respected by classmates), Q45 (Classmates help each other learn), Q46 (Team work), Q47 (Conflict resolution), Q48 (Help from classmates).



Factor (*)	Items
Student-teacher trust	Q49 (Value teachers' advice), Q50 (Teachers are concerned about me), Q51 (Discuss problems w. teachers), Q52 (Teachers get angry), Q53 (Teachers are fair), Q54 (Teachers listen), Q55 (Feel comfortable with teachers), Q56 (Teachers use unfair punishments), Q57 (Teachers keep promises), Q58 (Teachers respect me), Q59 (Feels valued by teachers), Q60 (Speak openly with teachers), Q61 (High expectations from teachers).
Teaching and learning model	Q62 (Teachers do not help), Q63 (Teachers help), Q64 (Teachers pay attention to me), Q65 (No advice from teachers), Q66 (Teachers give explanations), Q67 (High expectations of group), Q68 (Capacity for reflection).
Climate in class	Q69 (No attention in class), Q70 (Noise in class), Q71 (Class environment), Q72 (Start of class), Q73 (Attending class), Q74 (Attention in class), Q75 (Homework), Q76 (Effort by classmates).
Family support	Q77 (Family-teacher communication), Q78 (Family engagement with school), Q79 (Family supports studies), Q80 (Family encourages studies), Q81 (Family help with homework), Q82 (Family monitors schoolwork), Q83 (Family evaluates studies), Q84 (Family pride), Q85 (Family-student communication).
Social capital	Q86 (Support from role model), Q87 (Neighbourhood participation), Q88 (Integration in neighbourhood), Q89 (No role models), Q90 (Value extracurricular activities), Q91 (School social network), Q92 (Neighbourhood social network), Q137 (Extracurricular activities), Q138 (Volunteering).
Study resources	Q132 (Computer at home), Q133 (Own computer), Q134 (Internet), Q135 (Study space), Q136 (Books).

(*) The items on sociodemographic data are not included (Table 1). Source: Own elaboration.

The final questionnaire is the result of four stages: (1) a literature review performed by the research team and triangulated with information obtained in interviews with experts to identify the aspects to consider and existing validated instruments that measure these aspects; (2) preparation of the first version of the questionnaire, (3) a pilot application with 47 students to validate the morphosyntactic suitability of the items and how well it meets the initial construct, and (4) psychometric validation of the instrument, which is what we report on in this article.

2.3. Psychometric validation procedure

The study was carried out by applying a cross-sectional survey design. This type of design makes it possible to describe a population at a given moment. It also makes it possible to establish relationships between variables and differences between the different segments that make up the population (León and Montero, 2015).

The questionnaire was distributed in the 29 participating centres. A member of the research team travelled to them



to be present while it was being answered. A participation agreement was signed in advance which established the commitment to return the results from each school. All students who were present when the study was carried out and whose parents and/or legal guardians had authorised their participation with a passive informed consent document took part in the study.

2.4. Data analysis

The following analyses were performed with the objective of verifying the psychometric properties of the questionnaire:

- a) Analysis of the items, based on the difficulty indices and the item-total correlation.
- b) With the objective of reviewing the dimensionality of the questionnaire, a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed with an Oblimin rotation as the factors were partially correlated (see Table 5) as the situation of orthogonality that would make it advisable to use other standard rotations such as, for example. Varimax cannot be assumed (Thompson, 2004; Izquierdo, Olea, and Abad, 2014). With the 88 original items, various factorial solutions were tried and the one was selected that best met the criteria for factorial adequacy (factorial weight greater than .30 and explained variance percentage), and provided a high internal consistency, alongside parsimony in its description of the factorial structure, interpretability and theoretical coherence of the results.

- c) Analysis of reliability of the factors, based on Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for the factors and the correlation between latent factors.
- d) Descriptive analysis of the results from the sample, including a study of the factors, considering the mean and standard deviation, as well as a study of the differences by gender, years living in the city, average grade from the previous academic year, country of birth, and maximum level of studies achieved by the parents. These analyses used Student's t-test or ANO-VA with unplanned comparison using the Tukey correction according to the type of variable.

The statistical analyses were performed using the IBM SPSS 23 program.

3. Results

Both the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin index of sampling adequacy (KMO = 0.905) and Bartlett's sphericity test ($\gamma^2 = 17891.378$, p < 0.001) showed the adequacy of the new factorial structure after performing the PCA through an Oblimin rotation using the normalised scores (Z) for the items. The items were filtered through independent application of three criteria: 1) eliminating items with saturations lower than 0.30; 2) eliminating items whose relevance to a given factor was conflictive at a theoretical level; and 3) eliminating items that reduced the internal consistency of the factor (verifying the improvement in Cronbach's Alpha when the item was eliminated).

Consequently, the following items were eliminated: Q33 (uninteresting subjects),



Q34 (challenge), Q21 (improving society) as they displayed saturations lower than 0.30, item Q88 (integration in neighbourhood) that displayed similar saturations in two factors, and item Q36 (feels valued at school) which showed saturation in the Relationship with Classmates factor and because its content was not theoretically justifiable. Following similar criteria, the following items were also eliminated: Q89 (no role models), Q91 (social network), Q92 (neighbourhood social network), Q14 (professional training), Q16 (future with studies), Q17 (money without education), Q27 (not disappointing family), Q30 (desire to go to class), Q32 (interested in class work), Q35 (feeling of belonging at school), Q37 (treated well by school), Q38 (participation at school), Q40 (satisfied with school), Q47 (conflict resolution), Q52 (teachers get angry), Q135 (space for study). Finally, items Q20 (interest in learning), Q29 (useful preparation), Q31 (effort in class), Q74 (attention in class), and Q75 (homework) had similar loads in two factors, and so were included in the one with greater conceptual coherence.

To choose the number of factors to retain, Kaiser's K1 criterion was rejected (eigenvalues greater than one) as it overestimates the number of factors to retain (Izquierdo, Olea, and Abad, 2014). After considering different criteria for retaining factors, such as parallel analysis (Horn, 1965, Buja and Eyuboglu (1992), the scree test (Cattell, 1966), the significance and theoretical coherence of the factors, and their interpretability, the final version comprised 65 items distributed over seven factors that explain 42.91% of the total variance, with values ranging from 17.94 to 2.91% of the variance explained by each of them. Table 3 shows the factor weights for each item greater than 0.30 and the communalities. This Table shows how the communalities of all of the items exceed the value of .25 except in three cases: Q138 Do you participate as a volunteer in any body or association? (h2 = .116); Q133 Do you have your own computer or tablet (i.e., just for you)? (h2 = .211), and Q19 With my studies I hope to obtain a better job than my parents and family members (h2 = .226).

Table 3. Principal component analysis of the typical scores of the 65 items, 7 factor solution and oblimin rotation.

				Comp	onent			
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	h^2
Q13 As a student, my aspiration is to complete university studies.			507					.296
Q15 I don't expect to continue studying when I leave school.			.461					.252
Q18 I feel motivated and with strength to continue studying in future.			620					.554



	Component							
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	h^2
Q19 With my studies I hope to get a better job than my parents and family members.			301					.226
Q20 Learning on its own is a good motivation for carrying on studying.			397					.418
Q22 I carry on studying because I have to.			.615					.421
Q23 I carry on studying because I don't know what else to do.			.488					.333
Q24 I can't find important reasons to continue studying.			.689					.494
Q25 In my situation, continuing studying seems like a waste of time.			.743					.576
Q26 In my situation, continuing studying seems impossible to me.			.677					.500
Q28 At school I develop important capacities and learn important things.			340					.405
Q29 The classes give me useful preparation for what I want to do in life.			323					.420
Q31 I try to do my best in class.			326					.406
Q39 I feel isolated at school.		543						.442
Q41 I make friends easily at school.		.773						.596
Q42 I often feel insulted, threat- ened, or harassed by my class- mates at school.		545						.442
Q43 I get on well with most of my classmates at school.		.748						.611
Q44 I feel like most of my class- mates at school treat me with respect.		.767						.652
Q45 With my classmates we help each other to learn.		.478						.437
Q46 I am capable of working in a team with my classmates.		.500						.442



_	\sim
ΔII	\mathbb{R}_{λ}
E	A
Ø _{II}	
ľ¢	

Component IV \mathbf{v} VII h^2 Ι II Ш VI Q48 At school I have classmates .593 .460 who help me when I need it. Q49 When the teachers tell me not .558 .391 to do something, I know they have a good reason for saying it. Q50 The teachers are concerned .776 .615 about me. Q51 At school there are teachers .582.421I can speak to if I have problems. .720 Q53 The teachers always try to be .539 fair. Q54 The teachers are always will-.749 .564 ing to listen to the students' ideas. Q55 I feel secure and comfortable .796 .668 with my teachers at this school. Q56 The teachers punish students -.478 .323 without knowing what has happened. Q57 My teachers keep the promis-.651 .439 es they make. Q58 My teachers treat me with .693 .558 respect. Q59 My teachers do not value me -.478 .378 much in class. Q60 In this school, you can talk .717.542openly with the teachers. Q61 My teachers always expect the .511 .412best of me. Q62 If I fall behind with the con--.471 .307 tent for the year, I don't get help from my teachers to catch up. Q63 My teachers are willing to .660 .417offer me extra help in relation to the class work if I need it. .629 Q64 My teachers realise if I have .468 problems understanding something. Q65 My teachers don't give me -.440 .278 specific advice on how to improve my work in class.

	Component							
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	h^2
Q66 If I don't understand something in class, my teachers are willing to explain it to me again in a different way.	.639							.458
Q67 My teachers expect all students to make a lot of effort.	.381							.280
Q68 My teachers want us to develop our capacity for reflection, not just memorise things.	.458							.364
Q69 The students don't listen to what the teacher says.						584		.353
Q70 There is noise and disorder in class.						670		.558
Q71 The environment in class stops me working well.						671		.579
Q72 We don't start working until a long time after the start of the class.						606		.479
Q73 My classmates believe that it is important to go to class every day.						481		.329
Q74 My classmates believe it is important to pay attention in class.						653		.574
Q75 My classmates believe that it is important to do their homework.						661		.591
Q76 My classmates make an effort to get good grades.						532		.397
Q77 My family maintains smooth communication with my teacher/a.				.483				.395
Q78 My family voluntarily gets involved in activities and projects at school.				.533				.396
Q79 As a student, I do not feel supported by my family.							571	.396
Q80 My family encourages me to make an effort at school.							.716	.570
Q81 When I need it, someone from my family helps me with my homework.							.657	.487



	Component							
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	h^2
Q82 In my family nobody asks about my exams or homework.							551	.345
Q84 I feel like my family is proud of me.							.629	.547
Q85 There are people in my family I can talk to when I need it.							.722	.603
Q86 The support of a monitor, educator, trainer, has been very important for me in recent years.				.364				.264
Q87 I take part in social and/or leisure activities in the neighbourhood.				.590				.383
Q90 Activities I do outside of school help me improve as a person.				.469				.322
Q132 How many computers or tab- lets are there in your house?					.537			.384
Q133 Do you have your own computer or tablet (i.e., just for you)?					359			.211
Q134 Do you have internet access at home?					422			.246
Q138 Do you participate as a volunteer in any body or association?				382				.161
Q137 Do you carry out extracurricular activities during the school year?				544				.329
% of variance explained	17.94	5.40	5.175	4.53	3.55	3.40	2.92	

Note: h2 = communality. Saturations $\geq .30$ are shown

The first factor is *School environment*. This comprises items Q49, Q50, Q51, Q53, Q54, Q55, Q56, Q57, Q58, Q59, Q60, Q61, Q62, Q63, Q64, Q65, Q66, Q67, and Q68 and evaluates the student's relationships with the school environment, explaining 17.94% of the variance. The second factor, *Relationship with classmates*, com-

prises items Q39, Q41, Q42, Q43, Q44, Q45, Q46, and Q48. This factor evaluates the relationship of trust and help among classmates, and explains 5.40% of the variance. The third factor is called *Personal expectations* and comprises items Q13, Q15, Q18, Q19, Q20, Q22, Q23, Q24, Q25, Q26, Q28, Q29, and Q31. This evalu-



ates the expectations associated with success in study and explains 5.175% of the variance. The fourth factor corresponds to Social capital. It comprises items Q77, Q78, Q86, Q87, Q90, Q137, and Q138, and evaluates the personal relationships and bonds that might provide access to different resources, explaining 4.53% of the variance. The fifth factor, ITC resources. comprises items Q132, Q133, and Q134 that evaluate access to information and communication technologies that can facilitate learning, explaining 3.55% of the variance. The sixth factor. Climate in class, comprises items Q69, Q70, Q71, Q72, Q73, Q73, Q75, and Q76 and evaluates the quality of coexistence in the peer group, explaining 3.40% of the variance. Finally, the seventh factor is called *Fam*ily support; this comprises items Q79. Q80, Q81, Q82, Q84, and Q85 and evaluates the intensity of support for study and schooling from the immediate family and explains 2.92% of the variance.

Table 4 displays the main results of the analysis of the items. Specifically, their description (using the mean as a measure of difficulty), the item-total for the factor correlation if the item is eliminated, and Cronbach's Alpha for each factor if the item is eliminated. The Table shows that the item-total correlations are greater than 0.3 in all of the cases except in items 19, 137, and 138. Similarly, it shows that, apart from item 138, in no case does the Alpha increase if the item is eliminated.

The results reliability analysis (Table 5) shows that the internal consistency of the factors of the questionnaire (normalised scores) is satisfactory. These display values for Cronbach's Alpha greater than 0.8 for factors 1, 2, 3, and 6, a value of 0.76 for factor 7, and values of under 0.7 for factors 4 and 5, with a mean of 0.77. The same Table also shows the mean descriptors and standard deviation for the 7 factors, as well as the correlations between latent factors.

Table 4. Result of the analysis of the items, by difficulty indices and the item-total correlation.

	Mean	Standard deviation	Corrected element-tota correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if the element is eliminated
FACTOR 1				
Q49 Value teachers' advice.	2.147	1.071	.539	.908
Q50 Teachers concerned.	2.199	1.061	.722	.904
Q51 Talk about problems w. teachers.	1.801	1.069	.562	.908
Q53 Fairness of teachers.	2.400	1.104	.672	.905



	Mean	Standard deviation	Corrected element-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if the element is
Q54 Teachers listen.	2.381	1.141	.658	.905
Q55 Feel comfortable with teachers.	2.027	1.003	.757	.903
Q56 Teachers use unfair punishments.	2.456	1.238	.429	.912
Q57 Teachers keep promises.	2.654	1.039	.579	.907
Q58 Teachers respect me.	1.709	.891	.695	.905
Q59 Feels valued by teachers.	2.197	1.170	.471	.910
Q60 Talk openly with teachers.	2.123	1.112	.660	.905
Q61 High expectations from teachers.	1.630	.807	.556	.908
Q62 Teachers do not help.	2.410	1.230	.454	.911
Q63 Teachers help.	2.263	1.076	.547	.908
Q64 Teachers pay attention to me.	2.374	1.053	.607	.907
Q65 No advice from teachers.	2.470	1.154	.429	.912
Q66 Teachers give explanations.	1.972	1.005	.619	.906
Q67 High expectations of group.	1.669	.841	.429	.911
Q68 Capacity for reflection.	1.713	.935	.501	.909
FACTOR 2				
Q39 Isolated at school.	1.549	.956	.480	.827
Q41 Make friends easily.	1.925	1.010	.629	.806
Q42 Bullying.	1.401	.792	.427	.831
Q43 Good relationship with classmates.	1.715	.850	.643	.806
Q44 Respected by classmates.	1.837	.918	.702	.797
Q45 Classmates help each other learn.	2.176	1.013	.525	.822
Q46 Team work.	1.818	.904	.527	.820
Q48 Help from classmates.	1.740	.928	.583	.813
FACTOR 3				
Q13 University studies.	3.911	1.434	.335	.804
Q15 Not continuing studies.	4.787	.716	.318	.797
Q18 Motivation to study.	4.086	.963	.602	.774
Q19 Social mobility.	4.251	.986	.244	.804
Q20 Interest in learning.	3.941	1.008	.484	.784

	Mean	Standard deviation	Corrected element-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if the element is eliminated
Q22 Obliged to study.	3.923	1.152	.487	.783
Q23 No alternative to studying.	4.104	1.198	.412	.791
Q24 No reason to study.	4.581	.816	.532	.782
Q25 Waste of time.	4.677	.743	.563	.781
Q26 Unable to continue studying.	4.610	.816	.464	.787
Q28 Learning at school.	3.881	.944	.481	.784
Q29 Useful preparation.	3.788	1.095	.471	.785
Q31 Effort in class.	3.539	1.028	.415	.790
FACTOR 4				
Q77 Family teacher communication.	2.995	1.283	.392	.582
Q78 Family-school engagement.	3.676	1.278	.417	.574
Q86 Support from role model.	2.683	1.381	.318	.607
Q87 Neighbourhood participation.	3.672	1.398	.456	.558
Q90 Value extracurricular activities.	2.290	1.219	.350	.596
Q138 Volunteering.	3.523	1.297	.209	.640
Q137 Extracurricular activities.	3.870	.933	.284	.616
FACTOR 5				
Q132 Computer at home.	3.262	.889	.516	.264
Q133 Own computer.	4.712	.471	.431	.323
Q134 Internet.	4.926	.266	.336	.532
FACTOR 6				
Q69 No attention in class.	2.949	.903	.399	.801
Q70 Noise in class.	2.789	1.101	.560	.779
Q71 Class environment.	3.151	1.145	.534	.783
Q72 Start of class.	3.162	1.190	.483	.791
Q73 Attending class.	3.386	1.117	.519	.785
Q74 Attention in class.	3.461	1.062	.608	.772
Q75 Homework.	3.304	1.111	.578	.776
Q76 Effort by classmates.	3.520	1.001	.473	.791



	ril 2018, 55-82
pedagogía	January-Apr
revista española de	year LXXVI, n. 269,

	Mean	Standard deviation	Corrected element-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if the element is eliminated
FACTOR 7				
Q79 Family supports studies.	1.835	1.259	.420	.728
Q80 Family encourages studies.	1.575	.908	.602	.688
Q81 Family help w. homework.	2.415	1.427	.429	.732
Q82 Family monitors schoolwork.	1.847	1.205	.385	.737
Q84 Family pride.	2.000	1.123	.537	.695
Q85 Family-student communication.	1.739	1.085	.613	.676

Source: Own elaboration.

Table 5. Consistency, descriptors, and correlations between the factors of the QDSS.

	Alpha normalised items	M	SD	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6
F1: School environment.	.915	40.59	12.52						
F2: Relationship with classmates.	.835	14.16	5.04	.426**					
F3: Personal expectations.	.814	54.08	7.14	448**	289**				
F4: Social capital.	.634	22.70	4.94	.218**	.216**	111**			
F5: ITC study resources.	.687	12.90	1.29	015	098*.	.022	118**		
F6: Climate in class.	.806	25.72	5.64	241**	345**	.147**	078*.	.022	
F7: Family support.	.761	11.41	4.69	.386**	.351**	337**	.227**	143**	131**



Source: Own elaboration. $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$

This gives the questionnaire its final form. It comprises 65 items in 7 factors: a) school environment (19 items), b) relationship with classmates (8 items), c) personal expectations (13 items), d) social capital (7 items), e) ITC study resources (3 items), f) climate in class (8 items), and g) family support (6 items). The score for each factor is obtained by simple addition after inverting the scores of items Q15, Q22, Q23, Q24, Q25, Q26, Q39, Q42, Q56, Q59, Q62, Q65, Q69, Q70, Q71, and Q72.

The results from comparing the groups are shown in Table 6. Regarding gender, there are significant differences in the school environment, family support, and personal expectations factors, with male students showing significantly higher scores in the first two, while the score for personal expectations is greater for female students.

As for educational level when responding (ESO, Baccalaureate), the scores are significantly higher for the baccalaureate students in *social capital* and *climate in the classroom*, and are higher in *ITC resources* for the ESO students.

Differences can also be seen in some factors according to the average grade from the previous year. For students who averaged a fail grade, their scores are significantly higher in *school environment* and significantly lower in *personal expectations*. Finally, the score in factor 7, regarding *family support*, was significantly lower for those students whose average grade was very good or excellent.

Being born inside or outside Spain also generated significant differences in some

factors. School environment and ITC resources show higher scores for those born in Spain, while for the students born outside Spain, family support obtains significantly higher scores.

The period of residence in the city also relates to differences regarding *ITC resources*. In this case, the score for those who have spent 10-15 years there is significantly higher than the score of those who arrived under 5 years ago.

As for the maximum level of studies attained by the parents, there are significant differences in the ITC resources and family support factors, although these differences are not the same for the educational level of their mother or father. In the case of the mother, ITC resources scores are significantly higher if the mother has completed the baccalaureate or CFGS (Higher Level Training Cycle), while in the case of the father the score is only significantly higher if they have completed second cycle university studies. As for family support, the differences follow a less stable pattern, especially in the case of the mother: those students whose mother achieved a maximum of first or second cycle university studies or studied for the baccalaureate or CFGS (completed or not), obtained significantly lower scores in family support than the remaining groups, while with regards to the father's education, the differences in this factor are only significantly higher if they stated that they do not have studies. The parents' employment status does not create significant differences in any of the factors.



revista española de pedagogía year LXXVI, n. 269, January-April 2018, 55-82

Table 6. Comparison of averages results by different sociodemographic variables.

	F 1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7			
Gender	,					,				
Male	41.83**	14.39	52.76**	22.56	12.93	25.42	11.94**			
Female	39.36**	13.91	55.37**	22.88	12.87	26.03	10.88**			
Year										
Y4 ESO	40.95	14.30	53.89	22.44**	12.95**	25.20**	11.48			
Y1 BACC.	38.99	13.55	54.88	23.91**	12.67**	28.03**	11.11			
Country of birth	Country of birth									
Spain	41.03*	14.10	53.97	22.73	12.97**	25.67	11.15**			
Outside Spain	38.34*	14.33	54.77	22.49	12.58**	25.96	12.66**			
Years in the city			•			•				
<5	40.57	15.63	54.64	21.55	12.55**	26.84	12.39			
6-9	38.26	14.35	54.92	23.46	12.56	25.96	12.96			
10-15	41.62	14.52	54.35	22.57	13.02**	25.21	11.67			
>15	41.00	14.95	52.65	21.57	12.76	23.33	12.05			
Average grade year			•			,				
Fail	46.32	15.01	49.61	22.39	12.67	24.89	13.02			
Pass	41.45**	14.53	53.14**	22.60	12.79	25.52	11.82			
Good	40.65**	14.34	53.94**	23.11	12.80	25.89	11.79			
Very good	38.26**	13.56	56.10**	22.46	13.16**	25.21	10.37**			
Excellent	35.55**	12.14	59.09**	22.55	12.90	24.51	8.44**			
Mother's level of studies			•	'	'	,				
No education	40.42	15.09	51.85	13.18	12.32	25.85	13.72			
Primary education completed	39.24	13.36	54.45	23.25	12.71	25.91	11.92			
Baccalaureate or CFGS incomplete	40.38	14.35	54.83	22.39	12.80	25.78	11.29**			
Baccalaureate or CFGS complete	39.69	13.61	54.91	22.94	13.05**	25.93	10.48**			
Incomplete university studies	41.24	14.22	55.13	22.29	13.06**	25.66	1159			
University studies 1st cycle	41.45	13.27	54.18	22.29	13.05**	26.18	10.55**			
University studies 2nd cycle	43.73	14.04	53.13	21.71	13.30**	25.19	10.53**			

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7		
Father's level of studies									
No education	42.66	14.93	51.81	24.42	12.63	25.29	12.53**		
Primary education completed	39.41	13.69	53.74	22.62	12.68	26.30	11.63		
Baccalaureate or CFGS incomplete	40.65	14.12	54.91	23.03	12.98	25.87	11.99		
Baccalaureate or CFGS complete	39.75	13.81	54.89	22.04	13.05	25.69	10.54		
Incomplete university studies	38.82	14.34	54.46	22.44	13.05	25.46	11.17		
University studies 1st cycle	41.96	13.53	54.05	22.03	13.12	25.83	10.55		
University studies 2nd cycle	42.96	14.21	54.21	22.27	13.20**	24.83	11.26		
Mother's employment status									
Working	40.80	14.03	54.15	22.70	12.99	25.59	11.36		
Unemployed	40.47	14.37	53.76	22.88	12.69	25.90	11.52		
Retired	39.81	13.81	53.55	21.64	12.81	25.67	11.05		
Father's employment status									
Working	40.63	14.17	54.14	22.46	13.01	25.70	11.33		
Unemployed	39.58	13.95	53.87	23.08	12.43	25.97	11.18		
Retired	39.97	13.50	53.68	23.04	12.98	25.35	10.94		

Source: Own elaboration.

NOTE: F1: School environment; F2: Relationship with classmates; F3: Personal expectations; F4: Social capital; F5: ITC study resources; F6: Climate in class; F7: Family support.

* $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$

4. Discussion

In this study, the internal structure and psychometric properties of the QDSS in a sample of 858 students from year 4 of ESO and year one of Baccalaureate (2014-15) was analysed. The analysis of the socio-demographic variables confirms the absence of bias and confirms that the sample is representative of other metropolitan areas of Spain. If year of birth is considered, 89.5% of the participants have not had to repeat a school year and just a 4% of them had obtained an aver-

age grade for the year of *fail*. The data point towards a common phenomenon in secondary education: early school leaving by students who have had to repeat a year when they turn 16 (year 3 of ESO or first term of year 4 of ESO). Therefore, we consider that the sample is more focussed on success and fits well with the objective of our research.

With regards to the validation of the QDSS, after performing a non-orthogonal PCA and weighing up different factorial solutions, the solution with 7 factors dis-



played the greatest theoretical coherence and best psychometric adequacy. Following statistical and rational criteria, 21 of the 86 initially designed items were eliminated, and so the final version comprises 65 items.

The version presented has good psychometric properties, providing a theoretically coherent factorial structure with acceptable reliability in the factors. Only factors 4 and 5 obtained a low consistency, however, they have been retained owing to their theoretical usefulness, given that they make it possible to consider social capital and ITC resources for study as potential factors in educational success (Bravo and Verdugo, 2007; Moliner, 2008; OCDE, 2013; Pedró, 2012; Pozo et al., 2012).

The initial questionnaire structure had 9 factors, resulting from the theoretical research that had been performed. Of these factors, 6 were kept after the statistical analysis (Table 4): relationship with classmates, personal expectations, social capital, access to study resources (focussed on access to ITC resources), climate in class, and family support. And one factor was created, which was called school environment, that combines items from the initial theoretical factors: Student-teacher trust, Teaching-learning model, and Inclusion in the school. Although the differences could theoretically be established, it may be the case that students differ little between teaching/didactic methods and their perception of help, welcoming, and good treatment by the teacher. On the other hand, the behaviour of the items from the initial Inclusion in the school factor is clearly polarised between the

general evaluation of the school and the evaluation of the relationship between peers. In summary, feeling that the school is useful or beneficial and good social relations with classmates, would explain the feeling of belonging to the school.

Consequently, we believe that the factorial structure of the QDSS has a good theoretical fit, combining in a single instrument the principal factors that are connected as determinants or precursors of success at school according to the literature (Longás et al., 2016). The final composition of the instrument makes it possible to recognise the existence of school, family, and community determinants. The importance of personal expectations as a driver of success is in itself an individual factor that is constructed both inside and outside school in interaction with other people (Longás, et al., 2016). From the set of factors, it is worth noting the recognition of the social or relational dimension of success at school. Therefore, while social capital as a factor does not have a high consistency, relationship with classmates and family support, as well as particular school environment items, could add to the reflection on this interesting construct as explaining success at school (Coleman, 1988).

The behaviour of the factors by socio-demographic variables also requires a brief discussion. Various studies that link gender and success at school show that female students have lower rates of early school leaving and a larger percentage of them complete higher education (Calero et al., 2010). Our research might indicate an explanatory factor. The determinant factors of greater success in male students are, with a significant difference, *school*



environment and family support, both of which are extrinsic to the person, while for female students the factor with significantly higher values is personal expectations. This factor, which is intrinsic, could more consistently shape success in their school career (Torres-Acosta et al., 2013). Something similar might explain better results in some factors (social capital and climate in the classroom) for the baccalaureate educational level where students have a more clearly defined pathway and are integrated into more demanding levels that require greater autonomy and responsibility (Roorda et al., 2011; Pàmies, 2013; Santana and Feliciano, 2011). The characteristics of the responsible personality, not measured in the QDSS, could explain the differences in the significantly lower perception of family support, something that is vital for success when there are levels of low personal autonomy or of psychological immaturity.

The high rating of *school environment* by students with low average grades could be an implicit recognition of the school's assistance in their trajectory, while low *personal expectations* would be a consequence of a school career with limited success (possible reverse causality).

Comparing Spanish students and foreign ones reveals differences that are difficult to explain. The high scores in favour of the Spanish students, in *school environment* and *ITC resources* might be because of better integration, while high *family support* in immigrant students is a more decisive factor for people who must integrate into a culture and educational system different to those of their country of origin.

Regarding the parents' level of studies, the significantly higher values in ITC resources correspond with higher levels of education, which as well as greater sensitivity can also indicate greater economic resources. As for family support, this is significantly higher if the mother has low levels of education or the father has very low ones. It is worth evaluating whether a greater or lesser presence of the parents in the home has an influence on the students' views of situations of unemployment or employability difficulties that relate to the levels of education - something that our results appear not to support even though other studies do (Collet and Tort, 2011; García Alegre, 2012) - or indirectly the influence of parents' levels of education on family models and the degree of development of the children's autonomy.

5. Conclusions

The good psychometric properties of the QDSS allow a broad and parsimonious evaluation of what the main determinant factors are for success at school in deprived backgrounds.

Our results must be considered in the light of certain limitations. On the one hand, we only have self-reported data, something that could imply bias owing to possible intentionality in the responses (social desirability or exaggerating difficulties, for example). Furthermore, the sample mainly comprises Caucasian subjects, something that might reduce the generalisability of its results to people from other cultures. How success at school is evaluated is also a limitation; the aver-



age grade for the last completed year was chosen as the measure of the dependent variable for this study, although other information such as the number of fails per evaluation or average grades in core subjects are also used in other research and are just as open to criticism. This decision made it possible to have objective and reliable information, provided by the schools, in light of the impossibility of having standardised tests of competencies for all of the components of the sample.

We believe that combined use of the QDSS with the other validated instruments mentioned in this article opens up opportunities for research into success at school. Therefore, we offer the academic community a questionnaire that quickly and reliably evaluates the factors that might decide it.

References

- Archambault, I., Janosz, M., Morizot, J. and Pagani, L. (2009). Adolescent Behavioral, Affective and Cognitive Engagement in School: Relationship to Dropout. *Journal of School Health*, 79 (9), 408-415.
- Belfield, C. (2008). The cost of early school-leaving and school failure. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Berliner, D. C. (2009). Poverty and Potential: Outof-School Factors and School Success. Boulder and Tempe: Education and the Public Interest Center & Education Policy Research Unit. Retrieved from http://epicpolicy.org/publication/ poverty-and-potential (Consulted on March 28, 2015).
- Boada, C., Herrera, D., Mas, E., Miñarro, E., Olivella, M. and Riudor, X. (Dir.) (2011). Informe sobre el risc de fracàs escolar a Catalunya.

- Col·lecció Estudis i Informes, (26). Barcelona: Consell de Treball, Econòmic i Social de Catalunya (Generalitat de Catalunya).
- Bonal, X., Tarabini, A., Constans, M., Kliczkowski, F. and Valiente, O. (2010). Ser pobre en la escuela. Habitus de pobreza y condiciones de educabilidad. Barcelona: Miño y Dávila.
- Bravo, M. and Verdugo, S. (2007). Gestión escolar y éxito académico en condiciones de pobreza. Revista Electrónica Iberoamericana sobre Calidad, Eficacia y Cambio en Educación, 5,121-144.
- Buja, A. and Eyuboglu, N. (1992). Remarks on Parallel Analysis. *Multivariate Behavioural Research*, 27 (4), 509-540.
- Brunello, G. and Da Paola, M. (2013). The costs of early school leaving in Europe, IZA Discussion Paper, 7791. Bonn: IZA.
- Calero, J. and Escardibul, J. O. (2007). Evaluación de servicios educativos: el rendimiento en los centros públicos y privados medido en PISA-2003. Hacienda Pública Española / Revista de Economía Pública, 183, 33-66.
- Calero, J., Chois, K. and Waisgrais, S. (2010). Determinantes del riesgo de fracaso escolar en España: una aproximación a través de un análisis logístico multinivel aplicado a PISA-2006. Revista de Educación, special number 2010, 225-256.
- Canals, J. (2002). Estudi de fiabilitat i validesa del CSI-4. Doctoral thesis, Tarragona: Universitat Rovira i Virgili.
- Carpenter, H., Cummings, C., Dyson, A., Jones, L., Laing, K., Oseman, D. and Todd, L. (2010). Extended services evaluation: end of year one report. Research report, dfe-rr016. London: Department for Education. Retrieved from https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eorderingdownload/dfe-rr016.pdf
- Cattell, R. B. (1966). The Scree test for the number of factors. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 1 (2), 245–276.



Development and validation of a questionnaire about determinants of academic ...

- Choi, A. and Calero, J. (2013). Determinantes del riesgo de fracaso escolar en España en PISA-2009 y propuestas de reforma. Revista de Educación, 362, 562-593.
- Civís, M. and Longás, J. (2015). La colaboración interinstitucional como respuesta al desafío de la inclusión socioeducativa. Análisis de 4 experiencias de trabajo en red a nivel local en Cataluña. *Educación XX1*, 18 (1), 213-236. doi:10.5944/educXX1.18.1.12318
- Coleman, J. C. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital, American Journal of Sociology, 94, S95-S120.
- Collet, J. and Tort, A. (2011). Famílies, escola i èxit. Millorar els vincles per millorar els resultats. Barcelona: Fundació Jaume Bofill.
- Cordero, J. M., Crespo, E. and Santín, D. (2010). Factors affecting educational attainment: evidence from Spanish PISA 2006 results. Regional and Sectoral Economic Studies, 10, 55-76.
- Costa, P. T. and McCrae, R. (2008). Inventario de personalidad NEO reducido de cinco factores (NEO-FFI). (3rd. Ed.) Madrid: TEA Ediciones.
- Costa-Tutusaus, Ll. and Guerra-Balic, M. (2016).

 Development and psychometric validation of a scoring questionnaire to assess healthy lifestyles among adolescents in Catalonia. *BMC Public Health*, 16 (89).
- Depalma, R., Matusov, E. and Smith, M. (2009).

 Smuggling Authentic Learning into the School
 Context: Transitioning From an Innovative
 Elementary to a Conventional High School.
 Teachers College Record, 111 (4), 934-972.
- Escudero, J. and Martínez, B (2012). Las políticas de lucha contra el fracaso escolar: ¿programas especiales o cambios profundos del sistema y la educación? *Revista de Educación*, special number 2012, 174-193.
- Eurostat (2015). Europe 2020 education indicators in 2014. The EU is moving closer to its Europe 2020 goals on education. Retrie-

- ved from http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/2995521/6787423/3-20042015-BP-EN.pdf/b2f295ba-2e15-409c-bec9-91c4e49c5d32 (Consulted on May 5, 2015).
- European Commission (2010). Europe 2020: A strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth. Brussels: European Commission. Retrieved from http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2010:2020:-FIN:ES:PDF
- European Commission (2011). Comunicación de la comisión al Parlamento Europeo, al Consejo, al Comité Económico y Social Europeo y al Comité de las Regiones. Abordar el abandono escolar prematuro: una contribución clave a la agenda europea 2020. Brussels: European Commission. Retrieved from: http://ec.europa.eu/education/school-education/doc/earlycom es.pdf
- Fernández-Enguita, M., Mena, L. and Riviere, J. (2010). Fracaso y abandono escolar en España. Barcelona: Colección Estudios Sociales, Obra Social La Caixa.
- Ferrer, F. and Albaigés, B. (2008). L'estat de l'esducació a Catalunya. Anuari 2006. Volum II. Barcelona: Fundació Jaume Bofill and Editorial Mediterrània.
- Flecha, R., García, R., Gómez, A. and Latorre, A. (2009). Participación en escuelas de éxito: una investigación comunicativa del proyecto Includ-ed. Cultura y Educación, 21, 183-196.
- Flecha, R. and L. Puigvert, L. (2002). La Comunidad de Aprendizaje: Una Apuesta por la igualdad educativa. *REXE: Revista de Estudios y Experiencias En Educación*, 1, 11–20.
- Geddes, H. (2010). El apego en el aula. Barcelona: Grao.
- Gil-Flores, J. (2011). Estatus socioeconómico de las familias y resultados educativos logrados por el alumnado. Cultura y Educación, 23 (1), 141-154.
- Goldthorpe, J. (2000). On sociology. Oxford: Oxford University Press.



- Guio, A. C. and Marlier, E. (2013). Alternative vs. current measures of material deprivation at EU level: What differences does it make? Im-PRovE Discussion Paper No. 13/07. Antwerp: Improve.
- Hanushek, E. and Woessmann, L. (2010). The Economics of International Differences in Educational Achievement. Working Paper 15949. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Hatcher, R. and Leblond, I. (2001). Education Action Zones and Zones d'Education Prioritaires. Conferene Travelling Policy / Local Spaces: Globalisation, Identities and Education Policy in Europe. United Kingdom: Keele University.
- Hernando, A., Oliva, A. and Pertegal, M. A. (2012).
 Variables familiares y rendimiento académico en la adolescencia. *Estudios de Psicología*, 33, 51-56.
- Hollingshead, A. A. (1975). Four-factor index of social status. Unpublished manuscript. New Haven, CT: Yale University.
- Horn, J. L. (1965). A rationale and test for the number of factors in factor analysis. *Psycome*trika, 30, 179-185.
- Instituto Nacional de Estadística. (2015a). Tasa de paro por nivel de formación alcanzado, sexo y grupo de edad. Encuesta de Población Activa. Resultados nacionales, 1r trimestre 2015. Madrid: INE. Retrieved from http://www.ine.es/jaxiT3/Tabla.htm?t=6393
- Instituto Nacional de Estadística. (2015b). Tasa de riesgo de pobreza o exclusión social (estrategia Europa 2020) por nivel de formación alcanzado (personas de 16 y más años). Encuesta de Condiciones de Vida. Series Base 2013. Resultados nacionales. Published on 26 May 2015. Madrid: INE. Retrieved from http://www.ine.es/jaxiT3/Tabla.htm?t=4674&L=0
- Izquierdo, I., Olea, J. and Abad, F. (2014). Exploratory factor analysis in validation studies:

- Uses and recommendations. *Psicothema*, 26 (3), 395-400.
- Jeynes, W. H. (2007). The relation between parental involvement and urban secondary school student academic achievement: A meta-analysis. *Urban Education* 42, 82-110. doi. org/10.1177/0042085906293818
- Jolonch, A. (2008). Exclusió social. Dels marges al cor de la societat. Barcelona: Fundació Lluís Carulla-ESADE, Col·lecció Observatori dels Valors
- León, O. G. and Montero, I. (2015). Métodos de investigación en Psicología y Educación (5th Ed.). Madrid: McGraw Hill.
- Longás, J., Cussó, I., de Querol, R. and Riera, J. (2016). Análisis de factores de apoyo a trayectorias de éxito escolar en la enseñanza secundaria en contextos de pobreza y vulnerabilidad social en España. Un estudio de casos múltiples. Revista de Estudios y Experiencias en Educación, 15 (28), 107-127.
- Maccoby, E. and Martín, J. (2006). Socialization in the context of the family: Parent-child interaction. In Hetherington, E. (Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology* (pp. 1-101). NY: Wiley.
- Marchesi, A. and Hernández, C. (Coord.) (2003).
 El fracaso escolar. Una perspectiva internacional. Madrid: Alianza.
- Marcus, R. F. and Sanders-Reio, J. (2001). The influence of attachment on school completion. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 16 (4), 427-444.
- Mena, L., Fernández-Enguita, M. and Riviere, J. (2010). Desenganchados de la educación: procesos, experiencias, motivaciones y estrategias del abandono y del fracaso escolar. Revista de Educación, special number 2010, 119-145.
- Miller, P. (2016). Liderazgo de intermediación en entornos complejos. *Pedagogía Social Revista Interuniversitaria*, 28, 17-24.
- Moliner, O. (2008). Condiciones, procesos y circunstancias que permiten avanzar hacia la inclusión educativa: retomando las aportaciones



Development and validation of a questionnaire about determinants of academic ...

- de la experiencia canadiense. Revista Electrónica Iberoamericana Sobre Calidad, Eficacia y Cambio En Educación, 6, 27–44.
- Murillo, J. F. and Román, M. (2011). School infrastructure and resources do matter: analysis of the incidence of school resources on the performance of Latin American students. School effectiveness and school improvement, 22 (1), 29-50.
- OECD(2013). PISA 2012 Results: Excellence Through Equity: Giving Every Student the Chance to Succeed (Volume II), PISA, OECD Publishing. doi: org/10.1787/9789264201132-en
- WHO (2013). Review of social determinants and the health divide in the WHO European Region: final report. Retrieved from http://www.euro. who.int/__data/assets/pdf_file/0004/251878/Review-of-social-determinants-and-the-heal-th-divide-in-the-WHO-European-Region-FI-NAL-REPORT.pdf?ua=1
- Pàmies, J. (2013). The impact of groupings in school. Spaces of learning and sociability for Moroccan youth in Barcelona. Revista de Educación, 362, 133–158.
- Pedró, F. (2012). Políticas públicas sobre apoyo y refuerzo educativo: evidencias internacionales. Revista de Educación, special number 2012, pp. 22-45.
- Pozo, M. T., Suárez, M. and García-Cano, M. (2012). Logros educativos y diversidad en la escuela: hacia una definición desde el consenso. Revista de Educación, 358, 59-84.
- Renée, M. and McAlister, M. (2011). The strengths and challenges of community organizing as an education reform strategy: what the research says. Annenberg institute for school reform at brown university, Quincy, MA: Nellie Mae Education Foundation.
- Rivkin, S., Hanushek, E. and Kain, J. (2005). Teachers, school and academic achievement. *Econometrica*, 73 (2), 417-458.
- Rodríguez, H., Rios, O. and Racionero, S. (2012). Reframing Compensatory Education through

- Scientific Evidence. Inclusive Actions for Equality of Results. *Revista de Educación*, special number 2012, 67-87.
- Roman, S., Cuestas, P. J. and Fenollar, P. (2008). An examination of the interrelationships between self-esteem, others' expectations, family support, learning approaches and academic achievement. *Studies in higher education*, 33 (2), 127-138.
- Roorda, D., Koomen, H., Spilt, J. and Oort, F. (2011). The influence of affective teacher-student relationships on students' school engagement and achievement: A meta-analytic approach. Review of Educational Research, 81 (4), 493-529.
- Sánchez, E. and García-Rodicio, H. (2006). Re-lectura del estudio PISA: qué y cómo se evalúa e interpreta el rendimiento de los alumnos en la lectura. Revista de Educación, special number 2006, 195-226.
- Santana, L.E. and Feliciano, L. (2011). Parents' and teachers' perceived support, self-concept and decision making in high school students. *Revista de Educación*, 355, 493-519.
- Sarasa, S. and Sales, A. (2009). Itineraris i Factors d'Exclusió Social. Barcelona: Ajuntament de Barcelona, Síndic de Greuges de Barcelona.
- Smith, R. (2003). Research and Revelation: What Really Works. In: P. Smeyers and M. Depaepe (Eds.), *Beyond Empiricism: On Criteria for Educational Research* (pp. 129-140). Leuven: Leuven University Press.
- Thompson, B. (2004). Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Understanding Concepts and Applications. Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.
- Torres-Acosta, N.D., Rodríguez-Gómez, J. and Acosta-Vargas, M. (2013). Personalidad, aprendizaje y rendimiento académico en medicina. *Investigación en Educación Médica*, 2 (8), 193-201.



Authors' biographies

Jordi Longás Mayayo is a Lecturer of the Blanquerna-Universitat Ramon Llull Faculty of Psychology, Educational Sciences and Sports. He coordinated the R+D on Education Success in Contexts of Vulnerability and he is the Executive Director of the Scientific Management Team of the CaixaProinfancia program at Obra Social «La Caixa». His main lines of research focus on academic success, socio-educational networks, school management and teachers welfare.

Elena Carrillo Álvarez is Lecturer at the Blanquerna-Universitat Ramon Llull Faculty of Health Sciences, Main Researcher of the research group Global Research on Wellbeing (GRoW) and member of the Spanish Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics. Her research focuses on: the promotion of a healthy diet in different socioeconomic groups and the development of socio-educational governance networks that connect social, education and health agents, from a health determinants perspective.

Albert Fornieles Deu holds a PhD in Psychology from Universidad de Barcelona (1995) with bachelor's degrees in Psychology (UB 1989) and Social and Cultural Anthropology (UNED 2006). He is currently working with the Blanquerna Foundation in the project «Research on school success in contexts of poverty and social vulnerability at the Spanish State level». He also participates in the project «Food insecurity, weight discrimination, eating disorders and psychological well-being in Spanish adolescents».

Jordi Riera Romaní is Professor of Education at Blanquerna-Universitat Ramon Llull, in the Blanquerna Faculty of Psychology, Educational Sciences and Sports. He has been Head of the Department of Education and Dean of the same Faculty (1996-2004), and is currently Vice Chancellor of Academic Policy and Deputy Rector of Universidad Ramón Llull. He is also Principal Investigator of the Consolidated Research Group of «Pedagogy, Society and Innovation with the support of ICT (PSITIC)».

Kohlberg's moral education proposal and its legacy at university: present and future

La propuesta de educación moral de Kohlberg y su legado en la universidad: actualidad y prospectiva

Carmen CARO SAMADA, PhD. Lecturer. International University of La Rioja (UNIR) (carmen.caro@unir.net). Josu AHEDO RUIZ, PhD. Lecturer. International University of La Rioja (UNIR) (josu.ahedo@unir.net). Francisco ESTEBAN BARA, PhD. Senior Lecturer. Universitat de Barcelona (franciscoesteban@ub.edu).

Abstract:

Kohlberg's theory about the development of moral judgement is regarded as being very important in educational practice. This article addresses his legacy and his influence in the current educational setting. especially at university level. It will also try to note possible criticisms and misinterpretations of his ideas. To this end, relevant literature relating to the author will be analvsed and discussed. There are two areas of the current university pedagogical model that draw on Kohlberg as a source: an increase in methodologies that address ethical dilemmas and the idea of bringing the university closer to reality, promoting it as a community service. The article concludes with a discussion of possible deficiencies resulting from Kohlberg's theories. Areas discussed include the current approach to university education in terms of competencies, the pursuit of utility as a trend in university pedagogy, and the importance of understanding cultural formation linked to moral education and the vital system of community ideas.

Keywords: moral education, moral development, role of teachers, competency-based education, university.

Resumen:

La teoría del desarrollo del juicio moral de Kohlberg ha tenido una gran importancia en la práctica educativa. Este artículo aborda el legado e influencia de Kohlberg en el contexto educativo actual, especialmente universitario. Además tratará de señalar las posibles críticas y malas interpretaciones que de dichas ideas se hayan realizado. Esto se llevará a cabo mediante el análisis y discusión de bibliografía relevante sobre el autor. En el caso del modelo pedagógico vigente en la universidad hay dos aspectos que beben de la fuente kohlberiana: el incremento de las metodologías que abordan dilemas éticos y la idea de acercar la universidad a la reali-

Revision accepted: 2017-09-13.

This is the English version of an article originally printed in Spanish in issue 269 of the **revista española de pedagogía**. For this reason, the abbreviation EV has been added to the page numbers. Please, cite this article as follows: Caro Samada, C., Ahedo Ruiz, J., & Esteban Bara, F. (2018). La propuesta de educación moral de Kohlberg y su legado en la universidad: actualidad y prospectiva | *Kohlberg's moral education proposal and its legacy at university: present and future. Revista Española de Pedagogía, 76 (269), 85-100. doi: https://doi.org/10.22550/REP76-1-2018-04*



85 EV

dad, fomentando que sea un servicio a la comunidad. El artículo concluye señalando las posibles contrariedades que se derivan de ello. Así se discute el planteamiento actual de la formación universitaria en términos de competencias, la búsqueda de la utilidad como tendencia de la pedagogía universitaria

y la importancia de entender la formación cultural ligada a la educación moral y al sistema vital de las ideas de una comunidad

Descriptores: educación moral, desarrollo moral, rol del docente, educación basada en las competencias, universidad.

1. Introduction

The impact of Kohlberg's theory can be gauged by how often his articles are cited in academic works. Kohlberg has a total of 116 publications: 12 books, 45 contributions to joint works, 3 entries in encyclopaedias, and 56 academic articles (Pérez Delgado, Frías, and Pons, 1988). His work was frequently cited in the early 1980s: 526 times in 1980, 545 in 1981, and 502 in 1982. His theory attracted great interest because schools in the United States were looking for a model for transmitting values, something they found in his indirect neutral model based on the idea of the student's interaction with the environment (Ryan, 1992). While many recent academic works have shown an interest in Kohlberg (Robles, 2013; Gibbs, 2014; Díaz Serrano, 2015; Zizek, Garz, and Nowak, 2015; González Córcoles, 2017), the initial impact of his approach appears to have diminished in recent years. This article sets out to examine Lawrence Kohlberg and his thinking and locate them in the context of current university educational practice, a topic that has perhaps been somewhat forgotten in later discussion of his approach. Therefore, it will, on the one hand, comprise a reflection on the ideas

that his theory provides and their reception in the world of education, especially university education, and, on the other hand, criticisms of his approach and its future in the university context will be considered.

2. Lawrence Kohlberg in the social and educational context of the United States in the second half of the 20th century

The topic of moral education has been of concern in all eras and in recent decades interest in it has increased. Kohlberg, who is now regarded as the most important figure of recent years in the field of moral development, came to prominence in the 20th century. The originality of his thought, and his capacity to bring together his knowledge of different disciplines (psychology, philosophy, etc.) make him the most influential researcher in this area. His early experience in Europe with the Holocaust and as a volunteer with Jewish refugees probably shaped his life and his educational and philosophical thinking. Kohlberg's thought must therefore be situated in the educational. historical, and social context of the second



half of the 20th century. This will help to understand its reception in the academic world, especially the university setting, this article's area of interest.

As stated above, the moral education of new generations has been a constant concern in educational practice. Throughout history a variety of currents have tried to answer the question of how people acquire moral attitudes and habits. Two main focuses can be identified in recent years: on the one hand, the conventional school of thought, and, on the other, the values clarification movement. In the former, the learner internalises a series of values of the society she lives in through the socialisation process. In this system, moral education would be based on presenting values based on tradition. This normative approach, based on assimilating values, is typical of currents such as character education or social learning theory. In the early 1970s, the values clarification focus appeared in reaction to this position with the idea that each person decides on her own values for herself (Fernández Herrero, 1993). This focus began with the publication of the book Values and Teaching by Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966), influenced by the oeuvre of John Dewey. This is a focus that appeared in the setting of the USA in the 1960s and 1970s, a period of profound social and political change. It aims to emphasise a neutral attitude by asserting that there is no objective foundation for morals. Teachers do not teach values but instead their function is to encourage children to clarify their own values, thus avoiding any attempt at indoctrination, a fear that partly underlay criticisms of character education. Moral education thus presents an individualist vision based around simple personal choice, underscoring moral relativism (Naval, 2000).

The cognitive-evolutionary focus, which Kohlberg is part of, is a counterpart to these two schools of thought. In this school of thought, morality is rational, in other words, it is based on rational principles and is the heir of the Kantian moral tradition. For this reason, the autonomy of the subject is sought. At the same time, just as Naval (2000) states, rational principles will be universal and so react to the relativism of schools of thought such as values clarification. Kohlberg's oeuvre and thinking are therefore located within the cognitive-evolutionary focus in moral education, where the development of moral judgement has a fundamental role. In this model, the subject is expected to progress from one stage of moral judgement to another higher one. The task of moral education is, in this case, to make this ascent possible through the appropriate strategies and techniques for promoting moral reflection. Kohlberg's research (1987) discusses three levels of moral development (pre-conventional, conventional, and post-conventional level), with two stages each. These stages are universal in all cultures and traditions. According to Fuentes (2013), the final stage is the highest point of development and maturity and is the same for all human beings. The individual successively moves from one stage to another successively without moving backwards. Kohlberg thus underlines the importance of moral judgement and of stimulation in post-conventional stages.



This theory is rooted in liberalism. where the person is a complete reality in itself, the source of her rights. It is not, therefore, a matter of acquiring the moral values of the society one lives in, but of developing students' moral judgement through moral dilemmas. The sources of this theory are Kant, Dewey, and Piaget. Kant maintains that the person is autonomous and acts morally when responding to her conscience. Dewey's influence above all lies in the idea of education as development, here applied to moral education. He presents three levels of moral development, in the last of which the individual decides what is moral independently of the group (Dewey, 1975, 1998). Kohlberg's theory, in contrast, is deeply rooted in Piaget's thinking. For Piaget, moral judgement is a cognitive process that develops naturally; he refers to stages in moral development and regards moral education as the move from one mental structure to another more developed one (Piaget, 1987). According to Goñi (1998), in Kohlberg's historical and academic context there starts to be a greater receptiveness to Piaget's theories, obviously because of his growing influence, but above all, because it is understood that regarding morality as the result of unconscious processes or processes from social learning leads to relativism. Given the historical and political climate of that era, this led to positions that were hard to justify. Kohlberg was one of the many American psychologists who returned to Piaget's work and built on it.

Kohlberg's theory of moral development has been the target of a variety of criticisms, some which are listed below because of their importance for the objective of this work, namely to examine its academic reception in the university world and relating this reception to its subsequent legacy.

One of the most important criticisms relates to the formalism of Kohlberg's approach, given that it ignores the emotional and affective aspects that are present in moral actions. Furthermore, Kohlberg also rejects the teaching of content in moral education, regarding it as an obstacle to the development of the autonomy of moral judgement. These two criticisms were made by Peters (1984), who asserts the emotional and affective elements of any moral action. Peters also notes the shortcomings of the Kohlberg's position regarding content in moral education, as he avoids the task of acquiring habits, which he considers to be opposed to the development of the autonomy of the subject. Peters specifically notes that the last two of Kohlberg's stages comprise the «bag of virtues» he rejects (such as justice, for example).

Another group of criticisms are those made by his disciple Carol Gilligan (1977, 1982) and by Noddings (1984) based on the ethics of feminist care. These authors identify the need to reclaim the domain of care, traditionally linked to the moral identity of women. Following these criticisms, Kohlberg added an Aristotelian perspective, complementing the formalist dimension, and spoke of a new moral principle, responsible love, care, directing his attention to particular everyday settings (Gozálvez and Jover, 2016).



We find additional criticisms made by communitarian thinkers. The so-called liberal-communitarian debate also occurred in the educational sphere (Mulhall and Swift, 1996). Kohlberg's thinking, as we have seen, is rooted in an individualist vision. It does not reject the social and communitarian dimension, but it does subordinate it to individual development. Support for moral autonomy is the predominant idea in the so-called discussion of dilemmas. Kohlberg attempted to enrich this vision with his later Just School approach, following the criticisms of his theory, and after his experiences in the kibbutzim in Israel that underlined the value of belonging to a group in moral growth. In the Just School he attempted to propose an educational model that would facilitate the democratic governance of the school, in which democracy would be understood as a pathway for experiencing human existence where the educational community openly debates norms and any problems that arise. The idea of the Just Community is understood in the context of the 1970s, when there was a special concern in American society with creating school structures that would encourage decision-making by young people (Elorrieta-Grimalt, 2012). By introducing the idea of the collective, Kohlberg thus recognised the limitations of his theory (Kohlberg and Reimer, 1997).

Despite these criticisms, Bolívar (1987) states that it is also necessary to recognise the virtualities of this approach by Kohlberg: the cognitive element (moral judgement) is a pre-requisite for conscious moral action, and it is what can most easily be worked on in the academic

context of a class, respecting moral autonomy (p. 405).

Consequently, this article will provide a brief overview of the historical, social, and academic setting in which Kohlberg developed his most important research into the moral development of the person. These reflections had a strong echo in the field of moral education, at the same time that the main criticism of his theory was appearing. The reception of Kohlberg's approach in academic practice will be considered below, along with its consequences in the educational sphere.

3. Kohlberg's reception in educational practice

Kohlberg and his theory of the development of moral judgement have had a notable influence on educational practice, in schools and universities, despite not formulating a pedagogic theory. This influence, which in the middle of the last century was truly revolutionary, has mainly affected the current pedagogical model in universities, since Kohlberg's popularity as a Harvard professor meant that many university teachers were interested in his approach. The question is why Kohlberg attained worldwide fame. Gordillo (1992) claims that this is because Kohlberg's thinking is very systematic. Similarly, DeVries (1991) states that Kohlberg achieved something important in making research on moral development into a part of education, a matter that had previously been belittled as a subject worthy of being taught.

The theory of cognitive development certainly caught the attention of the ed-



ucational community, but its success was not as prominent, probably because Piaget and his disciples attempted a moralised psychology while Kohlberg tried to psychologise morality (Lapsley and Narváez, 2005). The truly novel thing that captivated university teachers is that Kohlberg proposed morality as a fundamental topic in evolutionary psychology, thus reconciling moral psychology and moral philosophy (Lapsley and Narváez, 2005).

There is no question that it is fair to thank him for having created a new sensitivity towards ethical education at school (Ryan, 1992). His approach also appealed to teachers because it presented education as progress when suggesting moral development as the aim of education (Kohlberg and Rochelle, 1972). What stands out is that Kohlberg creates a systematic framework for progress towards attaining the virtue of justice, put forward as the aim of educational work (Elorrieta-Grimat, 2012). In this area, Kohlberg's merit lies in his having been able to develop a systematic theory of human activity, providing a means suitable to be pedagogically teached. As such, his contribution lies in combining a philosophy of justice with a systematised psychological theory to be applied as a moral education programme (Escámez, 1991). Furthermore, Kohlberg presented his theory with a serious and attractive conceptual foundation, facilitating its positive reception in the university setting (Mesa, 2012).

Kohlberg's theory is a search for the universality of the moral norm to avoid ethical relativism, ultimately attempting to solve the individual and social relativity of values (Nuevalos, 1997). According

to Nuevalos, this universality is not guaranteed by the content of the norm, but by the structure of moral judgement. This explains how his theory of stages as a process for moral development is an attempt to justify this universality. The universal nature of the norm requires us to accept that moral development is based on the cognitive-biological development of each human being, as only in that way can Kohlberg guarantee that moral development is identical for all human beings.

Kohlberg's notable influence can be seen in four areas of education: firstly, in a type of teaching based on incentivising learning that contrasts with traditional education based on knowledge transfer through memorising content; secondly, the role of teachers is modified because their function is no longer to instil values, but instead to help construct them; thirdly, the appearance of a new pedagogical methodology, based on the use of moral dilemmas in the classroom, anchored in reflection and dialogue as a communication technique to encourage interpersonal interaction in this way; fourthly, the educational relationship between the teacher and the student ceases to be hierarchical because the teacher is neutral and must not adopt a superior position towards the student, given that his educational task is to stimulate learning, thus staving off possible accusations of indoctrination.

The teaching that underpins Kohlberg's moral education is not based on teaching a moral code presented as content, since this course of action would involve neglecting reflection and the student's critical spirit. Kohlberg proposes a



formal education because he upholds that Piaget's distinction between what is (heteronomous morality) and what should be (autonomous morality) implies that the change in moral conduct requires modifying moral and logical structures (García, 1998). Accordingly, the expected result of moral education is the autonomy of the subject who cannot be uncoupled from the responsibility to do good.

The rejection of content transfer involves losing the sense of character education because educating for acquiring habits entails non-reflexive and unconscious behaviour. Kohlberg disparages Aristotelian virtue, ridiculing the ineffectiveness of this teaching with his famous reference to a bag of virtues1 regarding the ineffectiveness of transmitting moral content. Instead, he argues that doing good is a consequence of developing moral judgements about the goodness of an action. Kohlberg not only sees moral judgement as a necessary condition for doing good, but, according to his theory, it is even sufficient for doing good. In reference to this, Linde (2009) states that Kohlberg errs on the side of excessive anthropological optimism. Kohlberg's theory can be criticised as, if an individual makes a good moral judgement, it does not necessarily follow that her/his conduct will match this judgement. This loss of content as teaching material entails a change in the figure of the teacher, as in-depth knowledge of what is to be transmitted is no longer essential.

To some extent, Kohlberg contributed to modifying didactic methodology by shifting pedagogical interest from the lecture to reflection and dialogue. The

question is whether this undervaluation of content really involved a methodological change in other fields of knowledge, both in the university sphere and at the school level. Nonetheless, this model of moral education that entails a need to modify teaching methods has acted as a reference point for new pedagogical theories that focus more on *know-how* than on *knowledge*.

Kohlberg (1976) maintains that to follow principles it is necessary to understand them. Therefore, the purpose of education is not to convince through arguments because the child must learn with experiences she herself has created. In this sense, Dewey (1975) affirmed that it is important to know what to do and how to do it. Kohlberg postulates that to do good, it is necessary to know how to do it rather than knowing what to do. His theory is based on doing rather than knowing, in other words, what relates to the competence-based character of learning. It could, to some degree, be claimed that Kohlberg's approach is a precursor to competence-based education.

With Kohlberg the teacher stops being a moral authority because he is required to be neutral (Ryan, 1992). As a consequence of this, Kohlberg rejects the direct teaching of values, proposing an indirect and essentially neutral model. The role of the teacher is modified because he now must inspire a capacity for independent development in the students through critical debate (Buxarrais, 1992). Nonetheless, if the teacher stops being a moral model, this will affect his commitment to the truth, as he will not be clear about what it is he is to teach. In this sense,



It is not a matter of teachers *imposing* their values. There is no room for authoritarianism. That said, neither is there space for false neutrality or for indifference, and therefore the importance of an education that encourages reflection on what is a life worth living is increasingly insisted upon, something that requires social dialogue to determine the objectives and methods that should be promoted in the school to reach the goal (Ibáñez-Martín, 2017, p. 147).

Kohlberg contributes to methodological change in education with regards to the traditional model. His methodological contribution, based on use of moral dilemmas in a cognitive conflict introduced to the university sphere a question about what the most appropriate methodology would be. In this sense, Kohlberg's methodology was novel. It rejected the technique of analysing values in works of literature since he saw this as a way of embodying the transmission of certain specific values (Ryan, 1992). While it is true that Kohlberg does not directly propose interest as a driver of learning, it is implicit as he advocates stimulating the child's active thought (Santolaria and Jordán, 1987). Kohlberg states that the subject does not internalise social rules, but rather constructs new moral structures (Nuevalos, 1997), confirming that his thinking is based on the constructivist theory of learning, the true foundation of methodological change.

The fourth key is the relationship between teachers and students. The relationship between the teacher and the student is not hierarchical in Kohlberg, as the teacher does not have this position because he knows more than the student, but instead because he stimulates learning. Therefore Buxarrais (1992) affirms that Kohlberg's theory lies in maximising interactions between peers and student-teacher interaction through the proposed teaching methodology. It is vital for the teacher to create an atmosphere of trust that encourages the students' moral development (Palomo, 1989).

This reception of Kohlberg in educational practice has been essential in university education. Nonetheless, some possible deficiencies regarding this influence can be noted.

4. Applying Kohlberg in university education: potential deficiencies

The official documents that shape the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) call on universities to adapt to the reality in which they are located, and these institutions, for their part, have not ignored this way of thinking and have accepted it. Works such as that by UNESCO's prestigious Institute for Educational Planning reflect this (Onushkin, 1973). Over 150 universities from all over the world stated, as long ago as the 1970s, that they had over fifteen priority activities: reorganising existing syllabuses and implementing new ones; designing university extension courses; preparing teaching material, essentially to use the new information and communication technologies; working shoulder to shoulder with the government in power; meeting the training demands of industry; and, educationally speaking, not ignoring their local communities, are



some of them. Everything indicates that the number of activities will grow as the vears pass. It could be said that university education has become deeply integrated the value and social utility that it is claimed it should guarantee (Bok, 1986), that it remains attentive to the changes in professions that the current neoliberal context involves (Gibbs, 2001; Olssen and Peters, 2005), and that university pedagogy is becoming ever more active and participatory (Fry, Ketteridge, and Marshall, 2009). The EHEA replaces a discipline-based educational model with a model focussing on the student (Karseth, 2006). As some research notes, in relation to the last two aspects, this type of action appears to enhance cognitive, competence, and intellectual development (Cookson, 2010).

The question is little different when it comes to the field that really concerns us, that of moral education, ethics, citizenship, humanistics, of character, of what points to the student's growth as a person (Berkowitz, 2012). In this aspect, for example, two pedagogical measures have been taken: on the one hand, the number and variety of methodologies that address moral questions or ethical dilemmas have been increased (Sloam, 2008), and, on the other hand, the university has come closer to reality, with the intention that learning should be a service to the community, and that the community is understood as a place from which one can learn, especially from a moral perspective (Martínez, 2008). That said, this reality that draws on Kohlberg in many senses, is not without possible deficiencies. Three are set out below.

Firstly, university education in recent vears has been reformulated in terms of competencies and these have, principally, been grouped into cognitive, instrumental, and personal ones (González and Wagenaar, 2003). This approach maintains a close relationship with the approach of Lawrence Kohlberg (1985a) who, from his doctoral thesis onwards, strongly influenced by the cognitive theory of Jean Piaget (1964), proposes moral development by stages. Kohlberg's contribution and the substitute Kohlberg-style approaches not only represent a way of conceiving the morphology or making of moral development, or of approaching this development based on diverse educational strategies among which moral dilemmas stand out (Kohlberg, 1985b), but they also symbolise a philosophical meaning of this development; Kohlberg's legacy is the translation of the liberal tradition to the field of education, as according to him, «the paragon of moral development was an autonomous person who could justify moral judgments from an impartial point of view» (Sanderse, 2014, p. 390). Nonetheless, this approach, poses at least three problems.

The first concerns what could be called the finitude of personal competencies in general, and moral ones in particular, something that could not be applied to technical or cognitive competencies. The competence to comprehend a text, manipulate a microscope, draw up a blueprint, or construct a winch, among others, has a beginning and an end, but competence in dialogue, honour, responsibility, or so many others that could be mentioned, are processes that never conclude, in



other words, attaining them is a process that continues through each individual's personal existence. These are long term, questions that occupy the individual all through her life and are usually identified with what for years now has been known as «lifelong learning». Trying to squeeze a limitless objective into a limited and increasingly constrained process is problematic.

The second obstacle concerns the enunciation of ethical and moral competencies. As currently formulated, these have a considerable degree of generality and so put pressure on different aspects of the university educational process, ranging from proposing a syllabus to evaluating these competencies, and including how they are handled in the educational encounter between teachers and students. Competences in dialogue, for example, must be defined in some way as this can easily be conflated with a mere exchange of opinions; it is very debatable whether a student skilled in dialogue is one who systematically displays thoughts, feelings, and emotions, or instead is one who barely participates and goes unnoticed. The former might increasingly move away from a balanced, reasoned, and constructive dialogue, while the latter approaches it little by little.

The third of these problems is a consequence of the previous two. The ongoing nature of personal competencies and their current commonality could combine to foster the impulse and establishment of moral autonomy. If a moral competence is something that is never fully attained and depends on each individual's life experience, it is also something that ends up

being left in the hands of personal autonomy. And if it is also something that exists in the common realm and allows multiple interpretations, it is also something that ends up being entrusted to the self-control that every individual imposes, according to her views or ways of reasoning. All of this leads to the situation in which we now are, in our opinion, where the student proceeds through the moral competencies with a degree of autonomy that allows her to decide and choose how to orient herself before them or even whether she wants to tackle them.

This fact brings to the table a different question than the one raised by Kohlberg's educational models, or, to put it another way, it raises the need for a model of development of the virtuous character or an Aristotelian model of moral development in the university (Sherman, 1989; Kristjánsson, 2007). This model can clarify how one comes to be a member of the university community and a virtuous person, something that constructivist models of moral development take for granted but do not actually explain; unlike the other model, this one can suggest that moral development is not an independent development, but a complex combination of aptitudes and virtues that overlap with other types of development such as emotional, intellectual, or cultural. Finally, this model can clarify something that contemporary moral education has not managed to solve, namely, how mature people attain the plenitude of the moral stage they are in and progresses to the next one.

The second deficiency is that current university pedagogy has followed paths that represent a particular movement



that could be regarded as productive planning or profitable programming. Little of what currently happens in the setting of university education is not exhaustively planned and organised with the objective of taking care of a student who needs and demands a series of types of attention. Despite the successes achieved, this has led to a particular trend; university pedagogy is increasingly dedicated to utility, and to the respect for personal autonomy that this search needs to be effective and efficient. Nonetheless, university pedagogy must also serve another type of university education, one that we have come to refer to as moral excellence. From this perspective, university education enters into the specifically human domain. In this domain, university pedagogy does not set in motion relatively human actions, which, as García Morente notes (2012), are a means for achieving other things, including all of those that nature might provide, and that guarantee individual benefit or advantage. There is no space for technical actions here but instead those others that are an end in themselves, in other words, typically human ones, ones that are moral. In this sense, university education is education in the desire to be a moral person, to strive for the moral high ground, regardless of whether one reaches this peak or stays in the foothills.

Students and teachers should be able to understand clearly the moral domain they are really in, and where we are heading together. This demands serious implementation work, an effective embodiment of what university education is for in a moral sense. It also requires the previous process of ascertaining how to be a university community, in other words, the embodiment we refer to should be envisaged as a means rather than an end. Paraphrasing MacIntyre (1987), university education has a connection to the virtues, all of those qualities that once acquired allow the individual to attain the internal benefits of the practices in which she participates. This means that university education can be approached in several varied ways, but not in all possible ways.

The third and final deficiency is that claiming that contemporary university education is a cultural formation is not new or unusual. Nonetheless, this is a claim that permits different meanings. It can be claimed that university education is the heir to a magnificent and extraordinary tradition, a legacy of ideas, manifestations, and productions that must be conserved with the greatest possible care and transmitted from generation to generation. However, this is a statement that it has never been easy to uphold, and is usually overcome by another way of thinking, namely that the function performed by the classics can also be done by modern and contemporary sources, in other words, the ideas, manifestations, and productions presented by the latter can be just as valid as those ones the former provided. Today it is more effective and useful to come down from the shoulders of giants and set off in search of the new (Bacon, 2004). Scientists and technicians are the basis of the university as an institution, and consequently, direct and organise the education this institution provides. This question is not insignificant:



This has entailed a transformation in the ethos of the academic himself. Before, it comprised awareness of a special responsibility. This not only meant that their results had to be correct, for otherwise a machine somewhere might explode, but it also related to the concept of research and truth as such, and their importance for the integrity of existence in general (Guardini, 2012, p. 47).

All of this has had a considerable influence on contemporary university education, insofar as a particular situation has been established; discovering and comprehending the world, the signature mission of university education, requires science, technique, and, therefore, objectivity. It is necessary for the person, as a person, to retire to a safe distance when approaching this process of discovery, so that they do not become too involved or too committed personally speaking. This leads us to at least two observations. In our opinion. cultural formation is moral education and, therefore, the risks of leaving this education in the hands of the student's personal and autonomous choice are too high. When we refer to cultural formation we mean both its prescriptive dimension -the appropriation of the best that has been said and done throughout the history of humankind- and its descriptive dimension —the acquisition of the structure of cultural knowledge and understanding. These two dimensions cannot be separated when the aim is for the student to absorb the vital system of the ideas of a community and of its historical setting, ideas that can be both archaic and current. We call this a vital system because they are ideas, beliefs, and approaches that have a life, in that they give shape to a moral ego, an ego that describes and comprehends itself thanks to them, and they situate the student in a position, as Taylor states (1994), to discover her own authenticity. Furthermore, and no less importantly, it re-evaluates the utility of those types of knowledge that today, for many reasons, are depicted as useless (Ordine, 2013). We should not ignore what some thinkers have suggested: that the less a type of knowledge can be justified in terms of utility and tangible benefits or according to a market price or share price, the higher its humanising level (Adorno, 2005).

The second observation concerns the role of university teachers. In this case we find something that strengthens the teacher's personal connection with students and the supply of moral resources. The university teacher is laid open, assuming that his principal task is for the students to manage to outstrip him, for them to be different to him. This is what the teacher's human and moral lessons comprise (Steiner, 2004).

The EHEA undeniably encourages teachers to be more open, participatory, and attentive with their students. However, this concept, that has not been neglected by the great majority of university teachers, and that has also been lauded by many of them, may have entered a phase where it is out of control. It could currently work against those teachers who, beyond being friends with their students, seek elevation and intellectual depth and do not wish to play down the importance of non-practical and useless questions of their field of knowledge. In other words, teachers who wish to stand alongside the



ideas that are clearly the ones they regard as best for their students.

Notes

This was particularly criticised by R. S. Peters (1984). Desarrollo moral y educación moral. Mexico: Fondo de Cultura Económica.

References

- Adorno, T. (2005). *Dialéctica negativa*. *La jerga de la autenticidad*. Madrid: Ediciones Akal.
- Albers, I., Mesa, J. A., Oraison, J. R., Camino, C., Pasmanik, D., Frisancho, S. and Farías, L. (2012). Sobre el legado de Lawrence Kohlberg: perspectivas latinoamericanas. *Postconvencio-nales*, 5-6, 35-67.
- Bacon, F. (2004). *Novum Organum*. Buenos Aires: Editorial Losada.
- Berkowitz, M. W. (2012). Navigating the Semantic Minefield of Promoting Moral Development. Retrieved from http://www.amenetwork.org/opinion/2016/2/15/navigating-the-semantic-minefield-of-promoting-moral-development-by-marvin-w-berkowitz (Consulted on March 10, 2016).
- Bok, D. (1986). Higher Learning. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Bolívar, A. (1987). Desarrollo moral y educación moral: la perspectiva cognitivo-formalista. revista española de pedagogía, 45, 395-409.
- Buxarrais, R. M. (1992). Actitudes, valores y normas: aprendizaje y desarrollo moral. *Comunicación, lenguaje y sociedad*, 15, 25-31.
- Cookson, P. (2010). Implications of Internet Technologies for Higher Education: North American Perspectives. Open Learning, 15 (1), 71-80.
- DeVries, R. (1991). The cognitive-developmental paradigm. In W. M. Kurtines and J. L. Gerwitz (Ed.), *Handbook of moral, behavior and devel- pment, Vol. 1* (pp. 7-12). New Jersey: LEA.

- Dewey, J. (1975). Moral Principles in Education. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Dewey, J. (1998). Experience and Education. The 60th Anniversary Edition. Indiana: Kappa Delta Pi.
- Díaz Serrano, J. (2015). El desarrollo del juicio moral en Kohlberg como factor condicionante del rendimiento académico en ciencias sociales de un grupo de estudiantes de educación secundaria. Revista Electrónica Educare, 19 (3), 1-14.
- Elorrieta-Grimalt, M. P. (2012). Análisis crítico de la educación moral según Lawrence Kohlberg. *Educación y Educadores*, 15 (3), 497-512.
- Escámez, J. (1991). Lawrence Kohlberg. Filosofía de la educación hoy: autores y selección de textos. Madrid: Dykinson.
- Fernández Herrero, B. (1993). El esquema de Kohlberg revisado: R. S. Peters y la educación moral temprana. *Paideia*, 24, 461-484.
- Fry, H., Ketteridge, S. and Marshall, S. (2009). A Handbook of teaching and learning in Higher Education Enhancing academic practice. New York: Routledge.
- Fuentes, J. L. (2013). Hacia una filosofía de la educación intercultural: diversidad moral, identidad cultural y diálogo intercultural. Doctoral thesis.

 Universidad Complutense de Madrid, Madrid.
 Retrieved from http://eprints.ucm.es/24035/1/T35047.pdf (Consulted on July 14, 2017).
- García, M. T. (1998). Desarrollo moral y culpabilidad: modelos conceptuales y aplicación empírica. Doctoral thesis. Universidad Complutense de Madrid, Madrid. Retrieved from http://biblioteca.ucm.es/tesis/19972000/S/4/S4014301. pdf (Consulted on May 25, 2017).
- García Morente, M. (2012). El ideal universitario y otros ensayos. Pamplona: EUNSA.
- Gibbs, P. (2001). Higher Education as a Market: a problem or solution? *Studies in Higher Educa*tion, 26 (1), 85-94.



- Gibbs, J. C. (2014). Moral development & reality.
 Beyond the theories of Kohlberg, Hoffman, and Haidt. Nueva York: Oxford University Press.
- Gilligan, C. (1977). In a different voice: Women's conceptions of the self and of morality. *Harvard Educational Review*, 49, 461-517.
- Gilligan, C. (1982). In a Different Voice: Psychological Theory and Women's Development. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.
- González Córcoles, M. R. (2017). Experiencias de desarrollo del razonamiento moral hacia un pensamiento de principios en la edad adulta según L. Kohlberg. Educación y futuro: revista de investigación aplicada y experiencias educativas, 36, 209-247.
- González, J. and Wagenaar, R. (Eds.) (2003). Tunning Educational Structures in Europe. Final Report. Phase One. Bilbao: Universidad de Deusto.
- Goñi, A. (1998). Psicología de la Educación Sociopersonal. Madrid: Fundamentos.
- Gordillo, M. V. (1992). Desarrollo moral y educación. Pamplona: Eunsa.
- Gozálvez, V. and Jover, G. (2016). Articulación de la justicia y el cuidado en la educación moral: del universalismo sustitutivo a una ética situada de los derechos humanos. *Educación XX1*, 19 (1), 311-330.
- Guardini, R. (2012). Tres escritos sobre la universidad. Pamplona: EUNSA.
- Ibáñez-Martín, J. A. (2017). Horizontes para los educadores. Las profesiones educativas y la promoción de la plenitud humana. Madrid: Dykinson.
- Karseth, B. (2006). Curriculum restructuring in higher education after the Bologna Process: A new pedagogic regime. *Revista Española de Educación Comparada*, 12 (1), 255-284.
- Kohlberg, L. and Rochelle, M. (1972). Development as the Aim of Education. *Harvard Educational Review*, 42 (4), 449-496.
- Kohlberg, L. (1976). Moral stages and moralization. In T. Lickona (Ed.), Moral development

- and Behaviour Theory, Research and Social Issues (pp. 31-53). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Kohlberg, L. (1985a). The development of Modes of Moral Thinking and Choice in the Years 10 to 16. PhD thesis. University of Chicago, Chicago.
- Kohlberg, L. (1985b). A just community approach to moral education in theory and practice. In M. Berkowitz and F. Oser (Eds.), *Moral Edu*cation: Theory and Practice (pp. 27-88). Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Kohlberg, L. (1987). El enfoque cognitivo-evolutivo de la educación moral. In J. A. Jordán and F. F. Santolaria (Eds.), La educación moral hoy. Cuestiones y perspectivas (pp. 85-114). Barcelona: PPU.
- Kohlberg, L. and Reimer, J. (1997). De la discusión moral al gobierno democrático. In L. Kohlberg, F. C. Power and A. Higgins (Eds.), La educación moral según Lawrence Kohlberg (pp. 21-47). Bilbao: Desclée de Brouwer.
- Kristjánsson, K. (2007). Aristotle, Emotions, and Education. Farnham: Ashgate.
- Lapsley, D. K. and Narvaez, D. F. (2005). Moral Psychology at the Crossroads. In D. K. Lapsley and F.C. Power (Eds.), Character Psychology and Character Education (pp. 18-35). Notre Dame: University of Notre Dame Press.
- Linde, A. (2009). La Educación moral según Lawrence Kohlberg: una utopía irrealizable. *Praxis Filosófica*, 28, 7-22.
- Martínez, M. (Ed.) (2008). Aprendizaje servicio y responsabilidad social de las universidades. Barcelona: Octaedro.
- MacIntyre, A. (1987). *Tras la virtud*. Barcelona: Crítica.
- Mulhall, S. and Swift, A. (1996). El individuo frente a la comunidad: el debate entre liberales y comunitaristas. Madrid: Temas de Hoy.
- Naval, C. (2000). Educar ciudadanos. La polémica liberal-comunitarista en educación. Pamplona: EUNSA.



- Noddings, N. (1984). Caring: A Feminist Approach to Ethics and Moral Education. Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press.
- Nuevalos, C. (1997). Desarrollo moral y valores ambientales. Valencia: Universitat de València. Retrieved from http://roderic.uv.es/bitstream/handle/10550/15379/nuevalos.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y (Consulted on May 17, 2017).
- Olssen, M. and Peters, M. A. (2005). Neoliberalism, Higher Education and the Knowledge economy: from the free market to knowledge capitalism. *Journal of Education Policy*, 20 (3), 313-345.
- Onushkin, V. (1973). Planning the development of universities vol. II. Analysis of the Questionnaire. París: UNESCO.
- Ordine, N. (2013). La utilidad de lo inútil. Manifiesto. Barcelona: Acantilado.
- Palomo, A. M. (1989). Lawrence Kohlberg: Teoría y práctica del desarrollo moral en la escuela. Revista interuniversitaria de formación del profesorado, 4, 79-90.
- Pérez Delgado, E., Frías, D. and Pons, G. (1988). La aportación de Lawrence Kohlberg (1927-1987) a las ciencias sociales, psicología y psicología moral en la actualidad. Revista de historia de la psicología, 9 (2-3), 173-209.
- Peters, R. S. (1984). Desarrollo moral y educación moral. México: ECE.
- Piaget, J. (1964). Psicología de la Inteligencia. Buenos Aires: Psique.
- Piaget, J. (1987). El criterio moral en el niño. Barcelona: Martínez Roca.
- Raths, L., Harmin, M. and Simon, S. (1966). *Values and teaching*. Columbus: Merill.
- Robles, V. H. (2013). La complementación de la discusión de dilemas con la lectura teórica para una eficaz intervención en el juicio moral. *International Journal of Psychological Re*search, 6 (1), 84-93.

- Ryan, K. (1992). La educación moral en Kohlberg: una teoría aplicada a la escuela. **revista española de pedagogía**, 191, 35-52.
- Sanderse, W. (2014). An Aristotelian Model of Moral Development. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 49 (3), 382-398.
- Santolaria, F. and Jordán, J. A. (1987). La educación moral hoy. Cuestiones y perspectivas. Barcelona: PPU.
- Sherman, N. (1989). The Fabric of Character.

 Aristotle's Theory of Virtue. Oxford: Clarendon
 Press.
- Sloam, J. (2008). Teaching Democracy: The Role of Political Science Education. British Journal of Politics and International Relations, 10, 509-524.
- Steiner, G. (2004). *Lecciones de los maestros*. Madrid: Siruela.
- Taylor, Ch. (1994). La ética de la autenticidad. Barcelona: Paidós.
- Zizek, B., Garz, D. and Nowak, E. (Eds.) (2015).
 Kohlberg revisited. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Authors' biographies

Carmen Caro Samada is Coordinator of the Department of Family, School and Society of Universidad Internacional de La Rioja (UNIR); National End of Career Award and Extraordinary Doctorate Award from the University of Navarra. Her main lines of research have been centered on topics such as narrative and moral education, family orientation, as well as the study of educational challenges in virtual environments and ethical-civic learning.

Josu Ahedo Ruiz has a PhD in Philosophy and Letters from Universidad de Navarra and has been a secondary and high school teacher for 16 years. He has



devoted several years to strategic communication, especially in the political sphere. He is currently Vice-Rector of Students and Academic Quality and Lecturer of the Faculty of Education at Universidad Internacional de La Rioja (UNIR). He is the author of several scientific publications on personalized education, family policy and education of the will.

Francisco Esteban Bara is Senior Lecturer at the Department of Theory and History of Education at Universidad de Barcelona (UB). PhD in Pedagogy and Philosophy. His lines of research have focused on character education in the university, and mission of the 21st century university. He is a member of the Research Group in Moral Education of the UB.

Single-sex schools in Spain: A qualitative analysis of the reasoning and perceptions of their principals

Escuelas diferenciadas en España:

un análisis cualitativo de las razones y percepciones de sus directivos

Jaume CAMPS BANSELL, PhD. Senior Lecturer. Universitat Internacional de Catalunya (*jaumecamps@uic.es*). **Elisabeth VIERHELLER, PhD student.** Faculty of Philosophy and Letters, Universidad Nacional de Cuyo (*elivierheller@gmail.com*).

Abstract:

Single sex education is still present in Spain's school panorama within a predominantly co-educational environment. Although there are some pieces of research from English-speaking countries on the reasons for promoting or maintaining this model of schooling, there are no studies from Spain. The proposed objective of this research is to examine in depth the reasons and motivations -pedagogical and otherwise- for creating or maintaining separation by sexes in single-sex schools in Spain, and —in the principals' perceptions— discover the good practices used in these schools and their outcomes. This work is based on qualitative analysis of twelve in-depth interviews with principals of these schools, which were recorded, transcribed, and processed using the Atlas.ti program. The analysis of the results enabled us to reach a variety of conclusions: separation is viewed as a practice that favours the objectives of individualised education; single-sex schooling, within an appropriate educational plan, delivers advantages

in areas such as gender equality or academic excellence; it makes it possible to meet a wish of the families; the inclusion of training plans for equality in these schools is a general practice. It is also apparent that the educational importance of teaching staff as gender role models to achieve greater equality of opportunities is valued.

Keywords: sex, gender, boys' schools, girls' schools, single sex education.

Resumen:

La educación diferenciada mantiene su presencia en el panorama escolar de España, en un entorno de coeducación generalizada. Aunque existen algunas investigaciones sobre las razones para mantener o promover este modelo escolar en los países anglosajones, no hay estudios para España. El objetivo propuesto es ahondar en las razones y motivaciones —pedagógicas u otras— de la creación o mantenimiento de la separación de los sexos en las escuelas diferenciadas en Es-

This is the English version of an article originally printed in Spanish in issue 269 of the revista española de pedagogía. For this reason, the abbreviation EV has been added to the page numbers. Please, cite this article as follows: Camps Bansell, J., & Vierheller, E. (2018). Escuelas diferenciadas en España: un análisis cualitativo de las razones y percepciones de sus directivos | Single-sex schools in Spain: A qualitative analysis of the reasoning and perceptions of their principals. Revista Española de Pedagogía, 76 (269), 101-117. doi: 10.22550/REP76-1-2018-05



101 EV

Revision accepted: 2017-03-05.

paña, y —en la percepción de los directivos—conocer los resultados y buenas prácticas que llevan a cabo en sus escuelas. Se ha partido del análisis cualitativo de doce entrevistas en profundidad con directivos de esas escuelas, que se grabaron, transcribieron y procesaron con el programa Atlas.ti. El análisis de los resultados permitió llegar a diversas conclusiones: la separación es percibida como práctica potenciadora de los objetivos de la educación personalizada; la escolarización diferenciada, dentro de una planificación educativa ade-

cuada, reporta ventajas para aspectos como la igualdad de género o la excelencia escolar; permite dar respuesta a una demanda de las familias; la inclusión de planes formativos para la igualdad en esas escuelas es una práctica generalizada. Se destaca también la consideración de la trascendencia educativa del profesorado como modelo de género para conseguir una mayor igualdad de oportunidades.

Descriptores: sexo, género, escuela masculina, escuela femenina, educación diferenciada

1. Introduction

The generalised co-education of boys and girls in Spain helped eliminate many social gender barriers, enabling men and women to start exploring professions and areas of life that for centuries had been allotted solely to the other sex. Nonetheless, after many years of single-sex and co-educational schooling, there are still various difficulties in the field of equality (Camps and Vidal, 2015; Duru-Bellat, 2010; UNESCO, 2012).

These difficulties have caused concern in recent decades, and have led to the appearance of new educational practices (Consell Superior d'Avaluació del Sistema Educatiu [Higher Council for Evaluating the Educational System], 2012), some of them within the now traditional co-educational schools, while others such as single-sex schooling or reflective co-education propose complete or partial separation of sexes. The progressive appearance of new single-sex or reflective co-education public schools, especially in the USA,

has inspired increased research interest in this field.

It is increasingly accepted that the learning environment is an important factor for students' motivation, results, and prospects (Hornstra, Mansfield, Van der Veen, Peetsma, and Volman, 2015).

In this study we aim to dig deeper into the development of single-sex schooling in Spain; more specifically, we will focus on the motivations and perceptions of people in management positions in these schools. While a body of research is starting to form that permits some quantitative comparison of educational outcomes between these gender-based educational practices (co-educational and single-sex schools), there is very little qualitative research in this field (Datnow and Hubbard, 2001; Mael et al., 2005). Perhaps because of the debate generated in recent years about how effective single-sex schooling is, there has been a tendency to focus on educational attainment based on the sex and the type of school variables, without



considering the reasons for choosing this organisational form.

2. The state of play

The two existing meta-analyses that compare results from co-educational and single-sex schools (Mael et al., 2005; Pahlke, Hyde and Allison, 2014) barely touch on what we intend to cover in this study. In addition, they examine a body of research that focusses on the English-speaking world and is not easily applicable to the case of Spain. In the USA, until very recently, this question had not been considered from the perspective of the motivations of the people who take decisions (Fabes, Pahlke, Borders, and Galligan, 2015), despite its growing popularity in that country's public schools.

Our aim is to reach a greater and better understanding of the reasons why the principals of single-sex schools maintain or choose this model. Clarifying these questions is of great interest, especially when the debate has entered the word of education policies (Martínez López-Muñiz et al., 2015).

Single-sex schooling is organised in spaces with just one sex, either the school as a whole or the classes. In southern European and Latin American countries, this type of school has mainly been established in 'individualised education' schools (García-Hoz, 1977, 1989). Individualised education can be defined as a vision and set of pedagogical practices that attempt to encourage the student to direct his or her own life, to develop the capability to make personal liberty effective, partici-

pating in the life of the community with his or her own personal traits; this means that at the school the student is the protagonist of the educational process. Furthermore, the person's uniqueness leads these schools to consider the contribution each student can make to the community, encouraging creativity. Teachers intervene in this process as helper or mediator (Carrasco, 2011).

The single-sex school, within individualised education, separates boys and girls from each other, arguing that this educational practice increases opportunities for each sex by neutralising gender pressures in the classroom and recognising that sex is the main category in the psychosocial configuration of a group of students (Maccoby, 2003; Páez, 2004). This separation has been described as something that increases the freedom of girls and boys, facilitates the exploration of new vital and academic territories for the student body, and prevents gender stereotypes and prejudices from holding back their interests (Camps et al., 2015; Duru-Bellat, 1995).

Single-sex schooling is very much present in English-speaking countries in public and private systems alike, based on a different —and more pragmatic— results-based perspective, and sometimes on a certain biological essentialism regarding gender differences; additionally, the improvement of women opportunities has been one of the boosters for female schools. (Park, Behrman and Choi, 2013).

The spread of co-educational schools occurred quickly in Western countries and for reasons that were not strictly



educational or related to equality (Fize, 2003; Riordan, 1990; Sadker and Sadker, 1995). A small but significant number of schools maintained separation of sexes for reasons that have not been studied. These schools, as they were small in number, found that they needed to prove their effectiveness (Riordan, 1990) through quantitative studies comparing them with co-educational schools.

The few existing qualitative studies of single-sex schools have primarily focussed on students' skill levels (Pahlke et al., 2014; Shmurak, 1998; Streitmatter, 1999; Svartoien-Conway, 2000) or the process of setting up these schools (Chadwell, 2010; Datnow, Hubbard and Woody, 2001; Datnow et al., 2002). There are also some qualitative approaches that start from the students' perceptions (Camps et al., 2015; Jackson, 2013).

Datnow et al. (2001) state that single sex education is currently valued as a strategy for improving classroom behaviour, eliminating distractions, and reducing peer pressure. This change in perspective was, at least partially, started by Gilligan (1993), who proposed girl-friendly schools that would be adapted to meet their needs. From this moment in particular, there was a series of single-sex proposals intended to empower girls, while at the same time the difficulties of boys were also starting to be recognised.

Research into principals' motivations for favouring single sex education is restricted to the English-speaking world. Datnow et al. (2001), in their study on schools in California, recognise that for most principals, reflective co-education

and single-sex education are a means for meeting the needs of students with difficulties, not an end in themselves. The view that these types of school help improve boys' attention and increase girls' self-esteem is widespread among educators, and they reproach the lack of time, means, and political backing for being able to implement them.

For most educators, the act of separating the sexes while maintaining the same educational quality is sufficient to ensure equality of opportunities; however, educators are not conscious of the gender biases in their work, nor do they receive help in avoiding them. It is also claimed that teaching staff often believe single-sex spaces facilitate frank and sincere relationships with students regarding their concerns and topics of interest, which encourages offering them advice (Datnow et al., 2001).

Pahlke et al (2014) recognise that people who promote and implement single-sex schools or classes usually value the greater learning possibilities for each sex, and their increased interest in the subjects. In this meta-analysis, they present some categories of assumptions about single-sex educational practices by the people who propose them.

Firstly, the assumptions of people who believe that these schools involve greater interest and academic development by girls and boys. These include three points of view:

a) Assumptions focusing on bio-psychological learning differences (Gurian, 2010; James, 2007; Sax, 2005), which, for example, have an im-



pact on the prospects of separation for alleviating stereotypes and interesting girls in technology through specific teaching methods.

- b) Assumptions that approach the topic from the psychosocial perspective, discerning negative effects of sexism in co-educational settings (Chaponière, 2010; Duru-Bellat, 2010).
- c) Assumptions that, starting from biological and psychosocial assumptions, recognise that single-sex environments are more effective for minorities or students who are in disadvantaged situations as a result of their social environment (Hubbard and Datnow, 2005; Riordan, 2015).

Secondly, people who, independently of the effectiveness of separating the sexes, propose making it possible for families who favour this type of education to choose it (Chadwell, 2010; Liben, 2015; Martínez López-Muñiz, 2015).

Lingard et al. (2009) described some of the school principals' motivations for implementing single-sex classes: preventing boys' behavioural problems and academic difficulties from affecting other students; and facilitating settings where boys are motivated by subjects that social stereotypes depict as more appropriate for girls. These principals relate these difficulties to the lack of male role models among the teaching staff.

Fabes et al. (2015) state that there is a lack of studies that make it possible to understand decision makers' reasons for the increase in single-sex schools in the USA in recent years. The results of their research confirm that principals with experience in this type of school often have a more positive attitude towards it, see it as more effective, and —more often than the principals of co-educational schools— use essentialist arguments.

specifically. More and regarding public schools in the USA, Fabes (2015) found that principals primarily mentioned motivations relating to improving the student body's academic performance for making schools single-sex; a few principals also cited reasons regarding improved behaviour, linked to better academic development by students. He also described how numerous principals noted the influence of the schools' owners on whether they are separated by sex, followed by the teaching staff's or the families' interest in the setting. The many books, conferences, and workshops on single-sex schooling in the USA are also cited as factors that helped with taking the decision. Some positive aspects frequently cited by the principals once the school has been made single-sex are the improvement in satisfaction by teachers and families with the relationship between students and teachers, and in academic performance. A third of the principals commented that the change to single-sex schooling had also had a negative impact on some aspect, such as for example, boys' behaviour in class. Some noted organisational problems owing to the imbalance in numbers of the sexes in some academic years.

Finally, single-sex education has been described as a practice that is especially aligned with what is known as "individualised education", a type of school initially postulated by García Hoz. Sepa-



rating the sexes would, at the same time, entail adaptation to the female person's or male person's way of being (Ahedo, 2012), and a capacity for achieving the educational objectives that characterise the individualised school (Camps et al., 2015).

Some authors insist that the reasons in Spain for single-sex schooling are political, ideological, or religious, albeit without any studies to confirm this (Bonal, 1997; Subirats, 2010).

The framework we have so far set out can help classify the questions raised in this research. Nonetheless, it is hard to extrapolate the cited studies to what happens in the case of Spain, because of sociocultural differences and different educational paradigms.

3. Research questions

In Spain there are approximately two hundred single-sex schools (EASSE, 2016), all of them of privately owned. The debate —public and academic— and current lack of knowledge about this type of school have led us to focus our attention on it, excluding reflective co-education schools as there is such a small number of them and the difficulties of identifying them as such.

As well as questions of academic and educational effectiveness, this research aims to answer the following questions:

a) What are the reasons and motivations—pedagogical and otherwise—for the creation or maintenance of separation of sexes in single-sex schools in Spain.

b) What —in the opinion of the principals— are the results and good practices that single-sex schools implement, from a gender perspective and taking advantage of the separation of boys and girls.

4. Methodology

A qualitative methodology has been chosen for this study that enables us to observe reality through the participants' eyes and delve into the subjective opinions of educational actors. The literature review shows that we are pursuing objectives that have not previously been considered in the case of Spain, and so the reasons and motivations of the principals presented and analysed might differ notably with regards to what is reported in other pieces of research in this field carried out in different settings. The qualitative method thus involves an initial approach to an unexplored reality, and can act as a basis for future quantitative works that permit more reliable generalisation.

4.1. Participants

Twelve principals of single-sex schools in Spain were interviewed (eight men and four women). Their mean age was 48, ranging from 40 to 61. They had a mean experience of 13 years as principals in single-sex schools, with a range of 1 to 31 years' experience. Eight of the schools the participants ran were boys' schools and four were girls' schools, with a wide range in the age of the centres (from 3 to 53 years) and in the average sociocultural profile of the families.



Participant selection was carried out in two of the Spanish autonomous regions with the most single-sex schools (Madrid and Catalonia): the schools' or principals' email addresses were obtained from schools' websites or through telephone calls. Messages to request the interview were progressively and randomly sent by email, setting out the objectives and methodology of the study, and finally appointments were made with the principals who responded affirmatively. The interview request process stopped when theoretical saturation was reached. Of the seventeen principals who were asked if they would be willing to do an interview, twelve said yes. Before each interview, the objectives of the study were again provided in writing (email) and the interviewees were assured that their identity would be confidential; at the same time, they were informed of the need to make digital recordings of the interviews for subsequent transcription and analysis. The interviews took place between May and July 2016.

4.2. Interviews

An in-depth semi-structured interview was held with each participant. All of the interviews took place in the principals' respective schools and lasted between 60 and 80 minutes. The authors interviewed the participants directly.

At the start of each interview, the interviewers asked about contextual aspects that might be relevant for a better understanding of the rest of the conversation (the average socioeconomic level of the families at the school, whether the

interviewee had participated as a student or a professional in co-educational schools, etc.).

Wharton's scheme (2012) was used to establish a sequence for the topics on which to base the questions in the interviews. This author proposes approaching gender questions from three main levels, on which interpretations of different social situations are based:

- Individual, including conceptions about differences between the sexes and their origin.
- Interactional, approaching gender from the contexts in which individuals interact.
- Institutional, recognising that interactions often occur in organisations, which have a significant position in the roles, positions, and expectations that exist regarding individuals.

Starting from this preliminary scheme, the script for the points to cover in the interviews was developed based on the literature review, and divided into topics and subtopics.

To obtain the maximum amount of information, the established questions were complemented by other more specific ones when the answers were short or hard to understand («In what areas have you observed this?», «in which age groups is this especially apparent?» etc.).

The interviews were held in Catalan or Spanish depending on the mother tongue or preference of the participant and interviewer; all of the literal quotes are presented in English, having been translated where appropriate.



4.3. Analysis

The analysis was carried out using the Atlas.ti version 7.5.10 computer program. At a textual level, the twelve primary documents (transcripts of the interviews) have been divided into quotes compiled using previously established codes based on the predefined dimensions, and some other emerging ones that developed during the analysis. The corpus analysed contains 630 quotes and 33 codes.

5. Results

5.1. Educational programme

In all cases, the principals speak of their school as an institution with a mission to serve society and with Christian principles, although most of them state that their school does not have an official faith. There is also unanimity in presenting individualised education and the importance of relationships between the school and families as central aspects of the educational programme. Several interviews touch on personalised relationship with students and their families, socio-emotional education, integral education, the importance of the person, education in new technologies, the importance of languages, and education in values.

When talking about their school's ideals and educational programme, only three principals refer to single-sex education, presenting it at the end as a practice that is especially in line with the school project: «It is not our school's main feature» (Interview 1).

Despite the peripheral position of single-sex schooling in the educational programme, ten of the principals state that it is an organisational aspect that they would be reluctant to renounce: «It is one of the main features of our identity ... It is a question of demand from families» (Interview 1). Two of them, in recently-founded schools with some co-educational years as there are not enough students to implement a second pathway, recognise that separating sexes by class whenever possible is one of their objectives.

When asked about the convergence of single-sex schooling and the Christian way of thinking, ten of the twelve interviewees did not see any sort of relationship; the ones who gave more explanations specify that before the generalization of co-education most private schools had this way of thinking, and so to them it seems logical to maintain the correlation between these two aspects: «If there has ever been this moral conception, it is clear that it is currently in no way the basis of this school's practices (referring to single-sex schooling)» (Interview 2). Of the two who do see a certain possible relationship, one female principal said that the Christian concept of the distinction between man and woman might have an effect, although neither of them presents it as a primary motive.

All of them state that their schools' educational programmes include gender aspects: both single-sex education and aspects of equality. Seven principals explicitly referred to their school having a learning plan for gender equality, either specific or included in a general learning plan.



In three interviews the concept of the artificiality of school appears. Using this expression or similar ones, eleven of the twelve interviewees make some kind of reference to the fact that the school cannot and indeed should not reflect society: «The school's mission is not to reflect society. The school should change the people who will change the world» (Interview 2). Many of them argue that this artificiality is necessarily present in the school in aspects such as separation by age, etc., or because of the need to separate it from negative social aspects. Some of them add that it is precisely in this artificiality that some potentialities of the schools are found.

5.2. Social and academic development of the students

In the principals' views of socialisation, there is no negative perception of the cooperation and complementarity between the sexes that occur in mixed classrooms. Some of them regard this unisex schooling as something that was vital in eras when there was no social mixing.

All of them speak of the absence of insurmountable negative effects on socialisation in the separation of girls and boys at school, given that their out-of-school environments are mainly mixed: «My experience is that all of our girls live in the real world; they spend a few hours a day at school, but this is complemented by their family life, their relationships outside of school... School is not the whole of their lives» (Interview 9). Some of them recognise that separation impedes a bidirectional or comple-

mentary contribution at school, although they appreciate the advantages of separation and the efficacy of the strategies used to overcome this deficit. All of them, based on their experience, spepak of the naturalness and normality of the vital relationships their students maintain with the opposite sex outside school or in their post-school life; several principals note that the families that trust them with their children would not do so if they perceived negative effects. Two male principals and one female principal explain that they have often asked older students or former students if they have difficulties relating to the other sex, and they all respond to this idea with laughter.

In their evaluation of separation of sexes at school, all of them consider certain potentials of this pedagogical model that might become educational strengths. Two aspects are repeated in various interviews.

Firstly, they speak of the importance of consolidating personal identity as vital for socialisation; and they present separation as advantageous for this: «As there are no boys, one advantage is that the girls grow up to have their own personality» (Interview 8).

Secondly, they note the psychosocial importance of separation in creating a climate of naturalness in actions, expressive possibilities free from gender pressures without embarrassment, etc.; one principal says that many students have told him that the fact there are no girls «means I can be myself more, and I can act naturally» (Interview 5); anoth-



er principal states that «it lets them discover their sexuality in a more tranquil way... more calmly, with less trial and error... It also empowers the girls to discover themselves as girls, their identity, and not believe that they are women and so have to be liked and please others» (Interview 2). All of the principals who speak about this topic emphasise how single-sex schools make emotional-sexual education easier as students are more comfortable covering these topics in separate classes.

Three of the interviewees discuss how, from a certain age, the presence of the other sex is a distraction for the students, something that can lead to problems with learning or for friendships with others of the same sex.

Some explanations were given for actions carried out to encourage adequate socialisation with the other sex. Individual tutoring comes up in several interviews —a common practice in the twelve schools— as a space for dialogue where it can be discussed and where guidance and advice can be given.

When the principals were asked about how single-sex schooling contributes to eradicating violence towards women, they generally state that their schools help to solving this problem by decisively encouraging respect for others: «The fact that contact with girls is less frequent and not as constant ... means that when there is contact, they are more respectful» (Interview 1); «situations of violence by boys towards girls disappear» (Interview 11). Nonetheless, they do not all directly link this respect to the separation of sexes

in the school: «There are other variables that have nothing to do with mixed or single-sex education» (Interview 4).

5.3. Teacher training and specific practices

On the matter of their specific training in single-sex education, all but two of the interviewees state that they have read various books on this matter. They have all read articles and attended conferences focussing on this type of school. As for the training their teachers receive, they all say that some of the planned training sessions are about this question.

All of them state that there are no particular curriculum features that derive from them being single-sex schools. Practically all of them say that there are no specific teaching strategies for each sex. However, they also note that there might be conscious or unconscious differences because educational tasks in class are adapted to the students present who are all of one specific sex.

As for the profile of the teaching staff, in ten of the twelve schools, the sex of the teachers is always the same as that of the students at the obligatory levels. All of the interviewees recognise some impact of the sex of the teacher at the educational level, and they list various positive aspects of teachers and students being of the same sex: the chance of a boys' school ending up with entirely female teaching staff and the resulting lack of masculine role models is eliminated; greater trust is generated between the student body and the teaching staff.



5.4. Gender-based social and schooling challenges

Almost all gender-based social challenges the school can and should meet relate to equality in some way: equality of opportunities, eradicating sexism and gender-based violence, eliminating stereotypes, etc.

The answers given agree with stereotypes about separation in some ways, such as the above-mentioned existence in many of the centres of learning plans for equality. Furthermore, several interviewees identify the restrictive effect of stereotypes, and the advantage of separation for providing each sex with more freedom and opportunities: «Gender stereotypes are only negative when they restrict or limit the liberty of the individual... Stereotypes are the negatives imposed on men and women... I do not think single-sex schooling involves restricting possibilities to choose, in the academic or personal world» (Interview 2). Another principal notes that «there are boys here who take part in theatre, the choir, they volunteer in the community, they help the youngest children in the dining room... and if there were girls here, the boys would think that these are girls' things» (Interview 5). Some principals identify other activities aimed at combating stereotypes: «The fact we have single-sex teaching does not mean that we teach girls to iron and boys to wire plugs; we teach the same things to all of them, and so we teach the boys domestic tasks and the girls household maintenance» (Interview 6).

Among the explanations for how separation boosts opportunities for girls and boys, they emphasise how the absence

of the other sex means that any task is appropriate for the students, regardless of social stereotypes; it being a single-sex centre «means that (the girls) see science as just another subject... like physical education» (Interview 8). Several interviewees mention the possibilities of single-sex settings, given that in them, subjects are not viewed through the prism of gender but are experienced with greater naturalness: «The determinant of sex disappears in a way, leaving just the academic determinant; and this makes it possible for other things -such as the habitual role of sex— to disappear and so each child can develop in a more relaxed way» (Interview 11). On the other hand, the fact that the teaching staff are of the same sex establishes role models of the students' sex in all fields. Many interviewees mention their students' post-compulsory choices as not being shaped much by social stereotypes about what is appropriate for each sex (in comparison with mixed schooling): «It has been proven that access to engineering or science degrees increases if there are only girls» (Interview 10).

5.5. Advantages and disadvantages of the two models

When asked about co-education, all of the principals recognise that co-educational schools can educate effectively; one of them explains that «co-educational schools have been very positive in taking a first step towards equality for women» (Interview 8). Virtually all of them also recognise that both models have particular advantages and disadvantages, and that the presence of one or both sexes



creates differences in the classroom atmosphere that merit pedagogical attention.

Among the problems they perceive with co-education, the difficulty for teaching staff of recognising and handling the differences between girls and boys appears twice. Two other principals also mention difficulties with socialisation between the students in their emotional relationships that break up and reform with other students in the same classes. In particular, those who had never before worked in a co-educational school are very careful in their comments. In almost all cases, the explanations about the problems of co-education are brief, somewhat superficial, and different for each interviewee. Some principals claim that it is simpler to educate in classrooms with just one sex.

Among the difficulties of single-sex education, it is stated in various interviews that boys' classes feature an atmosphere of greater impulsiveness and certain indiscipline, while girls' classes more frequently present emotional conflicts and competition between the girls. They affirm—in many cases—that these distinctive features can be resolved with specific classroom management, and that they are not a problem.

They all value the advantages of single-sex education, and do not raise the possibility of turning their schools into co-educational centres except in one case (for organisational reasons of that specific school). Among the advantages, they frequently note the academic potential of separation for reducing failure in school and gender bias, thus creating a more academic environment with fewer distractions.

Furthermore, all of the interviewees see single-sex schooling as being beneficial for both sexes. Some of them note how it is easier to teach all-male or all-female classes: «My background is in co-educational schools. When I started teaching boys, I realised how easy it was, how this distribution made teaching and teaching practices easier» (Interview 2).

When asked specifically about the reasons why their school has single-sex education, three elements are repeated in almost all of the interviews:

- Experience has shown them that it is a pedagogical practice that works: «Our experience at primary and secondary level has been good; why would we change?» (Interview 12).
- This positive experience of single-sex classes relates to the individualised education pedagogical model; separating the sexes is another aspect that makes a very positive contribution to the objectives and the efficacy of this type of school: «There is one vitally important issue, namely that single-sex education favours the personalisation of education» (Interview 12).
- Single-sex schooling is offered because it is the preference of the parents who have chosen it: «If it did not appeal to parents, there would not be any single-sex schools» (Interview 6).

5.6. Valuation of single-sex schooling by other agents

In a few cases the principals appreciate that separation is the main reason why families choose their school. The fact that they studied in a single-sex school



and know how they work is another important reason to find one of these schools for their children. Other families, sometimes express concerns that disappear when they get to know the school. For all of the interviewees, educational outcomes and school environment are the main motivations for the families, although they do not relate them to single-sex education.

As for the teaching staff, the interviewees unanimously state that a large majority of their teachers very positively value single-sex schooling, and some of them mention that this valuation is shared by those who had previously worked in mixed schools.

In all of the aspects described, no significant differences are observed depending on whether the interviewee is a man or a woman, or if the school is a girls' school or a boys' one.

6. Conclusions and discussion

The first objective of this study was to examine the reasoning and motivations for the creation or maintenance of single-sex schools in Spain. It appears to confirm that there is a close relationship between single-sex education and the individualised education school model (Camps, 2015). The principals agree that, for single-sex schools, separation is a tool that fits in with the pedagogy of individualised education. For them this involves promoting the objectives of this pedagogy, especially with regards to reducing stereotypes and facilitating the liberty and opportunities of the student body, in a similar way to how Lingard et al. describe it (2009). In all of the interviews,

the principals state the importance of gender equality aspects and acknowledge the possibilities of co-education, but they appreciate the advantages of single-sex schooling, albeit while recognising some disadvantages in it. Other motives that frequently appear are improved academic results as well as creating a more academic environment (Riordan, 2009) and trust between the different agents in the school (Datnow et al., 2001). We did not find that the principals base their reasons for single-sex schooling on essentialist arguments about differences between the sexes, as seems to happen in other countries (Fabes et al., 2015), or on ideological, political, or religious reasons (Subirats, 2010), but instead on pedagogical and psychosocial reasons.

We were also able, on the one hand, to observe a pragmatic component in the explanations; confirmation of the good functioning of the school, which they partly attribute to the separation of the sexes means that they do not consider other organisational options (Riordan, 2008). On the other hand, the factor of parents' choice frequently appears as proof of the good outcomes, and as providing an option to parents who want it for their children.

As for the second objective (views on results and good practices in single-sex schooling), the unanimity among the principals interviewed is notable. On the one hand, academic results are valued, which they partly link to the separation of the sexes (Blakesley, 2013; Datnow et al., 2001), and they value the personal results in socialisation, eliminating stereotypes, and achieving greater equality of opportunities in post-obligatory choices



(Duru-Bellat, 1995; Riordan, 2009), On the other hand, all of the schools represented carry out specific education of the student body to boost education in equality between men and women, and in mutual respect. To achieve all of this, the interviewees mention the training they, as principals, have received, and which they promote among teaching staff. Among the principals in particular there are significant differences in levels of insight and training in single-sex educational practices and aspects relating to equality. They all agree that the curriculum is identical in girls' and boys' schools, albeit with didactic changes by teaching staff resulting from the expected adaptation to the students in their classes, one of the characteristics of which is the fact they are all of the same sex. The need for specific differentiated classroom management for boys to control and use their greater impulsiveness for their own benefit also comes up frequently (Blakesley, 2013); nonetheless, unlike what Lingard et al. describe (2009), they do not speak of separation as a solution to the behavioural problems of boys.

The ease of socialisation that single-sex classrooms provide —naturalness in relationships, greater expressive possibilities, etc.— that the interviewees describe, matches Blakesley's work (2013) which was carried out in Canada.

There is unanimity in recognising positive aspects in teacher-pupil gender coincidence. (Park et al., 2013).

Although with this study we cannot uncover the development over time of the perceptions of the principals, it is possible

to note a generalised positive attitude towards single-sex classrooms among them, just as Fabes et al. observe in the case of the USA (2015).

While Hubbard et al. (2005) and Riordan (2015) clearly describe the greater advantages of single-sex schooling for students who are at risk and in disadvantaged social situations, there is no unanimity between the interviewees about a particular student profile for which single-sex education is especially beneficial. This might be because each principal basically knows his or her own school, with its own specific student body profile, and so it could be difficult for them to make comparisons.

The principals interviewed recognise the differences between the sexes as an aspect to consider, albeit with little attention to neuroscience, but they often conclude their arguments with references to the possibility for families to choose educational styles, as Liben states in her study (2015).

It was not possible to establish significant differences according to the interviewee's sex, or whether the school is a boys' or girls' school (Pahlke, Bigler and Patterson, 2014).

According to the results obtained, it seems that the Spanish single-sex schools analysed correspond with heuristic models 3 and 5 presented by the Consell Superior d'Avaluació del Sistema Educatiu (2012).

This study main contribution is its exploration of the reasons given by the principals of Spanish single-sex schools



for creating or conserving schools with this organisational practice, a topic that until now has only been researched in English-speaking countries. A more in-depth consideration of this area of study from the perspectives of the teaching staff, the students, and of the families is suggested for future work, as these are areas that have received virtually no attention in Spain.

References

- Ahedo, J. (2012). Fundamento antropológico de la separación escolar de chicos y chicas. In E. Vierheller (Coord.), *Nuevo paradigma escolar* (pp. 39-60). Rosario: Logos.
- Blakesley, S. (2013). Single-sex Education in Northern Canada: A Case Study of Trapline Elementary School. *The Qualitative Report*, 18, 1-14.
- Bonal, X. (1997). Las actitudes del profesorado ante la coeducación. Propuestas de intervención. Barcelona: Graó.
- Camps, J. (2015). *Inteligencia de género para la escuela*. Pamplona: Círculo Rojo.
- Camps, J. and Vidal, E. (2015). Marte y Venus en el aula: las percepciones del alumnado sobre los efectos psicosociales de la escolarización mixta y diferenciada. revista española de pedagogía, 73 (260), 53-71.
- Carrasco, J. B. (2011). Educación personalizada: principios, técnicas y recursos. Madrid: Síntesis.
- Chadwell, D. (2010). A gendered Choice. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Chaponière, M. (2010). La mixité, une évidence trompeuse. Revue Française de Pédagogie, 171, 69-75.
- Consell Superior d'Avaluació del Sistema educatiu (2012). Diferències en els resultats educatius de nois i noies a Catalunya. Barcelona: CSDA.

- Datnow, A., Hubbard, L. and Woody, E. (2001).

 Is Single Gender Schooling Viable in the Public Sector? Lessons from California's Pilot Program. Final Report. Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED471051.pdf (Consulted on May 12, 2016).
- Datnow, A. and Hubbard, L. (Eds.) (2002). Gender in Policy and Practice. Perspectives on Single-Sex and Coeducational Schooling. New York: Routledge-Falmer.
- Duru-Bellat, M. (1995). Filles et garçons à l'école, approches sociologiques et psycho-sociales. Revue Française de Pédagogie, 110 (1), 75-109.
- Duru-Bellat, M. (2010). La mixité à l'école et dans la vie, une thématique aux enjeux scientifiques forts et ouverts. Revue Française de Pédagogie, 171, 9-13.
- Fabes, R. A., Pahlke, E. Borders, A. Z. and Galligan, K. (2015). US principals' attitudes about and experiences with single-sex schooling. *Educational Studies*, 41 (3), 293-311.
- Fize, M. (2003). Les pièges de la mixité scolaire. Paris: Presses de la Renaissance.
- García Hoz, V. (1977). La educación personalizada. Valladolid: Miñón.
- García Hoz, V. (Dir.) (1989). Tratado de educación personalizada. El concepto de persona. Madrid: Rialp.
- Gilligan, C. (1993). In a Different Voice: Psychological Theory and Women's Development. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.
- Gurian, M. (2010). Boys and Girls Learn Diffferently! San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Hornstra, L., Mansfield, C., Van der Veen, I., Peetsma, T. and Volman, M. (2015). Motivational teacher strategies: the role of beliefs and contextual factors, *Learning Environ*ments Research, 18 (3), 363-392. doi: 10.1007/ s10984-015-9189-y
- Hubbard L. and Datnow, A. (2005). Do single-sex schools improve the education of low-income



- and minority students? An investigation of California's public single-gender academies. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, 36 (2), 115-131.
- Jackson, C. (2013). Can Single-sex Classes in Co-educational Schools Enhance the Learning Experiences of Girls and/or Boys? An Exploration of Pupils' Perceptions. *British Educatio*nal Research Journal, 28 (1), 37-48.
- James, A. N. (2007). *Teaching the Male Brain*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Liben, L. S. (2015). Probability Values and Human Values in Evaluating Single-Sex Education. *Sex Roles*, 72 (9), 401-426.
- Lingard, B., Martino, W. and Mills, M. (2009). Single-Sex Classes and Schools for Boys. In B. Lingard et al. (Coords.), Boys and Schooling (pp. 86-118). New York: Palgrave Mac-Millan.
- Maccoby, E. E. (2003). *The Two Sexes. Growing up Apart, Coming Together*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Mael, F. et al. (2005). Single-Sex versus Coeducational Schooling: A Systematic Review. Washington: Policy and Program Studies Service, U.S. Department of Education, Office of Planning, Evaluation and Policy Development.
- Martínez López-Muñiz, J. L. et al. (2015). Legitimidad de los colegios de un solo sexo y su derecho a concierto en condiciones de igualdad. Madrid: Iustel.
- Páez, D. (2004). Psicología social, cultura y educación. Madrid: Pearson.
- Pahlke, E., Bigler, R. S. and Patterson, M. M. (2014). Reasoning About Single-Sex Schooling for Girls Among Students, Parents, and Teachers. Sex Roles, 71 (5), 261-271.
- Pahlke, E., Hyde, J. S. and Allison, C. M. (2014). The Effects of Single-Sex Compared With Coeducational Schooling on Students' Performance and Attitudes, a Meta-Analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 140 (4), 1042-1072.

- Park, H., Berhman, J. R. and Choi, J. (2013).
 Causal Effects of Single-Sex Schools on College Entrance Exams and College Attendance:
 Random Assignment in Seoul High Schools.
 Demography, 50 (2), 447-469.
- Riordan, C. (1990). Girls and boys in school. Together or separate? New York: Teachers College Press.
- Riordan, C. (Dir.) (2008). Early Implementation of Public Single-Sex Schools: Perceptions and Characteristics. Washington, D.C.: US Department of Education.
- Riordan, C. (2009). The Effects of Single-Sex Schools. In *II Congreso Latinoamericano* de Educación Diferenciada: Nuevos escenarios para la educación de mujeres y varones, (pp.98-131). Buenos Aires: ALCED Argentina.
- Riordan, C. (2015). Single-Sex Schools. A Place to Learn. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Sadker, M. and Sadker, D. (1995). Failing at Fairness. New York: Touchstone.
- Sax, L. (2005). Why Gender Matters. New York: Doubleday.
- Shmurak, C. B. (1998). Voices of Hope: Adolescent Girls at Single Sex and Coeducational Schools. New York: Peter Lang.
- Streitmatter, J. L. (1999). For girls only: Making a case for single-sex schooling. Albany, NY: Sunny Press.
- Subirats, M. (2010). ¿Coeducación o escuela segregada? Un viejo y persistente debate. Revista de la Asociación de Sociología de la Educación, 3 (1), 143-158.
- Svartoien-Conway, J. I. (2000). In search of connection: How graduates from all-girls high schools describe their leadership involvement at a coeducational university. University of Nebraska Lincoln, USA.
- UNESCO (2012). Atlas mundial de la igualdad de género en la educación. Paris: UNESCO.
- Wharton, A. S. (2012). *The Sociology of Gender*. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.



Authors' biographies

Jaume Camps is Senior Lecturer of Theories and Educational Institutions in the Department of Education at Universitat Internacional de Catalunya. His main lines of research focus on gender issues at school and in the development of Personalized Education. Elisabeth Vierheller is Vice-president of the Latin American Association of Centers of Differentiated Education in Argentina. Online tutor and Teacher of Single-sex Education. PhD student at Universidad Nacional de Cuyo. Her main line of research is differentiated education or single-sex in complex social contexts.



Career guidance, employability, and entering the workforce at University through a Structural Equation Model

Orientación, empleabilidad e inserción laboral en la Universidad a través de un Modelo de Ecuaciones Estructurales

Pilar MARTÍNEZ CLARES, PhD. Senior Lecturer. Universidad de Murcia (pmclares@um.es).

Cristina GONZÁLEZ LORENTE, PhD student. FPU-MECD Predoctoral Researcher. Universidad de Murcia (c.gonzalezlorente@um.es).

Abstract:

This research presents a hypothetical model regarding university students' perceptions of their current preparation for entering the workforce that uses a structural regression model to connect various aspects regarding training, satisfaction, information, and career guidance programs. Its research objectives are to establish the goodness of fit of the model, analyse the relationships established among the variables, and compare the effect of career guidance on these variables. To this end, a representative sample of 931 final year undergraduate students from the Universidad de Murcia and the Universidad de Granada from a range of degrees and branches of knowledge participated anonymously and voluntarily by completing an ad hoc questionnaire (named COIL). The AMOS v21 program was used to analyse the data and estimate the relationships established among the different variables of the model. Elevated model fit indexes stand out among the main results obtained, corroborating its design using the empirical data, as well as statistically significant causal relations in all cases analysed. In addition, introducing participation in professional guidance programs as a grouping variable strengthens these causal relationships. These results emphasize the role of career guidance as a key connection between higher education and employment at a time of change and transition to the workforce for university students where difficulties are not measured by the benefits achieved but rather by the permanent configuration of the changing and ambiguous social context in which they must make this transition.

Keywords: higher education, entering the workforce, school-to-work transition, career guidance, employability, structural equations models, undergraduate students.

Resumen:

En este trabajo se propone un modelo hipotético acerca de la valoración que presentan los

Revision accepted: 2017-09-21.

This is the English version of an article originally printed in Spanish in issue 269 of the **revista española de pedagogía**. For this reason, the abbreviation EV has been added to the page numbers. Please, cite this article as follows: Martínez Clares, P., & González Lorente, C. (2018). Orientación, empleabilidad e inserción laboral en la universidad a través de un Modelo de Ecuaciones Estructurales | Career guidance, employability, and en-tering the workforce at University through a structural equation model. Revista Española de Pedagogía, 76 (269), 119-139. doi: 10.22550/REP76-1-2018-06



ISSN: 0034-9461 (Print), 2174-0909 (Online) **119 EV**

universitarios sobre su actual preparación para hacer frente al proceso de inserción sociolaboral. Se trata de un modelo de regresión estructural que pone en relación diferentes variables relacionadas con la formación, la satisfacción, la información y la orientación profesional del estudiante, entre cuyos objetivos de investigación se encuentra determinar la bondad de ajuste del modelo, analizar las relaciones que se establecen entre las variables y contrastar el efecto de la Orientación Profesional sobre las mismas. Para ello, participan de forma anónima v voluntaria una muestra representativa de 931 estudiantes de último curso de Grado de la Universidad de Murcia y de la Universidad de Granada, distribuidos en diferentes titulaciones y ramas del conocimiento, a partir de la cumplimentación del Cuestionario de Inserción y Orientación Laboral (COIL), diseñado ad hoc. Para realizar el análisis de los datos y estimar las relaciones que se establecen entre las diferentes variables del modelo, se utiliza el programa AMOS v21. Entre los principales

resultados obtenidos, destacan los elevados índices de bondad de ajuste del modelo, que corroboran su diseño con los datos empíricos, así como las relaciones causales estadísticamente significativas en todos los casos analizados. Además, se produce un incremento en dichas relaciones causales al introducir la participación obligatoria y/o voluntaria en programas de orientación profesional como variable de agrupación. Unos resultados que enfatizan el rol de la orientación como eje vertebrador entre la formación superior y el empleo, en un momento de cambio y transición a la vida activa de los universitarios donde las dificultades no se miden tanto por los beneficios conseguidos, sino por la permanente configuración de un contexto social cambiante y ambiguo en el cual deben realizar dicha transición.

Descriptores: educación superior, inserción laboral, transición a la vida activa, orientación profesional, empleabilidad, modelos de ecuaciones estructurales, universitarios.

1. Introduction

Young people's transition to working life, based on the adapting to the real world and shaped by individuals' decisions about their career and life plans (Santana Vega, 2010) is very important nowadays, thanks to the great opportunities and choices offered to a generation that is better trained than previous ones, and, paradoxically, because of the major challenges and the complexity that accompany them in contemporary society. This is a society that authors such as Bennett and Lemoine (2014) and Hemingway and Marquart (2013) have defined as the *VUCA World*, from the initials of its four

basic characteristics: *volatility*, with frequent and unpredictable changes; *uncertainty*, as there is a lack of knowledge of potential major consequences; *complexity*, owing to vast amounts of interconnected information, relationships, and procedures; and *ambiguity* preventing people making predictions about what to expect.

This transition, among university students, must happen in a slow and measured way, and achieving this requires specific learning that affects the whole university experience in its different levels and contexts, as Coles (1995), Jones (1995, 2002), and Moreno (2008) note.

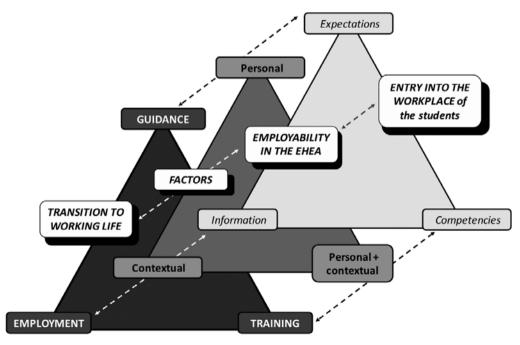


Transition processes at present vary, are slow, and are marked by successive discontinuities and ruptures with the result that young people experience them as reversible and non-linear in their training and professional pathways.

This transition to working life has become one of the most important phenomena in the economic and work development of our society. It is a constant concern in national and international settings (Bathmaker and Thomas, 2009; García Moreno and Martínez Martín, 2012; Harris and Rainey, 2012; OECD, 2016; Sissons

and Jones, 2012; Svob, Brown, Reddon, Uzer, and Lee 2013; Taveira, 2013) that has spread throughout higher education and has become a focus as a result of the implementation of the European Higher Education Area with its commitment to the employability of graduates, through the numerous conferences held in the last decade (Slovenia, 2004; Leuven, 2009; London, 2012, among others). This transition is linked to a concept as broad and ever-present as employability through the numerous factors that channel, influence, and impact on its development (Graph 1).

Graph 1. Relationship between the transition to working life, its factors, and the process of entering the workforce in the EHEA.



Source: Own elaboration.

termining what these factors are and

Although studies that focus on de- their level of impact are many and varied (Brown, Hesketh and Williams, 2002;



Figuera, 1996; Stokes, 2015; Lent and Brown, 2013; Longhi and Taylor, 2011; Moreau and Leathwood, 2006; Savickas, 2005), most of them identify the existence of internal factors related directly with the person (sex, age, level of maturity, personal and social identity, etc.), as well as other external factors from work, social, and economic settings that act as external constraints, and a third group of factors, resulting from the interaction between the person and his or her setting, such as the training received, social and family support, or strategies for planning and seeking work.

As a result of the constant exchange at play between all of these factors, university students become active agents in their employability and not just mere passive receptors of successive socioeconomic changes (Figuera, 1996). Consequently, it is as important to know and identify these factors as it is for higher education to consider and work on the employability of the university student, understood as a slow-growing crop (Yorke and Harvey, 2005), the development of which entails a set of essential competencies for acquiring a job, such as career guidance, information, and the necessary attitudes to perform and keep a job (Knight and Yorke, 2002; Van der Heijde, 2014).

Despite the breadth and complexity of this concept, employability in the university setting is initially established and begun in the process of social and workforce entry of the student, a process that starts before they complete their training at university. This moment not only coincides with major changes but also with environmental pressures, where the future expectations and beliefs regarding the better or worse preparation for approaching the start of one's working life, are, according to Auberni's contributions (1995), mainly based on sufficient information, a positive attitude, and the acquisition of appropriate competencies.

Studies such as those completed by Rodríguez Espinar, Prades, and Basart (2007) or Rodríguez Espinar. Prades. Bernáldez, and Sánchez (2010), reveal the relationship between the information students receive about academic-professional aspects of the qualifications and a more positive perception of entering the workforce. For their part, Stevenson and Clegg (2011) and Tomlinson (2010) allude to the information and guidance university students receive as the fundamental element of commitment and understanding between academic learning and their employability. Salas (2003) also draws attention to the relationship between the decisions and the strategies that university students use concerning their workforce entry and the significance of students having quality information about the main characteristics of the job market in general and their professional field in particular.

This information must, however, be connected to the development of competencies that enable students to have better adaptation and work performance in the *VUCA* society described above. Indeed, the level of development of these transversal competencies along with how important students regard them for their professional future make students' satisfaction with their university education vary and, depending on it, their per-

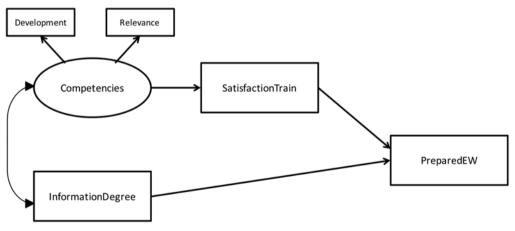


spective when facing entering the workforce also changes. This relationship is reflected in various studies that consider students' evaluation of the competencies they develop during university education (Conchado and Carot, 2013; Freire Seoane, 2007; Freire, Teijeiro, and Pais, 2013; Villa and Poblete, 2007) and their relevance to the graduates' workforce entry (Humburg and Van der Velden, 2015; Humburg, De Grip, and Van der Velden, 2012: Raybould and Sheedy. 2005: Suleman, 2016; Wilton, 2011). Throughout this research, it is apparent that disenchantment or dissatisfaction with university education goes hand in hand with requirements that do not relate to the job market, lack of applicability of what students learn in their degrees, and lesser development of key or transversal com-

petencies for them to be able to operate effectively in the world of work.

Based on these considerations and the theoretical foundations, this work proposes a hypothetical model (Graph 2) of university students' valuation of their current preparation for entering the workforce. This perception, according to this model, firstly depends on their satisfaction with the education they receive during their degree, which is affected directly by the development of a series of transversal competencies and how important they consider their training to be for their entry into the current job market, and secondly on the information and knowledge students have about the different options and work opportunities of their respective qualifications.

Graph 2. Hypothetical model of university education and its relationship with preparation for entering the workforce from the students' perspective.



Source: Own elaboration.

These components, that have a more or less direct impact on students' perceptions of their chances of success in the process of entering the workforce, are specified in the following factors (or variables) of the model presented in Graph 2: *Competen*-



cies, alluding to a latent variable concerning training in transversal competencies which includes the Development throughout the university career of a set of 19 competence elements that relate to the more personal and participatory component of the student and the Relevance the student gives each of these elements for accessing the job market; InformationDegree, covering students' evaluations of the main lines, aspects, and career prospects of their Satisfaction Train courses: concerning their level of satisfaction with the training received throughout the degree; and PreparedEW in which students evaluate their perception of their chances of success in the process of entering the workforce.

Based on this hypothetical model and its theoretical foundation, the following objectives are proposed:

- a) Determining the model's fit with the data from the research.
- b) Analysing the relationships found between the variables.
- c) Comparing the effect of career guidance about these variables to establish a possible causal relationship.

2. Method

2.1. Sample

A total of 931 students from different degree courses spread across four major branches of knowledge from both the University of Murcia (70%), and the University of Granada (30%) participated in this work. Their mean age is around 23 (SD = 4.174), with women more prevalent (75.3% of the total sample), as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Distribution of the sample by sex, university, and branch of knowledge.

		n	%
TOTAL	931	100.0	
G	Male	230	24.7
Sex	Female	701	75.3
TT-:id	Universidad de Murcia	652	70
University	Universidad de Granada	279	30
	Social and legal sciences	701	75.3
Duon shoof lan amila data	Health sciences	105	11.3
Branch of knowledge	Science	52	5.6
	Arts and humanities	73	7.8

Note: (n) number of final-year degree students; (%) percentage of the total sample. Source: Own elaboration.



This is a representative sample obtained through random cluster sampling.

The study population (final-year degree students) is 6896 and estimating a con-

fidence level of 99% (K=2), with a ± 3.93 margin of error and Z = 1.96, from the most unfavourable condition (p = q = 0.5).

2.2. Instrument

To perform this work, the survey technique was used with the Questionnaire on Career Guidance and Entering the Workforce (COIL), which was designed using an *ad hoc* process for a broader research project of which this work is a part. The preparation of this instrument makes it possible to gather quantitative and qualitative information from the perspective of final-year degree students about their upcoming entry into the job market.

This instrument is structured into five large blocks of content comprising:

- i) Personal and academic information.
- ii) Academic-professional experience.
 - iii) Training on the degree.
- iv) Expectations and beliefs regarding employment.
- v) The resources and services the students can use to improve their entry into the workforce. This article focuses on blocks three and five, including the variables shown in Table 2, to analyse the hypothetical model proposed in Graph 2.

Table 2. Variables from the COIL to be analysed, by number of items and analysis of internal consistency.

	Internal co				
Variable	Items (n)	Cronbach's Alpha (α close to 1)	Other indices (±1)		
V1. Evaluate the following transversal competencies according to how they have been developed throughout your degree and their relevance for entering the workplace	19	Development α =.897 Relevance α =.896 Overall scale α =.898			
V2. How much information do you have about each of the following aspects relating to the career prospects of your course?	9	Overall scale $\alpha = .880$			
V3. How satisfied are you with the training you have received throughout your degree?	1		Skewness =274 Kurtosis = .208		
V4. Do you feel prepared to tackle your upcoming entry into the job market?	1		Skewness =154 Kurtosis = .080		

Note: (n) number of items that make up the variable.

Source: Own elaboration.



All of these variables were evaluated by the students on a 1 to 5 Likert scale, on which 1 = not at all and 5 = a lot. Furthermore, as Table 2 shows, these scales have been subjected to a construct validity process (Martínez Clares and González Lorente, 2018), that made it possible to analyse their internal consistency accord-

ing to the particular characteristics of the variables. For the first two variables displayed in Table 3, Cronbach's Alpha was used owing to the large number of items, while for the two following variables, the sampling distribution was analysed based on the skewness and kurtosis indices to obtain evidence of its validity.

Table 3. Items in variables 1 and 2 of the questionnaire for analysis.

V1. Evaluate the following transversal competencies depending on how they have been developed throughout your course and their relevance for entering the workforce	V2. How much information do you have about each of the following aspects relating to the career prospects of your course?
1. Self-awareness	1. Work organisations where I can carry out my profession
2. Analysing, summarising, and critiquing	2. Entry routes to the different posts
3. Organisation and planning	3. Roles performed in different jobs
4. Communication skills	4. Means and procedures for carrying out these roles
5. Responsibility and perseverance	5. Participatory and personal competencies
6. Decision making	6. Technical and methodological competencies
7. Guiding people	7. Chances of promotion in the different fields and organisations
8. Team work and cooperation	8. Employment prospects
9. Ability to learn and adapt	9. Knowledge of the life-style (working hours, working conditions, possibilities of combining with other interests, etc.)
10. Flexibility and guidance concerning change	
11. Motivation for achievement	
12. Commitment to the organisation	
13. Ability to work under pressure	
14. Conflict solving and negotiating techniques	
15. Striving for excellence	

V1. Evaluate the following transversal competencies depending on how they have been developed throughout your course and their relevance for entering the workforce	V2. How much information do you have about each of the following aspects relating to the career prospects of your course?
16. Innovation	
17. Entrepreneurship	
18. Leadership	
19. Capacity for resilience and handling frustration	

Source: Own elaboration.

2.3. Methodological design and procedure

To meet the different objectives of this work, a quantitative methodological focus was adopted, with a *non-experimental*, *exploratory*, and *cross-sectional* survey-type research design using an *ad hoc* questionnaire.

The procedure followed in this research comprised the following phases:

- 1) In-depth literature search and setting research objectives.
- 2) Designing the data-collection instrument, the COIL *ad hoc* questionnaire.
- 3) Qualitative validation of the content of the questionnaire through the technique of expert judgement.
- 4) Voluntary, anonymous, and confidential data collection throughout the 2015-2016 academic year, among final-year degree students from various courses.
- 5) Data analysis using the SPSS v23 statistical computer program and construct validity of the COIL ques-

tionnaire to define the internal consistency and reliability of this data collection instrument.

- 6) Preparing a structural regression model from the theoretical foundation and data analysed for the purpose of in-depth examination of university students' evaluation of their feelings and beliefs about their preparation for tackling their social and workplace entry during the final year of initial training at university.
- 7) Analysing and presenting the results of this model that comprise this piece of work.

2.4. Data analysis

The AMOS v21 program was used to perform the data analysis and estimate the relationships established between the different variables in the proposed model. A structural regression model was designed to perform a simultaneous analysis of latent and manifest variables in accordance with the contributions by Bazán, Sánchez, Corral, and



Castañeda (2006). Concerning the first category, this model presents one latent variable, *Competency*, comprising two indicators or manifest variables, such as the *Development* and *Relevance* of a set of elements of previously evaluated competencies. The relationship established between these variables is unidirectional and causal, as is the case with the remaining observable variables for the model, represented in a rectangle: *InformationDegree*, *SatisfactionTrain*, and *PreparedEW*.

With the exception of the first of these variables, InformationDegree, which is an independent (or exogenous) variable through a bidirectional relationship with the latent variable and its corresponding covariance, the remaining observable variables are affected by another variable and, consequently, function as dependent (endogenous) ones, with an associated prediction error. Furthermore, attendance or participation in career guidance programmes by the university student, whether compulsory or voluntary, is considered in the structural regression model as a grouping variable, according to the classification of variables provided by Ruiz, Pardo, and San Martin (2010). Accordingly, a categorical variable is used that represents two different sub-populations of students to be compared by whether they have participated in career guidance programmes during their university education.

To estimate all of the parameters, the maximum likelihood (ML) method was used, as it is regarded as the most appropriate for multivariate normal variables (Oliver, Tomás, Hontangas, Cheyne, and Cox, 1999; Zurita, Castro, Álvarez,

Rodríguez, and Pérez, 2016). Following this estimation and analysis of the significance of the parameters equivalent to the regression coefficients (Cupani, 2012), the goodness of fit of the model was tested, both for the total number of participants in the study and for the parameters obtained after applying the grouping variable, based on the following indices:

- a) Absolute fit indices, such as the chi-squared statistic, the non-significant *p* values for which indicate a good fit.
- b) Relative fit indices such as the CFI (comparative fit index), the IFI (incremental fit index), and NFI (normed fit index), the values close to unity of which correspond with an ideal fit (Hu and Bentler; 1999; Kline, 1998).
- c) The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), that is considered good if below 0.05 and acceptable if the value does not exceed 0.08 (Browne and Cudeck, 1993).

3. Results

The results obtained from the evaluation of the goodness of fit of the model with the empirical data from the research are summarised in Table 4. Despite the associated significant p-value in the chisquared test (p = .000), partly owing to the high sensitivity of this test with the analysis of large samples, the other indices correspond with a good fit of the model. Consequently, the relative fit or comparison indices are very close to unity while the RMSEA, with a value of .069, is an adequate fit.



Chi-squared	CFI	IFI	NFI	RMSEA
21,496 gl = 4	.950	.952	.942	.069
p = .000				

TABLE 4. Coefficients and indices of goodness of fit of the model.

Source: Own elaboration

Having tested the goodness of fit of the model, the causal relationships between the different variables were studied through technical evaluation of the estimated parameters. These parameters present adequate magnitudes, with relationships that are statistically significant and without negative variances as shown in Table 5. All of the levels of significance of the relationships established attain p = .005, with the exception of the causal relationship between preparation before entering the workforce and satisfaction with the training received, the significance of which is even greater at p = .002.

Table 5. Regression weight (R.W.) and standardised regression weights (S.R.W.) between variables.

Dalatian akin	! - l. l		R.	w.		S.R.W.	
Relationship between variables				E.E.	C.R.	p	Est.
Satisfaction Training	<	Competency	.702	.101	6.968	***	.423
Development	<	Competency	1,000				.799
Relevance	<	Competency	.288	.046	6.231	***	.324
Prepared EW	<	Satisfaction Training	.115	.037	3.111	.002	.101
Prepared EW	<	Information Degree	.262	.041	6.337	***	.205
Information Degree	<>	Competency	.122	.013	9.403	***	.404

Note: R.W. =Regression Weights; S.R.W. =Standardised Regression Weights; Est. =Estimates; E.E. =Error Estimate; C.R. =Critical Ratio; p=significance level (***=.005).

Source: Own elaboration.

These results are also visually and schematically presented in Graph 3 with their standardised regression weights. In other words, they are expressed in standard deviation units. Among these, the

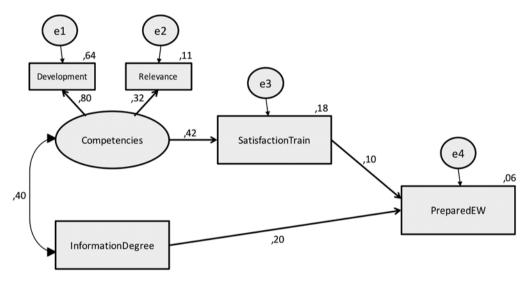
latent variable represented with an ellipsis correlates with its two indicators, *Development* and *Relevance*, with regression weights of 0.80 and 0.32, respectively. These high regression weights are also



revista española de pedagogía year LXXVI, n. 269, January-April 2018, 119·139 present in the causal relationship established between the construct of *Competencies* and its effect on the students' satisfaction with their training (0.42). In contrast, the standardised regression weights fall in the relationships established directly with the *PreparedEW* variable con-

cerning students' expectations or beliefs about their preparation for entering the workforce. Therefore, neither students' satisfaction with their training (0.10) nor the information they acquire during their degree (0.20), display a strong causal relationship to consider with this variable.

Graph 3. Standardised structural equations model.



Source: Own elaboration.

It is important to note the bidirectional relationship between the latent variable and the observable independent variable (*InformationDegree*), with an adequate standardised regression weight value of 0.404 (Graph 3). Nonetheless, this parameter, unlike in the previous cases, represents the covariance existing between these two variables and, consequently, even though it is an optimal value, in this case, the S.R.W. only indicates the presence of a correlation without being able to determine the direction of the causality.

It is interesting to compare the parameters that are obtained once the grouping variable had been applied, consisting in analysing the data according to whether the student has participated in career guidance programmes while at university. These results initially indicate an increase in the covariance established between the construct of competencies and the observable and independent variable relating to the information received about aspects linked to the career prospects of the respective degrees taken (Table 6). While the strength or regres-



sion weight was around 0.40 in the previous case, when we take into account the grouping variable, this parameter increases for students who have participated in one of these programmes (0.545), while it is lower for those who have not

participated in one (0.382). Nonetheless, and despite this difference, the relationship between both variables remains statistically significant at .005 with just a 5% error probability.

TABLE 6. Regression weight (R.W.) and standardised regression weights (S.R.W.) between latent variable and the observable independent variable.

_		Grouping variable -	R.W.				S.R.W.	
betwe	en va	riables	Career guidance	Est.	E.E.	C.R.	p	Est.
Information		G	Yes	.163	.039	4.215	***	.545
Degree	<>	Competency	No	.116	.014	8.396	***	.382

Note: R.W. = Regression Weights; S.R.W. = Standardised Regression Weights; Est. = Estimates; E.E. = Error Estimate; C.R. = Critical Ratio; p = significance level (***=.005).

Source: Own elaboration.

For their part, the relationships established between the remaining observable variables also undergo changes when the categorical variable in question is applied. As Table 7 shows, the causal relationship between students' satisfaction with training at university and their beliefs about their preparation for tackling their entry into the workforce increases considerably, up to the point that the existence of a

causal relationship with a S.R.W. = 0.378 can be considered in the case of attending or participating in career guidance programmes. This contrasts with the regression weights obtained in the case of students who have not participated or if this grouping variable is not taken into account, where the relationship is very weak and the existence of other variables not observed in the model was considered.

TABLE 7. Regression weight (R.W.) and standardised regression weights (S.R.W.) between observable variables.

_		Grouping variable -	R.W.				S.R.W.	
betwe	en va	riables	career guidance	Est.	E.E.	C.R.	p	Est.
Satisfaction		C	Yes	.728	.242	3.010	.003	.415
Training	<	Competency	No	.692	.111	6.528	***	.421



Pilar MARTÍNEZ CLARES and Cristina GONZÁLEZ LORENTE

-		Grouping variable -	R.W.				S.R.W.	
betwe	between variables		career guidance	Est.	E.E.	C.R.	p	Est.
Danalammant	_	C	Yes	.100				.745
Development	<	Competency	No	.100				.808
D-1		< Competency	Yes	.344	.123	2.804	***	.372
Relevance	<		No	.283	.050	5.631	***	.321
D 1 DW		Satisfaction	Yes	.455	.102	4.458	***	.378
Prepared EW	/ < Training	No	.230	.045	5.100	***	.178	
D 1 EW	Information	Yes	.058	.091	.631	.528	.054	
Prepared EW	<	Degree	No	.124	.040	3.107	.002	.108

Note: R.W. = Regression Weights; S.R.W. = Standardised Regression Weights; Est. = Estimates; E.E. = Error Estimate; C.R. = Critical Ratio; p = significance level (***=.005).

Source: own elaboration.

This does not happen in the case of the relationship between information received during the degree and preparation for tackling entry into the workforce; the results in Table 7 again show how this relationship reduces yet further when considering whether the students have participated in career guidance programmes. In both cases, there is hardly any relationship, with very low regression weights and even a *p*-value of .528, meaning that this relationship is not statistically significant when the sub-population of students who attended a career guidance programme is considered.

For the other variables analysed in Table 7, the causal relationships remain statistically significant with regression weights very close to those obtained for the study population as a whole. In these relationships, therefore, the grouping variable does not have a considerable effect that alters the strength or effect of one variable on another.

Finally, Table 8 again shows the principal indices that indicate the goodness of fit of the model but, in this case, after comparing the empirical data based on the grouping variable. Although they are similar data, with values for the CFI, IFI, and NFI indices that are very high and close to 1, demonstrating the good fit of the model, in this case the increase in the RMSEA to a value of 0.047 stands out, representing a good fit of the model, unlike the figure previously obtained for the analysis of the total sample, which with a RMSEA = 0.069, indicated a more moderate fit.



TABLE 8. Coefficients and indices of goodness
of fit of the model with the grouping variable.

Chi-squared	CFI	IFI	NFI	RMSEA
24,731 $gl = 8$ $p = .002$.952	.955	.935	.047

Source: Own elaboration.

4. Discussion and conclusions

This piece of work, among its main conclusions, provides a structural model for the relationship between different variables in the difficult and always complex process of social and workplace entry of university students before they complete their initial training. It provides a model based on the theoretical foundation and with overall and incremental goodness of fit indices that corroborate its design with a good fit to the empirical data. This model aligns with other previously presented studies (Bridgstock, 2009; Figuera, 1996; Forrier and Sels, 2003; Fugate, Kinicki and Ashforth, 2004; Hogan, Chamorro-Premuzic and Kaiser, 2013; Knight and Yorke, 2004; Moreau and Leathwood, 2006; Stokes, 2015; Thijssen Van der Heijden, and Rocco, 2008) that try to approach, from different perspectives, the complexity of the transition to the active life of young people with training from a complicated network spun from numerous personal and contextual factors.

In this framework which is currently so prominent, this structural regression model's novelty lies in the possibility of jointly analysing the relationships produced between latent and manifest

variables, while at the same time introducing the effect that other variables, such as participation in career guidance programmes, might have on these relationships. In all cases, the causal relationships are statistically significant, in accordance with the approach proposed in the hypothetical model presented.

Among the relationships studied, the one established for measuring a construct as important in higher education as competency-based training is particularly noteworthy. This variable is not directly observable and so in this work, as in others (Smith, Ferns and Russell, 2014), it is measured using different indicators that are regarded as basic for the development of this slow-growing crop that employability represents (Yorke and Harvey, 2005). The high standardised regression weights obtained in this sense are in line with other studies (Allen, Ramaekers and Van der Velden, 2003; Humburg and Van der Velden, 2015; Jackson, 2013; Knight and Yorke, 2004; Lantarón, 2014; Smith, Ferns, and Russell, 2014, 2016; Wesselink, De Jong, and Biemans, 2010). These underline the value of identifying a series of transversal competencies. their relevance for the students' entry into the workforce, and their implementa-



tion during university education to boost higher-education students' employability and increase their general satisfaction with their training as a key part of its perceived quality (González Zamora and Sanchís Pedregosa, 2014; Sirgy, Grezeskowiak, and Rahtz, 2007).

Similarly, the correlation established between training based on competencies and the information students receive during their studies on the different career prospects and employment prospects relating to their qualification is important. The strength of this relationship attained in the results of the standardised model, shows that information is a fundamental aspect in the development of any teaching-learning process, especially when the aim is to train students to be independent and critical thinkers when selecting and managing useful information for seeking work. This is noted in the works by Robinson, Meyer, Prince, McLean and Low (2000) and, more recently, by Koys (2017) who observes a significant increase in students' professional conscience and their competencies based on better access to relevant information about the employment prospects and opportunities their degree offers in the current and future job market.

In contrast, and despite the contributions from other researchers (Salas, 2003; Stevenson and Clegg, 2011; Tomlinson, 2010), the results obtained indicate a weaker causal relationship in the effect this variable produces in relation to the quantity of useful information for entry into society and the workplace and the students' personal impression of being better prepared for this process. This also

happens in the relationship between the satisfaction variable and training; this does not display high regression weights relating to students' belief that they are more or less prepared before their entry into the workforce.

In essence, despite these being statistically significant relationships, it appears that in this more personal perception, there are other factors or variables that are not contemplated in the presented model and that might more directly and to a greater extent affect their development, such as the students' personal initiative (Gamboa, Lerin, Ripoll and Peiró, 2007), their socio-demographic characteristics (Rothwell and Arnold, 2007), their field of study, or previous work experience.

This is the case with the grouping variable introduced in this study, the results for which show an increase in these causal relationships relating to the belief among students who participated in an advice and career guidance programme voluntarily and/or on a mandatory basis that they will experience a good entry into the workforce at the end of their initial training at university. These results agree with the works by Popovic and Tomas (2009) or Dobrea and Staiculescu (2016) that observe a more optimistic vision of the transition to working life when the students explore and identify their own personal resources, emphasise their talents and start to put into action their plans for their career and life that are continuously being reviewed and updated. Similarly, Winters (2012) underscores how career guidance programmes have a positive effect on graduates' competencies and career options.



Career guidance affects the construction of these projects, becoming the distinguishing feature of higher education and the main axis of the basic training-career guidance-employment triangle. Therefore, it would be advisable to change the focus of the organisation of career guidance and its role within universities. to improve the processes of advice and career guidance as key practices to encourage the motivation and construction of the student's academic-professional career, because, as has been shown in the positive influence of participation in career guidance programmes within the hypothetical model, there is no point in isolating university education from personal and social development aspects, on the path to encourage the employability of the students in an adverse and unpredictable world of work (McArthur, 2011).

Universities should manage students' entry into the workforce and employability with a set of actions aimed at helping students develop specific and transversal competencies, as well as better practices for developing their relationship with businesses or workplace settings and opportunities to access employment and pre-professional placements, and for building a professional profile.

One of this study's limitations is the one-sided data collection by the students who are the central figures in their process of entering the workforce. However, the interesting results obtained in this way are an incentive for continuing with this line of research and providing new perspectives and focusses that go into greater depth in the identification of the major personal, training, social, and professional factors, as

well as in the relationship established between them. Therefore, it would be possible to continue along the lines that the EHEA proposes, producing a better analysis and greater knowledge of the employability of future graduates and their transition to working life as a process that transcends the limits of the learning economy and that, therefore, is pertinent to the university experience as a whole, in its different levels and contexts (Alcoforado, 2013).

At present, the difficulties of young people's transition to working life are not so much the greater or lesser benefits they achieve, but the permanent configuration of a changing and ambiguous social context in which they must make this transition.

Higher education should adapt itself to meet the new demands of the ever more versatile and fluid job market; for this reason, it must provide a better knowledge of real life to transform and improve it. With this aim, all efforts should focus on offering university students quality education and skills training to give them the necessary competencies to be able to take decisions about the career options that best fit their education. Career guidance must be a factor for change that boosts this quality and it must become a process of equality and equity in a sustainable society.

References

Allen, J., Ramaeker, G. and Van Der Velden, R. (2003). La medición de las competencias de los titulados superiores. In J. Vidal (Coord.), Métodos de análisis de la Inserción Laboral de los Universitarios (pp. 31-54). Salamanca: Kadmos.



Pilar MARTÍNEZ CLARES and Cristina GONZÁLEZ LORENTE

- Alcoforado, L. (2013). Estrategias, retos e recursos para los orientadores en el escenario de la educación y la formación a lo largo de la vida. In P. Figuera (Coord.), Orientación Profesional y Transiciones en el Mundo Laboral. Innovaciones en orientación sistémica y en gestión personal de la carrera (pp. 21-50). Barcelona: Laertes.
- Auberni, S. (1995). *La orientación profesional*. Barcelona: Institut Municipal d'educació.
- Bathmaker, A. M. and Thomas, W. (2009). Positioning themselves: An exploration of the nature and meaning of transitions in the context of dual sector FE/HE institutions in England. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 33 (2), 119–130.
- Bazán, A., Sánchez, B., Corral, V. and Castañeda, S. (2006). Utilidad de los modelos estructurales en el estudio de la lectura y la escritura. Revista Interamericana de Psicología, 40, 85-93.
- Bennett, N., and Lemoine, G. (2014). What VUCA really means for you. *Harvard Business Review*, 92 (1/2). Retrieved from https://ssrn.com/abstract=2389563 (Consulted on March 12, 2017).
- Bridgstock, R. (2009). The graduate attributes we've overlooked: enhancing graduate employability through career management skills. Higher Education Research and Development, 28 (1), 31-44.
- Brown, P., Hesketh, A. and Williams, S. (2002). Employability in a knowledge-driven economy. In P. Knight (Ed.), Notes from the 13th June 2002 'Skills plus' conference, Innovation in education for employability held at Manchester Metropolitan University (pp. 5-25). Retrieved from http://www.open.ac.uk/vqportal/Skills-Plus/documents/13%20June.pdf (Consulted on February 22, 2017).
- Browne, M. W. and Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. In K. A. Bollen and J. S. Long, (Eds.), *Testing Structural Equation Models* (pp. 136-162). Beverly Hills, USA: Sage.

- Conchado, A. and Carot, J. (2013). Puntos fuertes y débiles en la formación por competencias. Revista de Docencia Universitaria, 11 (1), 429-446.
- Cupani, M. (2012). Análisis de ecuaciones estructurales: conceptos, etapas de desarrollo y un ejemplo de aplicación. Revista Tesis, 1, 186-199.
- Dobrea, R. C. and Staiculescu, C. (2016). Next manager. Academic Background versus Labor Market Requirements. Risk in Contemporary Economy, 244-252.
- Figuera, P. (1996). La inserción socio-profesional del universitario/a. Barcelona: Ediciones Universidad de Barcelona.
- Forrier, A. and Sels, L. (2003). The concept employability: a complex mosaic. *Human Resources* Development and Management, 3 (2), 102-124.
- Freire, M. J., Teijeiro, M. M. and Pais, C. (2013). La adecuación entre las competencias adquiridas por los graduados y las requeridas por los empresarios. Revista de Educación, 362, 13-41.
- Freire Seoane, M. J. (2007). Competencias profesionales de los universitarios. Consello Social Universidade da Coruña, Universidade da Coruña.
- Fugate, M., Kinicki, A. J. and Ashforth, B. E. (2004). Employability: A psycho-social construct, its dimensions, and applications. *Jour*nal of Vocational Behavior, 65, 14-38.
- Gamboa, J. P., Lerin, F. J., Ripoll, P. and Peiró. J. M. (2007). La empleabilidad y la iniciativa personal como antecedentes de la satisfacción laboral. *Documentos de trabajo: Serie* EC (Instituto Valenciano de Investigaciones Económicas), 1.
- García Moreno, J. M. and Martínez Martín, R. (2012). Ser joven hoy en España. Dificultades para el acceso al mundo de los adultos. Revista Castellano-Manchega de Ciencias Sociales, 14, 29-40. doi.org/10.20932/barataria.v0i14.99



- González Zamora, M. M., and Sanchís Pedregosa, C. (2014). Satisfacción de los egresados con la formación recibida en el Máster de Estudios Avanzados en Dirección de Empresas. Revista de Educación en Contabilidad, Finanzas y Administración de Empresas, 5, 33-48.
- Harris, R., and Rainey, L. (2012). Learning pathways between and within vocational and higher education: Towards a typology? *Australian Educational Researcher*, 39, 107-123.
- Hartshorn, C. and Sear, L. (2005). Employability and Enterprise: Evidence from the North East. *Urban Studies*, 42 (2), 271-283.
- Hemingway, A. and Marquart, J. (2013). Uncertainty is opportunity: Engage with purpose. *Edelman*. Retrieved from https://www.edelman.com/post/uncertainty-is-opportunity-engage-with-purpose/ (Consulted on April 2, 2017).
- Hogan, R., Chamorro-Premuzic, T. and Kaiser, R. B. (2013). Employability and Career Success: Bridging the Gap Between Theory and Reality, *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 6, 3-16.
- Hu, L. and Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cut-off criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. Structural Equation Modeling, 6, 1–55.
- Humburg, M. and Van der Velden, R. (2015). Skills and the graduate recruitment process: Evidence from two discrete choice experiments, *Economics of Education Review*, 49, 24-41.
- Humburg, M., De Grip, A. and Van der Velden, R. (2012). Which skills protect graduates against a slack labour market? *International Labour Review*. doi: 10.1111/j.1564-913X.2015.00046.x
- Jackson, D. (2013). Student Perceptions of the Importance of Employability Skill Provision in Business Undergraduate Programs. *Journal of Education for Business*, 88 (5), 271-279. doi: 10.1080/0883232.2012.697928

- Kline, R. B. (1998). Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling. New York, USA: The Guilford Press.
- Knight, P. T. and Yorke, M. (2002). Employability through the curriculum. Tertiary Education and Management, 8 (4), 261-276. doi:10.1023/A:1021222629067
- Knight, P. and Yorke, M. (2004) *Learning, Curriculum and Employability in Higher Education*. London: Routledge Falmer.
- Koys, D. J. (2017). Using the Department of Labor's «My Next Move» to Improve Career Preparedness. Journal of Management Education, 41 (1), 94-117.
- Lantarón, B. S. (2014). La empleabilidad en la Universidad Española. *Journal for Educators*, *Teachers and Trainers*, 5 (2), 272-286.
- Lent, R. W. and Brown, S. T. (2013). Social Cognitive Model of Career Self- Management: Toward a Unifying View of Adaptive Career Behavior Across the Life Span. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 60 (4), 557-568.
- Longhi, S. and Taylor, M. (2011). Explaining differences in job search outcomes between employed and unemployed job seekers. IZA Discussion Paper, 5860, 1-29.
- Martínez Clares, P. and González Lorente, C. (2018). Validez de contenido y consistencia interna de un cuestionario sobre el proceso de inserción socio-laboral desde la mirada del universitario. Revista Complutense de Educación, 29 (3), 33-50. (pending publication).
- McArthur, J. (2011). Reconsidering the social and economic purposes of higher education. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 30, 737-749. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/072943 60.2010.539596
- Moreau, M. and Leathwood, C. (2006). Graduates' employment and the discourse of employability: a critical analysis. *Journal of Education and Work*, 19 (4), 305-324.
- OCDE (2016). Panorama de la educación 2016. Indicadores de la OCDE. Madrid: Fundación Santillana.



- Oliver, A., Tomás, J. M., Hontangas, P. M., Cheyne, A., and Cox, S. J. (1999). Efectos del error de medida aleatorio en modelos de ecuaciones estructurales con y sin variables latentes. *Psicológica*, 20, 41-55.
- Popovic, C. and Tomas, C. (2009) Creating future proof graduates. Assessment, Learning and Teaching Journal, 5, 37-39.
- Raybould, J. and Sheedy, V. (2005). Are Graduates Equipped with the Right Skills in the Employability Stakes? *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 37 (5), 259-263.
- Robinson, N. K., Meyer, D., Prince, J. P., McLean, C. and Low, R. (2000). Mining the internet for career information: A model approach for college students. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 8, 37-54.
- Rodríguez Espinar, S., Prades, A., Bernáldez, L. and Sánchez, S. (2010). Sobre la empleabilidad de los graduados universitarios en Catalunya: del diagnóstico a la acción. Revista de Educación, 351, 107-137.
- Rodríguez, S., Prades, A. and Basart, A. (2007).
 Accions per facilitar la inserció laboral. In A. Serra (Ed.), Educació superior i treball a Catalunya (pp. 329-368). Barcelona: Agència per a la Qualitat del Sistema Universitari de Catalunya (AQU).
- Rothwell, A. and Arnold, J. (2007). Self-perceived employability: development and validation of a scale. *Personnel Review*, *36* (1), 23-41.
- Ruiz M. A., Pardo A. and San Martín, R. (2010). Modelos de ecuaciones estructurales. *Papeles del Psicólogo*, 31, 34-45.
- Salas, M. (2003). Educación superior y mercado de trabajo. Granada: Grupo Editorial Universitario.
- Santana Vega, L. (2010). La transición a la vida activa. *Revista de Educación*, 351, 15-21.
- Savickas, M. L. (2005). The theory and practice of career construction. In S.D. Brown and R.W. Lent (Eds.), Career Development and Coun-

- selling: Putting theory and research to work (pp. 42-70). New Jersey, USA: John Wiley and Sons. Inc.
- Sirgy, M. J., Grezeskowiak, S. and Rahtz, D. (2007). Quality of College Life (QCL) of Students: Developing and Validating a Measure of Well-Being. Social Indicators Research, 80 (2), 343-360.
- Sissons, P. and Jones, K. (2012). Lost in transition? The changing labour market and young people not in employment, education or training. London: The Work Foundation.
- Smith, C., Ferns, S. and Russell, L. (2016). Designing work-integrated learning placements that improve student employability: Six facets of the curriculum that matter. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Cooperative Education*, 17 (2), 197-211.
- Smith, C. D., Ferns, S. and Russell, L. (2014). Conceptualising and measuring "employability" lessons from a national OLT project. In K. Moore, (Ed.), Work integrated learning: Building capacity (pp. 139-148). Gold Coast, Qld, Australia: Australian Collaborative Education Network.
- Stevenson, J. and Clegg, S. (2011). Possible selves: students orientating themselves towards the future through extracurricular activity, *British Educational Research Journal*, 37 (2), 231-246
- Stokes, P. J. (2015). Higher Education and Employability: New Models for Integrating Study and Work. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.
- Suleman, F. (2016). Employability Skills of Higher Education Graduates: Little Consensus on a Much-discussed Subject. *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 228, 169-174.
- Svob, C., Brown, N. R., Reddon, J., Uzer, T. and Lee, R. (2013). The transitional impact scale: Assessing the material and Psychological impact of life transitions. *Behavior Research Methods*, 46, 448-455.
- Taveira, M. C. (2013). Promover la empleabilidad profesional en la vida adulta. El papel de los



- seminarios de gestión personal de la carrera. In P. Figuera (Coord.), *Orientación profesional* y transiciones en un mundo global (pp. 161-192). Barcelona: Laertes
- Thijssen, J., Van der Heijden, B. and Rocco, T. (2008). Toward the employability link model: current employment transition for future employment perspectives. *Human Resource De*velopment Review, 7, 165-183.
- Tomlinson, M. (2010). Investing in the self: structure, agency and identity in graduates' employability, Education, Knowledge and Economy, 4 (2), 73-88.
- Van der Heijde, C. M. (2014). Employability and Self-Regulation in Contemporary Careers. In M. Coetzee (Ed.), Psycho-social Career Metacapacities (pp. 7-17). London, UK: Springer.
- Villa, A. and Poblete, M. (2007). Aprendizaje basado en competencias. Una propuesta para la evaluación de las competencias genéricas. Bilbao: Mensajero.
- Wesselink, R., De Jong, C. and Biemans, H.J.A. (2010). Aspects of competence-based education as footholds to improve the connectivity between learning in school and in the workplace. Vocations and Learning: Studies in Vocational and Professional Education, 3 (1), 19-38.
- Wilton, N. (2011). Do employability skills really matter in the graduate labour market? Work, Employment and Society, 25 (1), 85-100.
- Winters, A. (2012). Career learning in vocational education: Guiding conversations for career development. Leuven: KU Leuven.
- Yorke, M. and Harvey, L. (2005). Graduate attributes and their development. In R. A. Voor-

- hees and L. Harvey (Eds.), Workforce development and higher education: a strategic role for institutional research (pp. 41-58). (New directions for institutional research; No. 128). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Zurita, F., Castro, O. M., Álvarez, J. I., Rodríguez, S. and Pérez, A. J. (2016). Autoconcepto, actividad física y familia: Análisis de un modelo de ecuaciones estructurales. Revista de Psicología del Deporte, 25 (1), 97-104.

Authors' biographies

Pilar Martínez Clares is PhD in education from the Universidad de Murcia. Lecturer in the Department of Educational Research and Diagnosis Methods in the Faculty of Education of Universidad de Murcia. She works on topics related to career guidance and professional training, diagnosis, development, and evaluation of professional competencies, European Higher Education Area, learning focuses, quality, tutoring in education, and entering the workforce.

Cristina González Lorente is a PhD student. Predoctoral Resercher on the Training Assistance Programme for University Teachers (FPU) of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport in the Department of Educational Research and Diagnosis Methods in the Faculty of Education of Universidad de Murcia. She has also been beneficiary of a research grant in the Support Unit for the General Directorate of Vocational Training at the MECD.



Teaching History: innovation and continuity since Rafael Altamira

La enseñanza de la Historia: innovación y continuidad desde Rafael Altamira

Olga DUARTE PIÑA, PhD. Lecturer. Universidad de Sevilla (oduarte@us.es).

Abstract:

The teaching of History (methodology, projects, materials), has undergone many changes from Rafael Altamira's research over the end of the nineteenth century and first third of the twentieth century through to research by innovation groups comprising teachers in the last third of the twentieth century.

This paper shows the changes and continuities in history teaching models, as well as coincidences and differences. Its aim is to present a history of innovation concerning the teaching of the discipline because, although innovation has been discontinuous and has been more or less present depending on the circumstances and the actors who have promoted it, its return always maintains the intensity of the original expression. Consequently, we believe that this overview of innovation, analysing noteworthy proposals, is needed to record attempted changes and improvements and ensure they are available as a reference point when attempting to understand current initiatives.

Keywords: History of contemporary education, History teaching, educational innovation, teaching materials, educational development.

Resumen:

La enseñanza de la Historia en sus metodologías, proyectos y materiales de enseñanza ha ido variando desde Rafael Altamira, en el tránsito finisecular y primer tercio del siglo XX, a los grupos de innovación formados por profesores durante el último tercio del mismo.

En este trabajo se muestran los cambios y las continuidades en propuestas de enseñanza de la Historia, las coincidencias y las diferencias. La finalidad es exponer una historia de la innovación sobre la enseñanza de la disciplina porque, aunque la innovación ha sido discontinua y se ha manifestado con mayor o menor intensidad dependiendo de las circunstancias y los agentes que la han promovido, siempre su retorno mantiene la misma intensidad de lo originario. Así pues, consideramos necesario hacer este recorrido por la innovación, analizando propuestas destacadas, para dejar constancia de los intentos

This is the English version of an article originally printed in Spanish in issue 269 of the **revista española de pedagogía**. For this reason, the abbreviation EV has been added to the page numbers. Please, cite this article as follows: Duarte Piña, O. (2018). La Enseñanza de la Historia: innovación y continuidad desdeRafael Altamira | *Teaching history: innovation and continuity since Rafael Altamira*. *Revista Española de Pedagogía*, 76 (269), 141-155. doi: 10.22550/REP76-1-2018-07



141 EV

Revision accepted: 2017-09-20.

de cambio y mejora y tenerlos como referente a la hora de entender y comprender las actuales iniciativas. **Descriptores:** Historia de la educación contemporánea, enseñanza de la Historia, innovación educativa, material didáctico, desarrollo de la educación

1. Introduction

When analysing the processes of innovation, it is important to take into account the areas where innovative activities are possible. In the broader framework of this research1 we have studied the political-educational and cultural settings, legislation, currents in historical thinking, agents, and agencies that produce discourses². Consequently, this article considers and classifies as changes or continuities the characteristics of innovation in teaching methods and projects, how socially valuable and educationally useful historical knowledge is regarded as being, the teaching materials published, and, essentially, the repercussions for the teaching system. The sources for this research are works by a series of authors from the first third of the twentieth century that form the basis of innovative history teaching and have been chosen according to how they are implemented and their level of diffusion. Other sources include questionnaires and interviews with teachers who took part in innovation groups during the last third of the 20th century, publications in the academic field, and the classroom materials published.

It could be argued that a favourable political and cultural context is needed to make educational innovation possible, but that if this context does not occur, innova-

tion still happens because it is immanent to teaching and does not necessarily need to be connected to a process of educational reform. Nonetheless, if the two elements -innovation and reform- are both present. it becomes possible to amplify the former and give it the necessary features. However, innovations depend on the people who promote them -the teachers- and the dissemination of their teaching proposals, as they are the ones who support and develop innovations in the face of the continuities of the education system, even though the system changes with the society it is part of and which it teaches. Innovation develops through processes of revision, reflection and creation, but it finds limits to its spread in the traditional structure of the school. Nonetheless, some proposals do become incorporated into the education system, and so the system is not always the same after the impact of the innovation.

Taking into account the plans for innovative actions mentioned above, various moments in the process of innovation in history teaching can be identified: an initial period dating back to 1895 with the publication of the work *La enseñanza de la Historia* (Teaching History) by Rafael Altamira and continuing until 1935; a second period of *underground continuity* (1935-1975); a period in which innovation returns through groups of teachers (1975-



1995) who published and disseminated their materials for teaching at baccalaureate level; and a final period that started in 1996 and continues up to the present day in which the discourses and projects of the teachers who intervened in the previous period follow other paths. This will be analysed in this work that provides an overview of an extensive period which focuses on the most significant moments, what could be referred to as the *drivers of innovation*, in particular in the teaching of history in secondary education.

2. Initial proposals and initiatives for change in teaching history

History had to be created as a subject for the baccalaureate, and its presence in the curriculum dates back to the 1836 to 1838 period. Nonetheless, for the teaching of history to be conceived as a social science and as an innovative educational project for the first time, we must move forward nearly sixty years to the period between 1891 and 1923. In this period, Rafael Altamira did part of his work, publishing La enseñanza de la Historia, the second extended and improved version of which appeared in 1895, Valor social del conocimiento histórico (The social value of historical knowledge, 1922), and *Ideario* pedagógico (Pedagogical thinking, 1923). With these essays, the teaching of history was for the first time viewed as a transformative social action, a practical activity, and a useful activity for training individuals and peoples.

If Rafael Altamira is to be considered as the instigator of a process of renovation of history as a science and field of teaching, then it is important to consider his intellectual precursors and list some of the moments and authors that form the origins of innovation as a project for creation in education and in training the individual, given that Altamira's work brought together ideas about science and pedagogy that had been developing for some time.

Marías (2005, p. 339) states that throughout the eighteenth century in Spain «there is no creative philosophy» and this would not appear until the late-nineteenth century with Unamuno and Ortega y Gasset. Midway through the century, a change in the ideas and character of Spanish liberals can be seen, and outside the political field, this change affected education, art, literature, and religion. Millán Chivite (1975) called the human type that arose from this dynamic «the new man of the Generation of 1868». This generation was complex in its composition and substantive in its range of political-cultural trends. From the generation of the *new man*, a generation that made the revolution, we wish to emphasise the «academic democrats»³, followers or admirers of Julián Sanz del Río who were also influenced by Krausism.

Pedagogy and reformism from then on became the premises for action of the Krausists. At the start of the 1860s, some of Sanz del Río's followers (Francisco de Paula Canalejas, Emilio Castelar, Miguel Morayta) adopted them as guidelines for political action. Although the «young democracy» from then on attracted a sector of the Krausists, these, as Canalejas himself notes, were not agitators but teachers. [...] The Krausists did not make the revolution, as Gil Cremades observes, but the revolution of 68 remembered them,



entrusting to them the key duties of its educational policy (Ruiz Torres, 2001, p. 65).

After the revolution had failed, those who trusted in perfecting humankind through education did not abandon their project, and with the reestablishment of the monarchy in 1874, which involved a return to positivism and the rejection of the educational project that had developed during the six years of the revolutionary period, they founded the Institución Libre de Enseñanza (Free Educational Institution, ILE) in 1876.

Thinkers, teachers, and artists, including Rafael Altamira, joined the ILE⁴. This elite was enthused by the need to renovate the education system, develop the sciences and the arts, and encourage research. «The teaching of history was, therefore, essential for the ILE's goal of raising a new generation of young Spaniards who would form the basis of a modern, democratic nation» (Boyd, 2001, p. 873).

At the same time, new institutions and structural reforms appeared that put education at the vanguard of the political moves to regenerate the country. To illustrate this process (see Mainer, 2009, pp. 51-52), the key moments in a period of the creation of institutions will be mentioned. starting in 1900 with the foundation of the Ministry of Public Instruction and Fine Arts. A year later, a course in general pedagogy was established at the Museo Pedagógico Nacional (National Pedagogical Museum). This course was the precursor of the chair in pedagogy founded at the Central University in 1904. The Junta para la Ampliación de Estudios e Investigaciones Científicas (Board for the Expansion of Scientific Study and Research) was created in 1907, two years after the Escuela de Estudios Superiores del Magisterio (School of Advanced Studies in Teaching), and in 1910, the Centro de Estudios Históricos (Centre for Historical Studies) was founded.

Among this group of new institutions, it is important to distinguish those characterised as discourse producing agencies, «all of them spaces where the first signs of a renewed professionalization would start to appear» (Mainer, 2009, p. 61): the National Pedagogic Museum, the chair in Higher Pedagogy, the Board for the Expansion of Scientific Study and Research⁵, the School of Advanced Studies in Teaching and the Centre for Historical Studies, encouraging the dissemination of the new educational theories and practices.

It is important to note the impetus and scientific and pedagogical knowledge expressed in these spaces, with the participation of historians, university or school professors, professors at the Escuela Normal teacher training school, inspectors, and primary school teachers, who were regarded as the creators of a renovated discourse and practices. And it is also important to acknowledge them as the authors of works in which new methodologies for teaching history were originally conceived, considering their professional status, their involvement in the discourse producing agencies and the level of dissemination of their work. The university professor Rafael Altamira, the school professors Rafael Ballester v Castell and Antonio Jaén Morente and the teachers from the Escuela Normal Teófilo Sanjuán Bartolomé, Daniel González-Linacero, and Gloria Giner de los Ríos García stand out



in this dawn of innovative history. A choice that identifies them as the leading figures in the didactic transformation of history, figures whose ideas would, much later, reappear as the findings of other innovative teachers from the mid-1970s onwards.

The group of «founding fathers» (Mainer, 2009) of the didactics of history comprised Rafael Altamira with his work. La enseñanza de la Historia⁶ and the school professor Rafael Ballester with Clío, Iniciación al estudio de la Historia (parte primera y segunda) (Clio. Initiation in the study of history [first and second part]), the first edition of which was published in 1913 and the seventh and final one in 19457. Altamira's book is an essay on the situation of history teaching in Europe's leading universities with ideas and guidelines about how to teach it, while Ballester's work is a textbook for teaching on the baccalaureate that eschewed verbose, lengthy, or unclear stories and was designed as a guide for the period of learning to which it was directed, with sufficient content to guide any later studies students might wish to pursue and on which they would be instructed in historical science, its auxiliary disciplines, and the historian's craft.

After these founding fathers, others continued their work. Teófilo Sanjuán's *Cómo se enseña la historia* (How history is taught) was published in 1923 and republished five times up to 1933 in the «Serie Metodológica» collection (Methodological series) of the journal *Revista de Pedagogía* and was intended for trainee teachers⁸. In the concepts of his methodology, history teaching appears as an organic overview that educates the intel-

lect and shapes citizens: it incorporates the use of literature as an auxiliary discipline to history and advises using real objects to clarify and illustrate teaching. But what is notable with this author is the organisation of content based on elements that synthesise human development, what he calls lines of association that become conceptual milestones of a civilisation and connections to new knowledge, their gradation remaining in the judgement of the teacher, who must trace the course of each civilisation. Illustrating the coincidences in innovation, it is worth noting that without being aware of this methodological proposal, the Cronos group's curriculum project of the early 1990s organised the content of history into basic tasks or functions of social life, also called facets, and basic social notions. These organisational nuclei have a «dual analytical and pedagogical value» (Grupo Cronos, 1995, p. 18) and make it possible to specify educational knowledge.

The works by the professor at the Palencia Escuela Normal Daniel González-Linacero, *Mi primer libro de Historia* (My first history book, 1933, second edition 1935) and *Mi segundo libro de Historia* (My second history book, 1934)⁹ are books for primary school teaching that are dedicated to a version of history that starts from the child's immediate setting, told simply so that it is understandable, addressing students from a position that is close to their own life.

The textbooks by Antonio Jaén Morente, Lecturas históricas (Iniciación) (Historical readings: Introduction) and Gloria Giner de los Ríos, Cien lecturas históricas (One hundred historical readings) were published



in 1935. Jaén's book presents summarised stories from history, covering what is important in knowledge with the intention of making students feel history and «educating spirits, not people who sit exams» (Jaén Morente, 1935, p. 5). Rafael Ballester, in his textbook Clío, also draws on a simplified version of history that is not overburdened with names, dates, and secondary episodes. González Linacero says the same thing but in other words to provide a useful history that is free from «showiness and sensationalism» (González Linacero, 1999. p. 33). His book is an original collection of fragments from literary texts as sources for studying history: auxiliary Literature for History as Altamira proposed¹⁰.

Broadly speaking, this stage is characterised by the importance it attributes to learning in primary and secondary teaching with the aim of ensuring that the student develops a general knowledge of the discipline, something Altamira describe as a period of general culture. This period contains a series of changes that define the new teaching proposals. On the one hand, new conceptualizations: the concept of civilisation and of internalist history that included all of the orders of life compared with politics as the organising principle of the content, the social subject in contrast with the historical character or hero, and history in its organic sense with the reciprocal influence of all of its parts in contrast with a particular and exclusionary history. Furthermore, there are its teaching aims in the intrinsic regenerative relationship between the past and the present and, related to this, its capacity to educate people. Finally, there is the importance of learning the historical method for the intellectual development of students, contrasting with the exclusive exercise of the memory.

The period of these publications ran from 1895 until 1935, the final year of the selected innovative publications, because the main changes in the discourses and teaching of history of this first period occurred in this time. This is also because these educational proposals can be compared with those that were implemented elsewhere in Europe under equal intellectual and pedagogical conditions.

During the Second Republic, there between what convergences were Escolano (2002) calls the «political-institutional culture» and the «pedagogical culture», but the changes and improvements in the scope of school practices did not become generalised because the business of change and innovation responded to the *principle of multiplicity*¹¹ but was not a mass phenomenon. There were changes in the areas and practices in which they spread and in which innovative teachers engaged: the National Pedagogical Museum, the chair in Higher Pedagogy, the Board for the Expansion of Scientific Study and Research, the School of Advanced Studies in Teaching, and the Centre for Historical Studies, and the publications were still there as examples of a methodological discourse on the teaching of History with a new pedagogical thinking.

When concluding this section, we do not infer that innovation is doomed to failure but, instead, to a constant process of *restarting*¹² that will be seen in the following sections.



3. Underground continuity

Although, there have been attempts to prove that after the Civil War, all of the pedagogical and didactic knowledge that had previously been built and upheld disappeared, authors such as Laín Entralgo and Seco Serrano (1998, p. 17) argue that there was «an underground continuity, affected but not destroyed: much that appeared to have been eradicated continued to exist, albeit in another form, with a different position in life, accordingly acquiring a new configuration». While it is true that many of the intellectuals and teachers who facilitated the change in teaching approaches and in their practices from the last quarter of the nineteenth century had been expelled from their chairs or purged from their teaching roles, not all of them left the country; a minority remained who, despite being restricted in their functions, maintained this prized knowledge to give it life carefully¹³.

After 1939, history textbooks again contained the traditional models of the political tale of heroes and their deeds, presented to exercise the students' memories. «Francoism did everything it could to control, monitor, and put under state command the dissemination and practice of innovations in the school» (Mainer, 2008, p. 7) and it created institutions to this end such as the Centro de Documentación Didáctica para la Enseñanza Media (Didactic Documentation Centre for Secondary Education, 1954) and in 1958 the Centro de Documentación Didáctica para la Enseñanza Primaria (Didactic Documentation Centre for Primary Education). The pathway for going beyond the ideological discourses and educational practices imposed by the regime was narrow. The journal *Vida Escolar* (1958)¹⁴ became a medium for expressing and exchanging ideas in which previous theories about didactic innovation would start to appear: references to active methodologies, to the use of audiovisual media and reflections about the teacher's role. In 1965, the Servicio de Investigación y Experimentación Pedagógica (Pedagogic Research and Experimentation Service) confirmed the gradual opening of the education system.

However, it was primarily in universities that, in the 1950s, a historiographic renovation was promoted that would be clearly reflected in the teaching of history. Jaume Vicens Vives in his efforts to bring Spanish historiography up to date and transform it, and in his dedication to teaching and to publishing didactic works, considered the teaching of history based on academic rigour and social commitment¹⁵. In this period, it was mainly university professors who recovered the lost steps of historiography and of the teaching of history. Consequently, and supporting the hypothesis of continuity in proposals for renovation and innovation in history teaching, a line can be traced from masters to followers, starting with Rafael Altamira and Rafael Ballester, taking in José Deleito and Pere Bosch-Gimpera, reaching Jaume Vicens, continuing with Joan Reglà, Miquel Tarradell, Emili Giralt, continuing up to Josep Fontana¹⁶ and connecting with those who, despite still being university students would, as school teachers, go on to create Grupo Germanía 75, Grupo Historia 13-16, and Grupo *Cronos*. This line preserves the paradigms that focus on perpetuating the historical science and the innovative teaching of it.



In the universities of the 1960s –Valencia, Barcelona, Salamanca and Madrid–students of Philosophy and Literature discovered the new historiographic currents, principally of French influence, from the *Annales* School to historical materialism, currents that would make it possible to change the teaching of history in the Polyvalent Unified Baccalaureate and argue for a new didactics, suggesting methodological innovation and choice of content in light of these schools of historical thought.

4. The new innovative adventure or the return of a tradition

In the mid-1970s, coinciding with the educational reforms of the General Education Act of 1970, groups of teachers started to appear based on previous individual experiences that would be the basis of new educational changes. Some of these teachers travelled to England and France to discover how history was taught in those countries and reflected new didactic concepts in their classroom projects and materials, in contrast with the stultifying educational milieu of the classrooms of the late Francoist period. Once again, foreign journeys acted as a spur for teacher training and the incorporation of educational models and innovative experiences, recalling what Altamira and other contemporary teachers had done through the Board for the Expansion of Studies.

In 1975, the year of the publication of the baccalaureate syllabus and the first edition of the *Pruebas Iniciales* (First tests) by Germanía 75, the journal *Cuadernos de Pedagogía* was founded.

Issue 7-8 of July and August contains an article by Gonzalo Zaragoza -who went on to become part of the Historia 13-16 group—called Algunas ideas sobre la nueva historia (Some ideas about the new history), and in the November issue the historian Josep Fontana wrote Para una renovación de la enseñanza de historia (For a renovation in the teaching of history). In his text, Josep Fontana, who had been a student and follower of Vicens Vives, and provided intellectual support to Grupo Germanía 75, proposes revising the content and traditional schemes of history teaching for all levels of instruction so that students can reflect critically on the society in which they live.

The events described above did not come about by chance, but instead were symptoms of changes in pedagogic discourses and practices. It could be said that a stimulus for didactic innovation restarts¹⁷, illuminated by an educational, social, and cultural transition and thanks to the General Education Act in the setting of new history syllabuses in the baccalaureate and in professional training. These syllabuses would lead to new teaching propositions. The 1970 act also created Institutos de Ciencias de la Educación (Educational Science Institutes), important bodies for covering and disseminating new approaches and ideas for educational change. Furthermore, from the end of the 1960s, the Pedagogical Renovation Movements (MRP) and Summer Schools were active, bringing back the model of the ones held during the Second Republic.

If discourse producing agencies were identified at the start of this article, the Educational Science Institutes, the



Centros de Profesores (Teachers Centres), the Colegios de Licenciados y Doctores (Associations of Graduates and Doctors), and the Summer Schools now became the spaces for communicating and disseminating innovative projects and materials.

Between the mid-1970s and early 1980s, Adara Editorial and the Germanía 75, Historia 13-16, Grupo de Humanística, and Cronos groups started a new period of innovation. The teaching of History, as the study of civilisations and for humanistic education, was implemented in classrooms which became workshops where students handled the selected sources in work files or workbooks and where the academic method of understanding history was recreated. What had already been proposed in the first quarter of the century returned in the minds of the teachers in this period of change, without them being aware that this had already happened.

Adara Editorial emerged following a teaching experience at the Santa María del Mar Jesuit college in La Coruña between 1969 and 1974. Once the company had been established, in 1977, its editors prepared and published *Una nueva es*trategia para la enseñanza de las Ciencias Sociales (A new strategy for teaching social sciences) and Taller de documentos (Document workshop). The project proposed studying the past through historical sources and through a process of guided research by students. This was at the same time as Germanía 75 which introduced a radical renewal of content based on the tenets of historical materialism, methodological renewal, and the educational value given to knowledge of history that sought social change. At the end of this decade, the members of Grupo Historia 13-16 prioritised learning the historian's methods over learning content as the basis of historical understanding. transferring the Schools History Project that was used in English schools. From the early 1980s, Grupo Humanística proposed studying history by starting with the present and moving backwards to the past, and Grupo Cronos chose to offer teachers a selection of historical texts based on the most relevant historiographic problems in the discipline that supported a renewed teaching programme with the aim of contributing to students' critical sense and intellectual development. encouraging a history teaching model where students, starting with sources and historiographic documents, would reconstruct the historical process in its general lines and acquire working habits and intellectual working techniques.

The groups' didactic projects and publications were widely disseminated throughout Spain, leading to a qualitative and amplified turn in history teaching practice in secondary education. The experiences and materials not only comprised plans for methodological change, but were also proposals for historiographic and ideological change and for contesting the existing educational and political system.

The materials that the groups Germanía 75 and Historia 13-16 published and Adara Editorial's folders of documents were of use to new teachers who were introduced to innovation through the example of these groups and their teaching proposals. Owing to their



degree of dissemination, other innovative experiences continued and appeared, as some teachers from Aula Sete, Ínsula Barataria, and Gea-Clío who were interviewed have said¹⁸, and these teachers' approaches for innovation and change successively influenced other groups of teachers

In 1990 and before the implementation of the General Organisation of the Educational System Act (LOGSE), on 31 January (Official State Gazette of 1 March), the Ministry of Education and Science announced a contest to prepare curriculum materials for the Reform. In the resolution of 23 October of that year, Grupo Cronos (Salamanca), Insula Barataria (Zaragoza), Aula Sete (Santiago de Compostela), and Bitácora (Barcelona) were selected. At this juncture, Pagadi (Navarra), Espacio y Sociedad (Navarra), Investigación y Renovación Escolar (Seville). Plataforma Asturiana Educación Crítica (Asturias), Kairós and Gea-Clío (Valencia), and circles of teachers who encouraged each other to innovate in their classes also appeared.

The curriculum projects proposed by these innovation groups were theoretical proposals based on research, experimentation, and teacher training that were accompanied by books for teachers and workbooks for students, thus setting them apart from the materials published by Germanía 75, Adara, and Historia 13-16 that were conceived as methodological proposals for directly transforming practice in classrooms.

There were three key issues in the drive for innovation in this period: the expansion of historical knowledge as it became linked to other social sciences, the educational value of the critical perspective of analysing reality, and connecting and studying the problems of the world one inhabits while seeking their historical significance. However, new political, educational, and cultural parameters were simultaneously being developed: the restoration of democracy, the process of establishing the autonomous regions and the development of a period starting in the mid-1960s that R. Cuesta (1998) called the *technocratic mass education mode*.

The socio-political circumstances that could permit a comparison with the innovative movement at the start of the twentieth century were no longer the same. We were not facing a centralised state but instead progressive decentralisation initiated with Spain's process of establishing the autonomous regions and transferring competences. Also, if the teaching programmes intended to create people capable of understanding and identifying with a homeland to regenerate it and the transformations were proposed from above, in the new democracy the innovative movement had taken the initiative but this leading role would soon start to be interrupted by the political management of the reform, eventually entrusted to experts who were unfamiliar with the reality of the classroom and not to teachers¹⁹. The curriculum projects that had won the competition called by the Ministry were not taken into account and the process of curricular experimentation in schools that viewed «the reform as something that would be generalised after being tested» (Rozada, 2003, p. 37) was ig-



nored, side-lining all of the proposals for innovation that could have transformed an education system that they knew in its theory and its practice.

When the groups chosen by Ministerial Order found out about the change in direction in educational policy, they promoted the I Seminario sobre Desarrollo Curricular en el Área de CC.SS., Geografía e Historia. Educación Secundaria (First seminar on curriculum development in the field of social sciences, geography, and history. Secondary education) which was held in 1991 at the Institute of Educational Sciences of the University of Salamanca and coordinated by Grupo Cronos. Many of the groups mentioned attended these meetings, which continued until 1995 with ideas and debates on the design and testing of their curriculum proposals for teaching social sciences; the results were published in the proceedings of the meetings. In 1995, Cronos, Asklepios, Ínsula Barataria, Investigación y Renovación Escolar (Educational Research and Innovation) (IRES), Aula Sete, Gea-Clío, and Pagadi created the Federación de Grupos de Innovation Icaria (Icaria Federation of Innovation Groups) (Fedicaria). bringing together the innovation movement and taking the baton of didactic research in the field of the social sciences and in the field of teacher training. This federation, far from being weakened, worked from the principles of critical thinking. based on a critique of didactics and a critical didactics, an intrahistory of teaching, with new sources, primarily from French and German sociology and philosophy, despite the course that the teaching of history would take after 1997's «Debate on

the Humanities», the educational reforms of 2002 that were not eventually implemented, and the 2006 reforms as a result of which an encyclopaedic, factual, and Eurocentric teaching of history based on memorising facts has returned.

Through the annual meetings and the journal *Con-ciencia Social*, an innovative educational theory was forged based on new currents of thought with historiography no longer setting the pattern of didactics.

In summary, the period from the 1970s to the 1990s was the period of maximum dissemination of the proposals for innovation, change, transition, establishing the new political system, unleashing social transformations, and supporting new educational values. However, the initial determination to implement change and establish a new educational system, arising from the need for innovation, had petered out by the end of the 1990s as it did not have the necessary support of the political elites who did not direct their innovative spirit towards improving education.

After the late 1990s the innovation groups again gave way to people working individually or took on a new form in the federations of groups mentioned above, but it can also be seen in the film and history association *Sine Nomine*, in the *Fundación 10 de marzo* in which Ramón López Facal from the defunct Aula Sete participated, and in the books dedicated to history teaching published by Raimundo Cuesta of Grupo Cronos. Now the only remaining witnesses to all of the second innovative period are Investigación y Renovación Escolar and Gea-Clío.



Two ideas can summarise this section: there was a period of legislative change in 1970 with educational reforms that allowed innovation while not officially encouraging it because the political context was not favourable, and there was a period of reform conducive to innovation that started in 1983 and culminated in 1990. but this became institutionalised and was controlled by political authorities and experts in education without teaching experience. After this date, «with the reform movements discredited and the experimentation groups nullified, the system had no ideology and lacked a practical rationale» (Gimeno Sacristán, 2007, p. 27).

5. Conclusion

Innovative activity runs through the history of education; innovation does not perish as it is situated outside the chronological-historical timescale of the reforms and always affirms its novelty. What does happen is that the innovative proposals cease to be relevant as they are developed in a particular context, and yet the postulates of innovation always return with an original meaning, in a return that never brings back the same thing.

We maintain that there is an innovative future immanent to the teaching process, and a contraposition of times: $Ai\hat{o}n$ and Chronos, innovation as an event or the reform that fixes things and people, that «takes on a form and determines a subject» (Deleuze and Guattari, 2010, p. 265).

Innovation introduces a *multiplicity* in its different forms of renovation, and it changes, not only because of the contexts and agents, but also in its didactic

proposals and editorial projects. It is a continuous process of implementing the necessary features that does not create a structure or hierarchy. The nature of these multiplicities changes as they connect with others, and they can be interrupted but always recommence as has been described throughout this work.

Throughout this overview of innovation we find overlaps in desires to improve and change a style of history teaching that focuses on political facts and exercising students' memories, but the proposals in which the past was studied with the aim of regenerating people's connection with their homeland differ from the history-teaching projects that attempted to explain the present and its social problems, even though both included a will to contribute to transforming reality and training citizens. Therefore, the educational and social value of the discipline was always of interest, placing the student at the heart of the teaching and learning process. In this overview, there were also institutions that allowed for and spread the discourses but the first institutions disappeared with the dictatorship and the new institutions became meritocratic agencies in which discourse and practices lost value. Nonetheless, disseminating the proposals by editing and publishing materials was vital for preparing this historical overview of the process of change and educational innovation since they remain as witnesses to the extensive period analysed.

Innovation now has two faces: an institutionalised one that has its own parameters for recording innovation and another that develops at the margin and with a true desire for change in how history is taught.



Teaching History: innovation and continuity since Rafael Altamira

Notes

- This article is a synthesis of the research carried out in my doctoral thesis, La enseñanza de la Historia en la educación secundaria: innovación, cambio y continuidad (History teaching in secondary education: innovation, change, and continuity), supervised by Dr. Javier Merchán Iglesias and awarded by the Faculty of Educational Sciences of the University of Seville on 6 November 2015.
- In Mainer (2009), we find this definition to classify those institutions that accommodated and disseminated the discourses on didactics and educational innovation.
- According to Millán Chivite (1979, p. 39) this expression was coined by Marcelino Menéndez and Pelayo in his Historia de los heterodoxos españoles (History of Spanish outsiders). «They are called democrats, because they accept democratic principles or support the consequences of their postulates, even if they are active in other political movements. And 'academic' because they perform teaching roles in the University of Madrid; some of them also in provincial universities or in secondary schools».
- 4 «With a European and internationalist outlook, the institutionalists rejected the 'quietist and indulgent' patriotism of those who were happy to rest on the laurels of a former global empire. True patriotism requires criticism as well as reverence for the past, and respect for innovation along with conservation» (Boyd, 2001, p. 873).
- The teachers and residents of the Pedagogical Museum and of the Board for the Expansion of Studies could travel to «what we might call 'shrines of European pedagogy': either teacher training centres—the École Normal Superieur of Saint Cloud in Paris, the Rousseau Institute in Geneva, and the École Normal in Brussels— or institutions and teaching activities regarded as model by the New School—and of course, the complex of centres dedicated to the beliefs of Dr. Decroly, the work of inspectors like Cousinet and Dottrens, the schools connected to the cooperative movement led by Freinet or the schools of northern Italy» (Mainer and Mateos, 2007, p. 205).
- 6 «The prologue of 1895 informs us that the first edition from 1891 was written based on the lectures given on the subject that concerns us at Madrid's Museum of Primary Teaching –later known as the National Pedagogical Museum– between 1890 and

- 1891; the success of this first version [...], along with the pursuit of research into historiological questions from a dual professional and pedagogical perspective inspired its author to prepare a considerably reformed and extended second edition» (Mainer, 2009, 130·131). According to Aróstegui (2002, p. 377), the first edition of *La enseñanza de la Historia* was not put on sale but was circulated among his colleagues.
- Publication and subsequent edition details from Mainer (2009, p. 787).
- Mainer affirms (2009, p. 146) that the work «was cited over and over again until well into the 60s and became a real foundational text in the genre of history teaching».
- Although these were intended for primary education, I have included them thanks to their peerless didactic approach and because *History (my third book)* intended for the baccalaureate students was already in press, «[...] but as they sealed the house and took everything, we do not know what became of it, like his library». These are the words of María Paz González Perotas, the daughter of Daniel González, that Josep Fontana transcribes from the letter she sent to him while he was preparing the introduction to the book *Enseñar Historia con una Guerra Civil de por medio* (Teaching history with a civil war in the way, 1999, p. 12).
- All of these Works are catalogued by Mainer (2009, pp. 759-761 y pp. 787-791) in annexe 4 in «Declarative texts of the didactics of social science. First order» and in the category of «Texts-textbooks for the school» (2009, pp. 787-791) and have been selected based on this categorisation and on the number of editions.
- The principle of multiplicity defined by Deleuze and Guattari (2010, pp. 13·14) in relation to the characteristics of the rhizome could be applied here if innovation is regarded as being like a rhizome. Multiplicity generates dimensions and connection, it is not subjected to unity or to a structural model, nor to the logic of reproduction but instead it creates, experiments, multiplies without ever being the same again.
- Following Deleuze and Guattari (2010, p. 15) I introduce the notion of restarting to explain how innovation can be broken and interrupted «but it always restarts depending on one or another of its lines, and depending on others».



- «Liberal culture subsisted, sometimes with the faint intensity of a mere murmur, others discretely hidden or disguised, but it was never inactive, much less extinguished» (Mainer, 2009, p. 478).
- Although this journal is mentioned thanks to its reach, there were other earlier ones: Consigna (1940), revista española de pedagogía (1943), Estudios Pedagógicos (1949) or Bordón (1949) (cfr. Mainer, 2008, p. 6).
- This question is illustrated by a publication from 1960 from the Teide publishing house, a short work entitled Metodología para la enseñanza de la Historia (Methodology for teaching history) by Montserrat Llorens and dedicated to the man who had been her teacher and mentor.
- This is a line from teachers to followers, from followers who will become teachers, and so on, in succession, until an enlightening nucleus was created who were together at the Literary University of Valencia where followers of Vicens Vives would have students who would go on to become school teachers and form the Germanía 75 group, the paradigm of the new innovative period and a reference point for high school teachers in the final years of Francoism and the first years of democracy. In this series of teachers, Pierre Vilar must be regarded as continuing the work of Vicens Vives and as Josep Fontana's mentor.
- ¹⁷ «The General Education Act of 1970, despite being inspired by the Christian spirit of its period, had one great virtue: a very flexible framework that gave teachers a great deal of autonomy» (Delval, 2007, p. 77).
- Interviewed as part of the research for the doctoral thesis mentioned at the start of this work.
- ""... the authorities felt that more functional instruments were needed to organise and be able to present something to society that could be recognised as an educational reform. [César Coll's work] offered the authorities of the time on a plate the possibility of breaking the deadlock. These authorities had, by then, already accumulated sufficient mistrust towards the progressive sectors of the academic and alternative pedagogies. Coll's work was in itself an example of order and rigour [...]. Something concrete was needed and the model offered three perfectly articulated levels of this, [...] that step by step made it possible to organise a curriculum» (Rozada, 2003, p. 38).



- Altamira, R. (1997, reissue of 1895). La enseñanza de la Historia. Preliminary study by R. Asín Vergara. Madrid: Akal.
- Aróstegui, J. (2002). La teoría de la Historia en Francia y su influencia en la historiografía española. In B. Pellistrandi, *La historiografía francesa del siglo XX y su acogida en España* (pp. 365-402). Madrid: Collection de la Casa de Velázquez.
- Ballester and Castell, R. (1933). Clío. Iniciación al estudio de la Historia. Tarragona: Editorial Rafael Ballester y Castell.
- Boyd, C. (2001). El pasado escindido: la enseñanza de la Historia en las escuelas españolas, 1875-1900. *Hispania*, *LXI/3* (209), 859-878. Retrieved from http://hispania.revistas.csic. es/index.php/hispania/article/view/280/281 (Consulted on July 27, 2012).
- Castán, G., Cuesta R. and Fernández, M. (1995).

 Proyecto Cronos. Ciencias Sociales, Historia y
 Geografía. Segundo Ciclo de Educación Secundaria Obligatoria. Guía para el profesorado.

 Madrid: Ediciones de la Torre.
- Cuesta, R. (1998). Clío en las aulas. La enseñanza de la Historia en España entre reformas, ilusiones y rutinas. Madrid: Akal.
- Deleuze, G. and Guattari, F. (2010). *Mil mesetas. Capitalismo y esquizofrenia*. Valencia: Pre-textos.
- Delval, J. and Valera, J. (2007). Para aprender es necesario actuar. *Las reformas educativas a debate* (1982-2006) (pp. 75-94). Madrid: Ediciones Morata.
- Escolano, A. (2002). La educación en la España contemporánea. Políticas educativas, escolarización y culturas pedagógicas. Madrid: Biblioteca Nueva.
- Fontana, J. (1975). Para una renovación de la enseñanza de la Historia. Cuadernos de Pedagogía, 11, 1-5, Edición Digital 33 Años Contigo. Barcelona: Wolters Kluwer.



Teaching History: innovation and continuity since Rafael Altamira

- Fontana, J. (1999). Enseñar Historia con una Guerra Civil de por medio. Barcelona: Crítica.
- Gimeno, J. and Valera, J. (2007). Una visión desde dentro y desde fuera. In Las reformas educativas a debate (1982-2006) (pp. 19-44). Madrid: Morata.
- Grupo Cronos (1995). Proyecto Cronos. Ciencias Sociales, Historia y Geografía. Segundo Ciclo de Educación Secundaria Obligatoria. Guía para el profesorado. Madrid: Ediciones de la Torre/Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia; Proyecto Didáctico Quirón.
- Jaén, A. (1935). Lecturas históricas (Iniciación).Madrid: Imprenta de Salvador Quemades.
- Laín, P. and Seco, C. (Eds.) (1998). España en 1898. Las claves del Desastre. Barcelona: Galaxia Gutemberg / Círculo de Lectores.
- Mainer, J. (2009). La forja de un campo profesional. Pedagogía y didáctica de las Ciencias Sociales en España (1900-1970). Madrid: Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas.
- Mainer, J. (2008). La renovación pedagógica en España: Crónica de una pertinaz desmemoria (1945-1990). Retrieved from http://www.nebraskaria.es/wp-content/uploads/2016/09/RENOVACI%C3%93N-PEDAG%C3%93GI-CA-2008.pdf (Consulted on May 27, 2017).
- Mainer, J. and Mateos, J. (2007). Los inciertos frutos de una ilusionada siembra. La JAE y la Didáctica de las Ciencias Sociales. *Revista de Educación*, extra number 2007, 191-214. Retrieved from http://www.juntadeandalucia. es/educacion/vscripts/wginer/w/rec/3090.pdf (Consulted on June 6, 2012).
- Marías, J. (2005). España inteligible. Razón histórica de las Españas. Madrid: Alianza.

- Millán-Chivite, J. L. (1975). El hombre nuevo de la generación de 1868. Resúmenes de tesis doctorales y tesinas de licenciatura. Sevilla: Servicio de Publicaciones de la Universidad.
- Millán-Chivite, J. L. (1979). Revolucionarios, reformistas y reaccionarios (Aproximación a un estudio de la generación de 1868). Sevilla: Servicio de Publicaciones de la Universidad.
- Rozada, J. Mª (Coord.) (2003). Las reformas escolares de la democracia. Oviedo: Federación Icaria, Plataforma Asturiana de Educación Crítica y KRK Ediciones.
- Ruiz, P. (2001). Política y ciencia de la Historia en la universidad de Valencia entre 1868 y 1939. Biblioteca Virtual IFC, Institución Fernando el Católico (pp. 55-95). Zaragoza: Institución Fernando el Católico. Retrieved from http:// ifc.dpz.es/recursos/publicaciones/22/93/04ruiz. pdf (Consulted on June 4, 2012).
- Zaragoza, G. (1975). Algunas ideas sobre la nueva historia. Cuadernos de Pedagogía, 7-8, Digital Edition 33 Años Contigo. Barcelona: Wolters Kluwer.

Author's biography

Olga Duarte Piña is Lecturer of Didactics of Cultural Heritage and trainer in the Training Program for University Teachers of Instituto de Ciencias de la Educación at Universidad de Sevilla. She participates in the research project «Teacher training for university teachers. Progress and obstacles of the participants in a program based on improvement cycles of their practice».



Evaluating the affective needs of adopted children: demonstrations of psychomotor expressiveness

Evaluación de las necesidades afectivas en niñas y niños adoptados: manifestaciones en su expresividad psicomotriz

Josefina SÁNCHEZ RODRÍGUEZ, PhD. Senior Lecturer. Universidad de La Laguna (jsrodri@ull.edu.es). Talía Cristina MORILLO LESME, PhD. Lecturer. Universidad de La Laguna (tmorillo@ull.edu.es). Concepción RIERA OUINTANA, PhD. Senior Lecturer. Universidad de La Laguna (cquinta@ull.edu.es).

Abstract:

Adoption is a process of creating new emotional bonds, an encounter in which bonds are built that make it possible for the child to have the support to enable it to grow in different developmental areas. This article sets out to present the results obtained from a collective case study with 21 adopted children which describes their manifestations relating to emotional expressiveness, body language, and verbal language. To do this, narrative observations of the relational psychomotricity evaluation sessions were made, biographical interviews with the families carried out, and previous reports on the children analysed. The data were analysed using the SPSS statistics package, following prior identification of a list of categories.

The results and conclusions refer to the detection of both the needs and of the capacities of the children in this study, with particular attention to the emotional manifestations deriving from the absence (or rupture) of a primary support.

Keywords: adoption, psychomotricity, empathy, family bond, child protection.

Resumen:

La adopción supone un proceso de creación de nuevos vínculos emocionales, un encuentro en el que construir unos lazos que posibiliten al niño o a la niña disponer de un sostén que le permita crecer en las diferentes áreas del desarrollo. Este artículo pretende mostrar los resultados obtenidos en un estudio colectivo de casos realizado con 21 menores en situación de adopción, en el que se describen las manifestaciones referidas a la expresividad emocional, corporal y verbal. Para ello, se han realizado observaciones narrativas de las sesiones de evaluación en Psicomotricidad Relacional, entrevistas biográficas realizadas a las familias y análisis de los informes previos de los menores. El análisis de los datos se realizó con la utilización del paquete estadístico SPSS, tras la identificación previa de un listado de categorías.

Los resultados y conclusiones hacen referencia a la detección tanto de las necesidades

This is the English version of an article originally printed in Spanish in issue 269 of the **revista española de pedagogía**. For this reason, the abbreviation EV has been added to the page numbers. Please, cite this article as follows: Sánchez Rodríguez, J., Morillo Lesme, T., & Riera Quintana, C. (2018). Evaluación de las necesidades afectivas en niñas y niños adoptados: manifestaciones en su expresividad psicomotriz | Evaluating the affective needs of adopted children: demonstrations of psychomotor expressiveness. Revista Española de Pedagogía, 76 (269), 157-173. doi: 10.22550/REP76-1-2018-08



157 EV

Revision accepted: 2017-07-24.

como de las competencias de los niños y niñas de este estudio, destacando las manifestaciones emocionales derivadas de la falta (o ruptura) de un sostén primario. **Descriptores:** adopción, psicomotricidad, empatía, vínculo familiar, protección a la infancia.

1. Introduction

Adoption is, fundamentally, a process of separation and re-bonding with new attachment figures. The fundamental aim of adoption is to turn a child who has been deprived of a caring and secure family environment into the child of a family where he or she can find the affection, attention, and confidence to be able to develop with new bonds that strengthen their capacities as someone who merits attention and act as a model for relating to others. The way in which the attachment relationship is established or reconfigured in the adoptive family predicts the child's well-being in its future life.

The child's invisible sufferings before adoption, shape maladjusted reactions in its relationship with itself, with others, and with the surrounding environment. Authors such as Barudy (2010), Loizaga (2010), and Múgica (2010) have noted how situations of neglect, abuse, and abandonment that the children experience in their biological families before being classified as abandoned create disorganisation and faults in the functioning of the limbic system and in the organisation and development of the prefrontal cortex.

The effects of such disorganisations, the product of pain, fear, and an absence

of affection and care, affect the sensory disturbances displayed by some of these children, on recognising and managing emotions, and on their difficulties in displaying empathy.

Traces of displeasure and abandonment start to be generated before birth, as the unborn child can already experience rejection through the nervous and chemical signals produced by the emotional state of the mother in relation to her unborn child. The stage between birth and the age of six months is also vitally important as it is a stage when unconscious memories are recorded somatopsychically, being expressed through psychomotor displays of anxiety (Barudy, 2010; Aucouturier, 2004).

The absence of appropriate support and physical care, as well as causing stressful experiences, can create difficulties in the organisation and functioning of the prefrontal areas, which play a fundamental role in regulating attention, the capacity for planning, impulse control and reflective functioning (Barudy, 2010, Loizaga and Múgica, 2010). Difficulties in coping with frustration and managing feelings of anxiety, fear, or annoyance, frequent in these children, might then be because of their lack of experiences of primary containment.



The children who arrive in adoptive families need to reconstruct their internal attachment models, something that for many of them, who have been deeply harmed, is a complex and slow process that requires considerable time after adoption. In some cases, complete resilience and the consequent reconstruction are impossible as there are flaws in the construction of their mental identity that affect their behaviour throughout their life, causing mental disorders or criminal behaviour in the adult stage (Amenábar, 2014).

The feeling of loss is an element that recurs throughout the life of any adopted person. The processing of the first loss -their biological family- is a construction that shapes the identity of these people and which is expressed and processed differently throughout their lives. The behavioural problems and emotional difficulties that adopted children display are a manifestation of the pain resulting from this loss. Irritability, sleep disorders, lack of motivation, anger, anxiety, etc. are expressions of an internal state of unease that is associated with the traces that the fact of feeling abandoned has left. Having affection and relationships is a vital issue for the human being; when this ceases to exist, as Spitz showed many years ago with institutionalised minors, it can even result in death (Spitz, 1965). A person's capacity to be resistant and try to find defence mechanisms to survive and silence these feelings, becomes a shell or armour to protect the self. These manifestations include, as common aspects of adopted children, a defiant attitude, rejecting affection, evasive responses, an overbearing attitude, and constantly demanding affection.

For studying children who have been adopted or have been in foster care, we have developed our own evaluation protocol based on relational psychomotricity. This is based on putting forward and analvsing the child's difficulties and capacities based on its how it acts in a situation of interactive play with a psychometrist, who uses an intervention system based on physical willingness to get involved in playing with the child, listening, and analysis of the meaning of the play, starting by establishing a relationship of empathy. This evaluation session facilitates a global and complex analysis of children's expression, which reaches its apogee in free play with an adult who accompanies the child and becomes a partner, including moments of separation, exploration of the materials with a bonding meaning and creating symbolic play and projective manipulative play. Following various authors who have worked on expression of the affection history based on psychomotricity (Aucouturier, 2004, García, 2007; Lapierre, 2015), we can detect how, through primitive physical anxieties, repetitive presymbolic and symbolic play, and motor inhibition or impulsiveness, the history of the lack of primary support experienced by these children is expressed, as well as their capacities, fears, and current difficulties in establishing relationships with others. Accordingly, this evaluation model based on relational psychomotricity allows us to detect the difficulties and potentialities each child displays, and compare it with the family's experiences, exploring their life history.



2. Method

2.1. Objectives

The aim of this piece of work is to analyse what emotional needs children in fostering or adoption situations display by reconstructing their life history and through play and analysis of their psychomotor expressiveness during an evaluation session.

2.2. Case selection

A collective case study (Álvarez and San Fabián, 2012) was performed. The

case selection was carried out using theoretical criteria (school age) and practical ones (children placed by the Adoption Team of the Department for Children of the Canary Islands' Regional Government, whose families were willing to cooperate with the project, believing that their children displayed some difficulties that could be evaluated).

The sample comprised twelve girls and nine boys. Table 1 shows the data relating to age and the current status of the adoption process through which the twenty-one children who were studied are passing.

Table 1. Children's' ages and current status of their adoption process.

Age (years)	Frequency	Percentage
3 to 4.9	6	28.6
5 to 8	8	38.1
8.1 to 12	7	33.3

Current status	Frequency	Percentage
Full adoption	14	66.7
Pre-adoption	6	28.6
Professional foster care	1	4.8

Source: Own elaboration.

At the time of adoption, eight of them were classified as children with special features, meaning that there were risk factors because they had lived in situations of family violence, parental incapacity, or settings with addiction. The percentage of special features (38.1%) leads us to think that an early ruling of there having been abandoned and an appropriate institutional response, can offset the consequences of initial adverse condi-

tions. Furthermore, three of the cases in the study were taking medication owing to displays of hyperactivity, impulsiveness, and aggression.

Sixteen of the children had passed through institutions and five had been in foster care with another family. Three of the children had spent under a year in institutions, while for thirteen it was over two years. This period in institutions is important as the children spend a longer period uprooted from a family and go through another period of mourning and separation, as they have established bonds with the professionals and children in the centre which they again lose with the transition to the family (Berástegui, 2010). Many of the children continue to receive visits from their family until the adoption procedures begin. Some of the children evaluated carry on talking about their friends and the people who took care of them in the institutions they were in before adoption. Several of the families interviewed commented that their children do not remember their biological families, as they were very young at the moment of separation, but they do remember the people from the centre. A total of eight children were fostered in another family before being adopted, this measure lasting for between two months and two years.

With regards to the age at which the children were separated from their biological family and classified as abandoned, 38.1% of them were classified as abandoned before the age of 6 months, 19% between six and eighteen months, 23.8% between eighteen and thirty-six months and 19% aged over thirty-six months. These figures suggest that situations of social neglect are generally detected early, something that creates better conditions of adaptability in the children.

Most of the families who took part in this project have now been with their adoptive children for over four years, while just two were recent adoptions with one to two years having passed since the adoption. For this project, we therefore had a majority of families whose bonds are more consolidated.

2.3. Instruments

The data collection procedures used were as follows:

- Narrative observation (following video recording) of the individual evaluation sessions, carried out with each of the children by the Psychomotricity Service of the Universidad de La Laguna. These sessions are carried out following the principles of relational psychomotricity intervention proposed by Lapierre (Lapierre, Llorca, and Sánchez, 2015). The structure of the evaluation sessions is listed in Table 2.
- Biographic interviews with the family members who are the children's guardians. The areas covered in these interviews are: the child's characteristics, situations experienced prior to the adoption process, characteristics of the adoptive family, period of adaptation, relationships with people in the child's immediate environment, school setting, and development of the child.
- Analysis of the reports prepared by the Department for Children, which contains the history of the child and its biological family, and the care measures applied.



Table 2. Structure of the evaluation session.

WELCOMING THE CHILD AND FAMILY:

Introducing the team, a chat with the child about its school setting, interests, and friendships. Suggesting free play presenting the materials in the room to the child. The family remains present during the evaluation.

MATERIALS PROVIDED FOR SPONTANEOUS PLAY SUGGESTED BY THE PSY-**CHOMETRIST:**

Sensorimotor play materials: mats, foam rubber cushions, wall bars, and plinth. Objective: to see the child's motor skills and the presence or absence of primitive anxieties and repetitive actions.

Materials available for spontaneous play: round cushions to squeeze into 2 balls, 2 or 3 blankets with which they can cover themselves or modify their body, 2 foam rubber sticks, 2 hoops, 2 ropes, dolls and toys that represent scenes of eating and caring (in case they do not start symbolic play with the previous materials).

FINAL MOMENT OF REPRESENTATION:

The psychometrist suggests that the child does a drawing and invents a story using the sand tray method.

NOTES ABOUT THE INTERVENTION:

- The child is encouraged to speak about its relationships with peers and is given the chance to ask the psychometrist about any doubts relating to the evaluation.
- The psychometrist participates in the play, observing how the child uses the materials and suggests exploring ones the child does not spontaneously use.
- Creating affective dynamics of collaboration, help, exchange, and provocation while playing.
- Situations are created where the child can attain physical contact with the psychometrist, both through affection and care and through opposition.
- At points the psychometrist withdraws from the game, observing how the child responds and its initiative to re-establish the relationship.
- During the evaluation, another psychometrist appears, taking into account the child's capacity to play and maintain relationships with two people of different sexes, observing whether complicity, recognition, affirmation, or the affectional relationship is different with the two figures separately and how the child positions itself when these figures intervene together, representing a reference couple.

Source: Own elaboration.

2.4. Data analysis

The study has considered a total of nine dimensions (history prior to adoption, characteristics of the families, process of adaptation, the family's concerns, expressing affection, body language and

verbal language, relations with the people in the child's immediate environment, school setting, and development of the child). Indicators were defined for each of these through detailed analysis of the content of the transcripts of the inter-



views, of the stories obtained based on the observations, and of the reports provided by the Department for Children.

Once the indicators had been obtained for each dimension, these were turned into variables that allowed us to establish the profile of each of the children studied through a quantitative analysis of the content. For example, the following indicators were established for the body language and verbal language dimension: problems with oral expression, speech therapy treatment, expressive level, conversational level, appropriate response in conversation, difficulties with listening, and comprehension. Each indicator was turned into a variable with different options for responding, considering the content analysis carried out (for example, for the indicator relating to the expressive level, the following options were recorded: quiet/withdrawn, quiet until they feel confident, talkative, and excessively talkative).

After this, descriptive and correlational analyses of the data obtained for the variables under analysis were performed. In this article we present the results relating to two of the dimensions analysed: expressing affection and body and verbal language.

3. Results and discussion

The methodology used is subject to observer biases (although several experts inspected it to reach a consensus about the information obtained), to the evaluation system itself based on psychomotor expressiveness (non-validated), and to

the interpretative theory used, supported by the theoretical foundation of psychomotor intervention.

The results of this research are descriptive and have been arranged according to the categories established for the interview and the analysis of the evaluation session.

3.1. Expressing affection

Physical contact is vital for establishing a bond and developing a secure attachment as it enables the child to establish healthy affectional bonds. For adopted children, the probability that they have undergone previous affectional experiences is low, considering that many of them have suffered neglect or inconsistent care. causing two different reactions in affectional manifestations. A high percentage of children become highly demanding of affection, indiscriminately and excessively, while others shun affectionate physical contact and become distrusting, as a defence mechanism and projection of the feelings of affectional rejection experienced in the biological family (Sagarna, 2010).

In the analysis of the interviews we found that sixteen children (76.2%) accept physical contact well, with various families commenting that their displays of affection are excessive. Furthermore, with thirteen children (61.9%) indiscriminate manifestations of affection towards people close to or distant from the family was mentioned, something that entails an internal status of «begging» by seeking affection from everyone. This situa-



tion is worrying for the families who fear that something might happen to their children because of this excessive trust in strangers.

Three of the cases in this research (14.3%) were averse to physical contact, one with ambivalent responses and two with selective responses, allowing one parental figure to approach but not the other. Despite this, all but one of the families believe that their children are affectionate, despite the relational tensions and difficulties that might be present.

Comparing these data with the evaluation sessions we carried out with the children, as shown in Table 3, we were able to observe that in seven cases (33.3%) there were problems maintaining physical contact, especially affectional-type contact, with the children shunning the adult's closeness. Eleven children (52.4%) were initially wary of physical contact, but became more willing to accept it as the session went on, and accepted the psychometrist's offer of situations with physical contact. Three of them (14.3%) sought out physical contact with the adult and enjoyed it.

Table 3. Physical contact with the adult and affection initiated by the child.

Recognition	Frequency	Percentage
Displeasure, avoids	7	33.3
Enjoys, accepts	11	52.4
Enjoys, seeks contact	3	14.3

Affection	Frequency	Percentage
Does not initiate	17	81.0
Affection with family	1	4.8
Affection with family and psychometrist	3	4.3

Source: Own elaboration.

The internal mistrust experienced by adopted children is manifested physically in their difficulties allowing themselves to be held by others or be taken care of, and we noted how these behaviours continue to be present in the relational dynamics the children establish in the psychomotricity room, revealing to us the persistence of an insecure internal attachment model that they have been un-

able to replace since adoption (Román and Palacios, 2010). In the proposed evaluation situations, we observed a strong relationship between the confidence shown by the children in letting themselves be held and the possibility of entering into relationships where they can be cared for by the adult ($\mathbf{r}_{\text{rho}} = .714$; $\mathbf{p} = .000$).

For these children, getting involved in a reciprocal affectional relationship



requires handing over the control and autonomy that made it possible for them to survive in an environment of emotional neglect, something that can be very threatening (Berástegui, 2010). Most of the children in this research (81%), did not initiate affectional relationships with the psychometrists during the play situation; only four of them spontaneously approached the psychometrists or their families for a spontaneous display of affection.

To analyse the type of attachment, one important indicator is how easy or difficult they find separation from their families. Finding it easy to go with strangers and ignoring the parental figures in the first moments in which the separation occurs (staying with other people for the first time, at a children's centre, at school) is one indicator. We believe that this reaction relates to a lack of bonds, while finding separation hard is more related to an insecure attachment. In our research, in the analysis of interviews with families, we found that just four children (19%) displayed no difficulties with separation, while five (23.8%) displayed a high level of anxiety when faced with these moments. According to the bond theory, these children would have an insecure bond.

During the evaluation session, we recreated, in an adapted form, the situation proposed by Ainsworth (1989) to identify the type of attachment, observing how, with their families present, the children are able to separate from them and start interacting with a stranger (the psychometrist), and whether the presence of the parental figures as security figures

is sufficient for them. For seven children (33.3%), separation from their parents was difficult; it took time to initiate and was only briefly achieved. According to Bowlby's theory (1998), this would correspond to an anxious insecure attachment. In ten cases (47.5%), the children turned to their family when they were afraid in a situation in the evaluation or sought recognition for what they were doing, and only four of them did not come over at any point in the session (19%). Turning to their family in a situation of fear or in search of some recognition enables us to think that the families are a security figure for the child, who seeks them to ask for help or share an achievement. The children who did not turn to their family during the evaluation session displayed overbearing attitudes throughout the session, probably as a learnt way of protecting themselves given that they lacked security figures in their early infancy. This type of response is proposed by authors such as Lapierre (2015) from the perspective of relational psychomotricity that explains the response of the overbearing child as one that lack this bond, and overbearing attitudes as manifestations of a damaged and fragile child who takes refuge in this attitude, avoiding its large affective need. This is an example of avoidant attachment.

Regarding being overbearing, we start from the premise that, trusting in the other involves accepting that a person cannot cope with everything on their own and that the reference adults are there to help us. In this sense, it is striking how the adopted children displayed a tenden-



cy during the evaluation session not to request help or do so infrequently; thirteen of the children (61.9%) did not ask for help at any point in the session, and eight did so on just one occasion addressing the psychometrist (38.1%). These values increase if we take the family as a reference, noting that 76.2% of cases (sixteen children) did not ask their family for help during the evaluation session, probably as they had the psychometrist's attention.

Recognition from their family and the psychometrist was sought by 66.7% of the children, and 23.8% (five cases) were strongly dependent on obtaining this recognition (see Table 4). This frequent demand relates to low self-concept and self-esteem in the adopted child, to which authors such as Mirabent and Ricart (2012) allude when they state that

in the construction of the adopted child's identity, becoming aware that he or she has been abandoned might bring with it feelings of worthlessness. If someone feels that they are worthless, this requires that, externally, they are given frequent recognition for what they do, thus reassuring them that they will not be abandoned again. Six families (28.6%) believe that their children have low or poor self-concept, with value judgements that might be made about them having an excessive impact. In the data analysis we observe that it is the children who display insecurity who need to seek recognition throughout the session $(\gamma 2 = 12.131; gl = 6; p = .05; C = .605).$ These results might relate to the need to find a locus of external control when starting from a poor perception of their own capacities.

Table 4. Recognition seeking and its frequency.

Recognition	Frequency	Percentage
Does not seek it	3	14.3
Just parents	2	9.5
Just psycho- metrist	2	9.5
Seeks parents and psycho- metrist	14	66.7

Frequency of seeking	Frequency	Percentage
Does not seek it	4	19.0
Just once	2	9.5
Sometimes, with specific achievements	10	47.6
Frequently, dependent on recognition	5	23.8

Source: Own elaboration.



Insecurity therefore appears to be a characteristic that is typical of adopted

children. In the evaluation sessions we observed displays of this insecurity in fourteen children, accompanied in eight cases by examples of body language such as gripping clothing, finding a space to restrict their bodily movements, and wriggling their hands (38.1%). These physical manifestations show us the child's difficulties in constructing a psychic envelope, a secure personality, something that is manifested in a body that is emotionally self-contained by the skin (Anzieu, 2002). Eight of the families interviewed were worried by the insecurity their children displayed.

In the evaluation sessions we observed how the affirmation before the adult in oppositional or confrontational play was non-existent in five of the children evaluated (23.8%), while fourteen (66.7%) tried it but displayed fear, needing the adult to pretend to become vulnerable. The child's capacity to enter into oppositional and affirmation play reveals its internal security its achievement of autonomy from the reference figures. This type of play appears in children at around two or three years of age when they enter the personalism stage (Wallon, 2000; Lapierre and Lapierre, 1997).

These data confirm that many of the adopted children, behind their apparent extroversion and dynamism, have an insecure and dependent personality structure. In the evaluation session, fifteen of the twenty-one children evaluated use provocation (71.4%), trying to find in this game a possibility of maintaining the relationship with the adults and so affirming itself, although only two are capable from the first attempts. It is the children with the most initiative, the ones who move the quickest, who tend to display the greatest

capacity to engage in this provocation and affirmation play ($r_{rho} = .446$; p = .049).

For eight of the families interviewed (38.1%), their children generally appear to be dependent, needing explicit approval for their actions, again indicating the presence of insecurity.

Another of the features that define this insecurity can be found in the difficulties that the children display when facing new situations. In seven cases (33.3%), the children manifest resistance. refusal, or fear before new and unknown situations, frequently needing to control what is going to happen (66.7% of cases). This need for control might be a defence mechanism the children have found to avoid feeling anxiety, thus meeting an important need to remain alert, because of the unconscious trace that has remained that their integrity might be threatened. Aware of this situation, most of the families (76.2%) use anticipation to calm their children.

In the evaluation sessions, we saw the children display the same tendency to control when faced with their difficulties in letting themselves be surprised and led by the psychometrist's suggestion. Throughout their play and interactions, a commanding or sometimes even domineering tone is observed as the children reassure themselves that nothing bad can happen if they set the pattern of what happens in the play. Analysis of the results shows that it is the children who have a good self-concept who display the best adaptation and response to novel situations ($\chi 2 = 3.97$; gl = 1; p = .046; C = .623).



3.1.1. Coping with frustration:

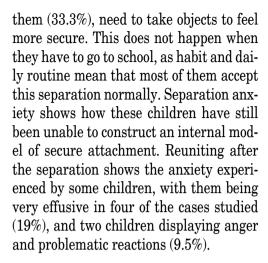
During the symbolic oppositional play and in the general dynamic of the relationship during the evaluation session, we observed inappropriate reactions to the psychometrist imposing limits with challenging and aggressive behaviour in only two of the children (9.5%).

Ten of the families interviewed (47.6%) find it difficult to place limits on the children because they do not listen, with these limits and rules needing to be repeated frequently in twelve cases (57.1%). The child's response is in general maladjusted (47%, ten cases), with them displaying tantrums and anger that reflect their children's' difficulties coping with frustration. Nine of the children (42.9%) give up or dwell on their desire when something does not turn out how they hope. Taking the sex of the children as a reference point, we observe that, in this research, outbursts of rage and aggressiveness are present in the boys and not in the girls $(\chi 2 = 8.750; gl = 1; p = .003; C = .685).$

3.1.2. Fear of loss:

One of the most important problems for adopted children is their difficulty processing feelings of loss and pain (Loizaga, 2010). Accordingly, we asked the families how their children handle situations relating to the death of a person or animal, the loss of objects, or illness. Also relating to these feelings, we asked how they handled separation.

Analysis of the interviews shows that five of the children (23.8%) find separation frightening and difficult when they have to stay away from home, and seven of



Adopted children commonly worry about the death of parents and family members, and this attitude displays their fear of being abandoned again. Six of the children in this research (28.6%) frequently speak about death, with four of them (19%) displaying worry and anxiety with difficult recovery when an animal or a family member dies. In this respect, it appears significant to us that in nine cases (42.9%), the children worry excessively about the state of health of the family when one of its members is unwell.

The attitude to the loss of objects can also be an indicator of anxiety. Five of the children (23.8%) were affected excessively when one of their objects is lost or broken.

3.2. Body language and verbal expression

Experience of abandonment, the lack of an adequate affectional support and the breakages in relationships are expressed through corporeal primitive anxieties and through altered psychomotor expressiveness (Aucouturier, 2004). In this research we have found that the children most –twelve cases (57.1%)— display primitive



separation anxiety, with manifestations such as thumb sucking, clenching fists, or a need to put their hands together. Ten of the children (47.5%) displayed anxiety of lacking limits, expressed through constantly running, a lack of awareness of space and of the body, and not noticing if they hurt themselves. Of the children, 19% showed anxiety of falling resulting from a lack of support and primary containment. This causes the children to seek security by clinging onto an object, a sound, or a rhythmic activity, or relying on constant oral stimuli. The rest of the primitive anxieties analysed (annihilation, breakage, liquefaction, etc.) were only present in one or two children, and were not regarded as significant.

Twelve of the children in this research (57.1%) displayed repetitive actions during the evaluation session; as Table 5 shows, the most frequent were sensorimotor actions (42.9%), among which we draw attention to climbing up the wall bars and jumping off them, thus feeling their bodily limits as a form of self-containment. Moving around on the floor was also frequent, relating to the lack of security and the search for regressive feelings. According to Aucouturier's proposals (2004), standing up is an act of affirmation and separation from the mother figure; crawling and moving on all-fours are linked to the unconscious demand for a primary support that was missing or has been insufficient.

Table 5. Most common repetitive activity and sensation sought the most.

Repetitive activity	Frequency	Percentage
Sensorimotor	9	42.9
Manipulation	1	4.8
Language	2	9.5
Symbolic play	2	9.5
Presymbolic play	2	9.5

Sensation sought the most	Frequency	Percentage
Climbing	3	14.3
Crawling	2	9.5
Experiencing self by jumping	5	23.8
Experiencing self on the floor	5	23.8
Climbing up and jumping down	2	9.5

Source: Own elaboration.

In the evaluation sessions we also observed that 19% of the children displayed

stereotypical movements, the result of the difficulty in containing their emotions.



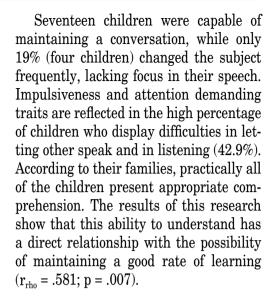
Among the most frequently observed movements, we note walking on tip toes, which is related to insecurity and the lack of a secure base.

The muscle tension of most of the children is normal, four of them displaying a more rigid muscle tension resulting from their alert and defensive state faced with relating with their setting.

Facial expression was adapted to the demands of the setting. Many of the children were smiling and happy when faced with the possibility of playing with an adult in the psychomotricity room. Only three of the children evaluated (14.3%) displayed a blank and restrained expression.

Concerning oral expression, when first adopted, fourteen children (66.7%) displayed difficulties in their ability to speak, although after a period of time living with their adoptive families these difficulties gradually disappeared, with the figure falling to 38.1% (eight cases).

When the families were asked about their child's oral expression, most of the children were described as talkative (81%), with them sometimes being excessively so with problems being quiet. In the analyses performed, we observed that there is a clear relationship between fast movements and a fast speaking pace $(r_{\text{rho}}=.684; p=.001)$, and that the most talkative children also appear to be the ones who display the greatest capacity for initiative $(r_{\text{rho}}=.527; p=.017)$, and request the most help from the psychometrist during the evaluation session $(r_{\text{rho}}=.478; p=.028)$.



During the evaluation session we observed how, sometimes, the pace when speaking reflected the children's inhibition or impulsiveness problems. Four children spoke with a fast pace, and there were two whose anxiety was so high that it was hard to understand them because they spoke excessively quickly. Only three children displayed a slow pace of verbal expression, something that could reflect their state of inhibition.

As for tone of voice, we observed that 33.3% of the children used a low tone when addressing the psychometrist; furthermore, in five cases (23.8%), there was poor formation of phrases and infantile speech. The analyses performed show that difficulties in oral expression were more frequent in children adopted before the age of 4, while the children who were older when adopted show fewer difficulties in oral production ($\chi 2 = 13.067$; gl = 6; p = .042; C = .619).

The use of the gaze as a reflection of the involvement and interest in what comes to us from the other was present



in almost all of the children, and in only one of the cases evaluated was it absent in most encounters. Despite this, we noted that a high percentage -61.9%- maintained the gaze from the distance or in structured situations but that it became evasive at moments of greatest affective involvement, physical closeness, and recognition.

4. Conclusions

Taking into consideration the characteristics of the sample in this case study, we can draw the following conclusions:

With regard to the expression of affection, we note that:

- Adopted children are on the whole insecure, even if they have spent some time with their adoptive families. This insecurity leads them to have controlling attitudes and difficulties in affirming themselves in front of others. Behind their apparent extroversion and dynamism, they display an insecure and dependent personality structure.
- A high percentage of adopted children display difficulties accepting physical and affective contact, something that generates ambivalent behaviour between seeking affection and fear of receiving it.
- A high percentage of adopted children display a great demand for recognition, revealing low self-concept.
- Fear of loss continues to be present after adoption, and can be observed through excessive worry about the state of health of family members or the loss of objects.

In the body and verbal language of the adopted children we note that:

- The children's' experiences of abandonment and the lack of a primary affectional support can be observed in the presence primitive corporeal anxieties such as separation anxiety and the lack of limits. These traces of abandonment are also present in the repetitive sensorimotor actions that enable them to ease their anxiety.
- The presence of fast movements is very frequent and is sometimes combined with a tendency to speak quickly. In this research, the children with the most initiative are the ones who display the fastest movements.
- In their form of moving around while playing we can observe that the search for regressive feelings and feelings of self-containment is frequent in adopted children.
- The children's oral expression develops favourably after adoption, although in many of them there is still verbomania, with traces of impulsiveness and demanding attention, with difficulties allowing others to speak. We also frequently encountered the presence of a low tone of voice, denoting insecurity, and a tendency towards infantilised speech.

References

Ainsworth, M. D. S. (1989). Attachments beyond infancy. American Psychologist, 44 (4), 709-716. doi: 10.1037/0003-066X.44.4.709

Álvarez, C. and San Fabián J. L. (2012). La elección del estudio de caso en investigación educativa. *Gazeta de Antropología*, 28 (1), article 14.



- Amenábar, J. (2014). Cómo hacer de un niño un psicópata: claves psicológicas de la violencia. Madrid: Biblioteca Nueva.
- Anzieu, D. (2002). El yo piel. Madrid: Biblioteca Nueva.
- Aucouturier, B. (2004). Los fantasmas de acción y la práctica psicomotriz. Barcelona: Graó.
- Barudy, L. J. (2010). Los desafíos de la adopción: el impacto de los contextos de malos tratos en el desarrollo infantil. In F. Loizaga Latorre (Coord.), Adopción hoy. Nuevos desafíos, nuevas estrategias (pp. 177-202). Bilbao: Ediciones Mensajero.
- Berástegui, P. A. (2010). Relaciones afectivas familiares: apego y adopción. In F. Loizaga Latorre (Coord.), Adopción hoy. Nuevos desafíos, nuevas estrategias (pp. 109-138). Bilbao: Ediciones Mensajero.
- Bowlby, J. (1998). *El apego y la pérdida*. Barcelona. Paidós.
- García, O. D. (2007). El proceso de separación y adaptación a la escuela infantil mediante la intervención psicomotriz. Revista Iberoamerica de Psicomotricidad y Técnicas Corporales, 25, 69-82.
- Lapierre, A. and Lapierre, A. (1997). El adulto frente al niño de cero a tres años: relación psicomotriz y formación de la personalidad. Madrid: Ed. Dossat.
- Lapierre, A. M. (2015). *La omnipotencia y el sadismo en los niños*. Keynote address, unpublished, given at University of La Laguna.
- Lapierre, A. M., Llorca, M. and Sánchez, J. (2015). Fundamentos de la psicomotricidad relacional. Málaga: Aljibe.
- Loizaga, Latorre F. (Coord.) (2010). Adopción hoy. Nuevos desafíos, nuevas estrategias. Bilbao: Ediciones Mensajero.
- Mirabent, V. and Ricart, E. (2012). *Adopción y Vínculos familiares*. Barcelona: Herder.
- Múgica, F. J. (2010). Claves y recursos narrativos para el abordaje de la condición adoptiva de

- niños, niñas y adolescentes. In F. Loizaga Latorre (Coord.), *Adopción hoy. Nuevos desafíos, nuevas estrategias* (pp. 399-428). Bilbao: Ediciones Mensaiero.
- Román, M. and Palacios, J. (2010). Los modelos internos de apego en niños y niñas adoptados. In Loizaga Latorre F. (Coord.), *Adopción hoy. Nuevos desafíos, nuevas estrategias* (pp. 203-228). Bilbao: Ediciones Mensajero.
- Sagarna, G. (2010). La adaptación psicológica de niños y niñas adoptadas. In F. Loizaga Latorre (Coord.), *Adopción hoy: Nuevos desafíos, nuevas estrategias* (pp. 255-277). Bilbao: Ediciones Mensajero.
- Spitz, R. A. (1965). El primer año de vida: un estudio psicoanalítico de desarrollo normal y anormal de relaciones de objeto. Nueva York:
 Prensa de Universidades Internacional.
- Wallon, H. (2000). La evolución psicológica del niño. Barcelona: Grupo Planeta.

Authors' biographies

Josefina Sánchez Rodríguez is a PhD of Educational Sciences and Senior Lecturer of the Department of Didactics and Educational Research (area of Didactics and School Organization) of the Faculty of Education of Universidad de La Laguna (LLG). She coordinates the research group PSICOREL (Relational Psychomotricity) and the Psychomotor Service of ULL. Her main lines of research are psychomotricity and attention to the specific needs of educational support.

Talía Cristina Morillo Lesme is a PhD in Pedagogy from Universidad de La Laguna and Lecturer in the Department of Didactics and Educational Research (area of Didactics and School Organization) of the Faculty of Education of ULL. She is member of the Psychomotor



Service of ULL and of the research group PSICOREL. Her main lines of research are psychomotricity, detection and attention to educational needs and adoption and institutional care.

Concepción Riera Quintana is a PhD from the Universidad de La Laguna and Senior Lecturer in the Department of Didactics and Educational Research (area of Research Methods and Diagnosis in Education) of the Faculty of Education of the Universidad de La Laguna. She is a member of the research group PSICOREL (Relational Psychomotricity), and also participates in the Laboratory of Education and New Technologies of Universidad de La Laguna.



Book reviews

Martínez, M., Esteban, F. Jover, G. and Payá, M. (2016).

La educación, en teoría [Education in theory]. Madrid: Síntesis. 219 pp.

Writing a book of educational theory with clarity is not a simple task. This is what makes this text distinctive; it has a clear structure, its language is —on the whole— direct and very comprehensible and eloquent, and it covers classical questions in this discipline relating to contemporary educational problems. With that in mind, the authors —professors and teachers of educational theory from the Universidad de Barcelona and the Universidad Complutense of Madrid—provide a text aimed at academics, educational professionals, and the general public.

Its four parts and twelve chapters are interconnected with real, imaginary, literary, and cinematic examples serving as a base for the theoretical analyses performed in it. The different parts give a range of answers to the questions raised,

complementing and in some cases even opposing each other, thereby providing a wealth of perspectives of great interest to the reader.

This differs from ordinary handbooks of educational theory in that it does not tackle the ideas of the great thinkers nor does it scrutinise current problems in the light of these thinkers' ideas, but instead, as the authors themselves state, it aims to challenge the theory of education from practice, attempting to reduce the space between these two sides of the educational coin, albeit without neglecting the contributions made by the great educational theorists. Similarly, the special attention given to the moral dimension of education is notable, as the authors themselves state at the end of the book (p. 212). This is not unusual given the lines of research that have been developed over the years, and that make it possible to approach the topic with the guarantee of experience and in-depth analysis.

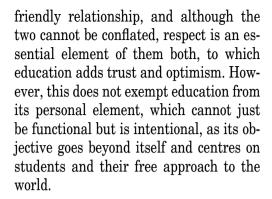
The first part focuses on the figure of the educator and, starting with the ex-



ample of Germain and Camus, commends their decisive role in students' lives. As the authors explain, the influence of educators is vitally important and is personal and inescapable, indispensable, unavoidable, and is not something they can choose. On the same lines as some recent and classical pieces of research into moral education, they affirm that good teachers are similar to teachers who are good people, and so good professional conduct is linked to the teacher's worldview and personal excellence, characterised by:

- 1) Living the desire to know and enrich oneself culturally with the best that has been produced in the history of humanity.
- 2) Personal interaction with students. This requires respect, but involves going further, and involves promoting engagement with projects that are personal and self-determined, and, at the same time, guided by the teacher.
- 3) Creating unique learning spaces, where these flow naturally and are done with pleasure, with a particular form and meaning.

They rightly criticise the depersonalisation that instrumental rationality produces in educational activities and, to do so, they contrast the traditional content-focussed educational approach with the progressive student-centred one, noting that while the centre of attention changes with the change of model, the scientification of the pedagogical relationship is maintained in both. Recognising that these approaches lack validity has shifted the gaze to the teacher's personal influence, thus bringing us closer to a



They also analyse educational influence and intent through basic questions such as the why and what for of education, answering with the moral and social obligation it involves in the path towards being human, from which the importance of the educational activity and the educators derives. As well as being open to different spaces and times, in my view it is important to emphasise that its concept goes beyond linear growth, in that it is also directed at the recognition of one's own limitations, overcoming difficulties, etc. Agreeing with the German pedagogue Spranger, they provide an interesting definition of education as «favouring the intimate capturing of cultural products and stimulating their expansion, guided by what should be done» (p. 51). And, alongside this, on the same lines as what was previously proposed, they define educators as «people who have made pedagogy the centre of their lives, who have performed in themselves the experience of complete humanisation» (p. 53), and so, as the title of the chapter states, good intentions are not enough; individual development as a person to become an educator is needed.

The second part considers educational content and, more specifically, focuses on



its current narrow utilitarian definition. where efficiency and effectiveness set the template for its selection. Consequently, the authors explain that the culture regarded as classical is being side-lined, as it is regarded as being disconnected from current reality and identify it with rote learning, without understanding that not only allows us to climb onto the shoulders of giants, but that it offers us knowledge of reality and of ourselves. This leads us to one of the most important current debates in education, in which the two positions are exemplified by the ideas of Dewey on the one hand. and Oakeshott on the other, contrasting the continuity of experience across generations with dialogic learning of the human world that permits individuals to rise above their circumstances. This debate has also reached universities, where culture, according to Dewey, must functionally serve the current situation, thus maintaining the continuity between the past and the present. The authors state that the professional dimension of education must be truly educational, linked to techniques and their fundamentals, to their history and its place in the world, maintaining an equilibrium between social needs and participation in the conversation about the meaning of human existence.

The third part directs its attention towards the learner, identifying two ways of conceiving students based on liberal and communitarian thinking, respectively. The authors argue for a combination of both conceptions in light of the current position that prioritises the former over the latter, with serious consequences for education's moral dimension such as the promotion of indifference towards the student, regarding the moral as a marketplace or buffet of values with different options but without criteria for choice, or the unrealistic aspiration to moral neutrality without understanding that this is also a moral choice. Accordingly, their anthropological analysis of students is also very interesting, taking as its reference point the paradigmatic tension between the case of Victor of Aveyron and the naturalist philosophy of Rousseau. As an alternative to these two unsuccessful focuses, the authors suggest knowing oneself while maintaining the engagement with the world, being conscious of one's possibilities while drawing on the reflection of others.

Chapter 9 introduces a different perspective to the analysis of the student, and starting from postmodernist approaches warns of the prudence and humility needed when educating, avoiding the errors of positivism and technicality in education, leaving space for the unforeseeable in the classroom. Following Arendt, they define the student as a radical novelty who demands a new educational experience from the educator that takes form in infinite possibilities for action that demand openness, flexibility, and renewal when faced with the new beginning. The consequence of this approach is a fully horizontal relationship with the student who becomes the central figure in the educational process.

The fourth and final part refers to the setting in which education occurs. A multitude of resources is of little use without an educational meaning that guides



them, something which, in the authors' view, has happened in recent times in the field of education.

Accordingly, they identify three pernicious trends, namely:

- a) A necessary but excessive openness of the school to reality neglecting the ethical guidance of the students.
- b) An excessive centrality of the student based on over-evaluating their capacities, even though they are in the process of developing and are not yet mature enough to determine educational practice, something that in turn leads to a neglect of the teacher's core functions.
- c) The family-school relationship has gone from blind trust in the teacher's work to constant questioning and suspicion, detracting from the educational conversation and climate.

As a result of this, they call on schools and other social agents to cooperate to ensure the quality of education, as in isolation it is not possible for them to fulfil their objectives. In this way, the classical boundaries between formal, non-formal, and informal education tend to disappear, with feedback and synergy patterns that are nowadays very necessary being established that help educational success beyond traditional educational targets be understood.

The final chapter has a different character to the previous ones, and provides a historical-disciplinary map of educational theory, considering its origins in Spain and its international roots in the German, French, and British traditions. In my view it is of interest to emphasise the current challenges in this discipline that are noted in the book, which are essentially twofold: its

relationship with practice and technique, without this entailing renouncing theoretical knowledge, and its development in the postmodern paradigm that goes so far as to deny the possibility of its existence, fundamentally owing to its regulatory dimension, something that, in the view of the authors can be resolved with proposals that maintain the tension in the moral sphere between the universal and the local.

Along with the foregoing, this book provides clear evidence that educational theory is not, as is said in some fora about Latin and Ancient Greek, a dead language, but that in the current utilitarian setting, educational theory has much to say and is called upon to play a crucial role, linked to practice but with its own entity. More than ever, it is relevant to recall Kant's statement that "practice without theory is blind and theory without practice is sterile."

Juan Luis Fuentes ■

Sarramona, J. (2017).

Conservadores e izquierdistas frente a la educación [Conservatives and leftists regarding education].
Barcelona: Horsori. 170 pp.

Use of dialogue has always been a virtue that should be applied in all areas of life and encouraged in education. Dialogue involves listening and debating, it entails a sincere search for the truth with others, since «the truth is very scattered, nobody has an exclusive claim to



it, instead, it can be discovered through frank dialogue with those who think differently».

The quotation in the previous paragraph is from the prologue to the work that is the object of this review, written by Jaume Sarramona. This phrase perfectly summarises what the work in question imagines and claims; it presents the arguments that are put forth by two characters from the groups that we usually, and somewhat simplistically, describe as conservatives and leftists. Indeed, the author's unquestionably didactic aim uses these two characters to present arguments that are, very often, used to support the positions put forward by these two groups regarding educational topics.

Anyone acquainted with the long academic career of the now emeritus professor Jaume Sarramona will be aware of the clarity of his expression, of his ideological balance which does not prevent him from adopting a position when he deems it appropriate, positions that are, however, always backed by arguments that take into account the thinking of the other, even anticipating his or her possible approaches. It is to be appreciated that, although he strongly upholds his convictions, this does not stop him from always taking other people's perspectives very much into account; and so, if this is part of what we call empathy, in Sarramona's works we find a good dose of this aptitude that is so valuable.

If we focus on this publication, *Conservadores e izquierdistas frente a la educación*, it is apparent that there is an effort to collate the arguments used

by the two debating characters, to whom the author has chosen not to give names or genders so that the reader can decide on them. Both characters, while clearly representing their particular groups, are restrained and always respectful, within the bounds of the resoluteness with which they uphold their ideas, even though they sometimes express a healthy irony, always in the framework of a democratic society where diverse opinions coexist. The author's efforts not to lean clearly towards one position or the other must be recognised, although expert readers can work out where his sympathies lie, especially if they are familiar with his other works. Here, however, his aim is for it to be the readers who will strengthen their convictions or find arguments for modulating them; in other words, readers will reflect on ideas and challenge them until they decide what theirs are.

The book is a very enjoyable read, never losing the rigour of its language and arguments, given that the topics are analysed in their many facets. The reader's attention is easily held, at least until the end of the chapter being read. The work is structured around nine chapters, each covering a topic that is well suited to debate from contrasting ideological and pedagogical perspectives: the school as an institution, coeducation, rewards and punishments, evaluation, educating immigrant students, school management, research in social sciences, professionalism in teaching, etc. All of them are covered in-depth while at the same time encouraging readers -who approach it without rigid prejudices- to find argu-



ments that, undoubtedly, lead them to reflect or, possibly, disturb some preconceptions. The firmest personal convictions must be subjected to debate to test them; this is vital, because, otherwise, they would be more like prejudices that would say little about the individual's capacity for reflection. Jaume Sarramona aims to provide this option for comparison, testing things that might seem most obvious but that turn out not to be.

Few authors would dare to write a work that not only presents their own opinions, but also the opposing ones. There is a long pedagogical tradition of dialogue between teacher and student, but this dialogue is usually just a technique for leading someone who does not know along a path that has previously been identified as desirable: this type of dialogue is undoubtedly valid and attractive, it develops the student's capacity to reflect and the teacher's dialectic skills: this is the Socratic model. And the fact is we generally feel strong when we silence possible objections born from a conviction and prior reflection. We tend to reinforce our beliefs and opinions, to take refuge with people who think the same as us. and to silence -even internally- those who disagree. The university world, and also other educational levels, provides examples of this intellectual sectarianism. inimical to the essence of open intellectualism that desires progress in the search for the truth. Sarramona does not use this type of dialogue, but instead an open confrontation of developed and mature ideas that openly contrast, mutually testing each other. This is the great virtue of the work that interests us.

To complete this brief review, what better than to reproduce the final paragraphs of the book's epilogue? These summarise its aim perfectly (pp. 168-169):

L. You ask whether my views have changed after listening to your arguments. You have not said that you have done so after listening to mine. I would say that I have obviously not gone over to your side, but I would just as sincerely say that you have made me think, and in future I will modify some of my ideas. I think this opportunity for a frank and clear dialogue has been very enlightening and has given us both a chance to find out about the arguments of the people we face in the opposing trenches.

C. Just as sincerely as you, I must confess that for me it has also been a supremely enriching experience to be able to debate ideas and arguments with you frankly and at length. We are certainly not two radicals with extreme positions that make dialogue impossible and this is precisely why we have done this process. I will also bear your arguments in mind in my own deliberations. It could not be any different as we are people who, while maintaining our respective ideas, are able to think them through and listen to other options.

L. Perhaps we can repeat this experience another time and perhaps then we can say how our respective positions have shifted.

C. Perhaps.

José Antonio Jordán ■



Buxarrais, M. R. and Burget, M. (Eds.) (2016).

Aprender a ser. Por una pedagogía de la interioridad [Learning to be. For a pedagogy of interiority]. Barcelona: Graó. 184 pp.

> «Know thyself». Oracle of Delphi

Know yourself and care for yourself, then you will be able to care for others. This is perhaps the maxim on which the book *Aprender a ser. Por una pedagogía de la interioridad* is based. Reading it is a constant invitation to look inside ourselves, conquer our own being, and from there, connect with the outside world.

Contemplation, meditation, asking questions of oneself, listening to oneself, are some of the suggestions, common to this work's sixteen chapters for cultivating our mental, spiritual, emotional, and rational sides: in other words, our interiority.

Under different names or titles including *Pedagogía de la interioridad* (Pedagogy of interiority), *Habilidades para la vida* (Life skills), *Autoconciencia* (Self-awareness), and *Yo místico* (The mystic I), its authors inquire into the power of education as a guide in the complex process of learning to be.

With the single aim of demonstrating the important need to establish a pedagogy of interiority, the book is divided into two parts: a first one which provides an overview of different ideas and theoretical reflections on being as a concept, and a second one that presents real educational practices in different contexts and educational stages and with very varied activities.

This book's proposals unavoidably recall the 1996 Delors report from UNES-CO, Learning: The treasure within, and two of the four pillars on which *Aprender a ser y aprender a vivir juntos* (Learning to be and learning to live together) is based, offering a challenge to education in the 21st century.

The first chapter attempts to establish the structure of the pedagogy of interiority, suggesting that the world of education uses powerful tools such as art and beauty to mobilise people's tendential being towards knowledge. According to this theory, the person «can be divided» into three dimensions: essential, existential, and tendential, thus turning being into something that is essentially universal and unique. But it is also a tendential being, in other words, an incomplete being that wishes to perfect itself. Perhaps recalling Aristotelian wonder and astonishment, the text regards this ambition, as an impulse for knowledge. This admiration stems from the fact that the human being, even as part of reality, has the ability to ask itself about it, and consequently wants to know about it. The valuable role of beauty and art as drivers of knowledge, must be recognised and used in education.

Knowing reality also involves becoming aware of oneself, knowing oneself. Chapter two of this book, drawing on current evidence from neuroscience, opts for self-awareness or meta-awareness, differ-



ent from the conscience, a reflection on our own mind, our thoughts, and performing a critical analysis of our own being.

When speaking of self-knowledge, an effort is made to give it a meaning that is not just superficial. This knowledge will necessarily lead to the ethics of care for people; in other words, caring for oneself and consequently for others. Caring for others, in the words of Gilligan (1982), entails helping them grow. In turn, being someone who cares can help us to find our true being and be the impetus of our own development.

The ethics of care, described in the third chapter, are vital for the development of the human being, a being who, according to Simone de Beauvoir (1949), «is born, grows, and reaches fullness anchored in a framework of interpersonal affective connections». Contact with others must lead to care for others and for our own being. Classrooms are undoubtedly the first, more or less stable, social network where the ethics of care can be put into practice.

Chapters four and five, continuing with the idea of the ethics of care, focus on accompanying students, meeting their needs, and addressing their emotions. The concept of the enneagram is used, which by describing nine types of personality, attempts to find the closest profile to the student and so make the most of each individual's potential. The enneagram is a tool with great potential that shows each student their "gift" and shows them the best of themselves.

The following chapters repeat a frequent error into which current education

falls. Current education generally goes «outwards» to «implement the curriculum» or comply with a particular piece of legislation that does not consider or prevents the development of another pedagogy. Nonetheless, education must go «inwards», and once there, start building bridges towards the outside, not forgetting that educating interiority is not necessarily limited by the curriculum or by a specific law, given that this is content that is present in everyday classroom activity.

The second part of the book, and perhaps the most attractive, contains examples and practical implementations with the aim of educating being and its relationship with interiority described in different educational situations.

The Universidad de Barcelona has a module («Analysing educational relationships») on its Social Education degree that was created based on the idea that to relate with others it is first necessary to relate with ourselves and with our inner sphere. The results and impressions of the students on this module range from surprise to gratitude.

Nonetheless, the most numerous proposals are based in compulsory education. One of these is the Antonio María Calero secondary school's proposal to practise recognition through everyday exercises that do not fall within the framework of any law or programme. This proposal aims to attain moral authority, in a scenario where the teaching role is somewhat blurred. It seeks authority through recognition of the students, through greeting, interest in their feelings and their concerns.



Other interesting practices, such as the one described in chapter nine, focus on the corporeal being, knowledge of which is also necessary for attaining the spiritual being. Attention to the body, our posture, our motricity, is perhaps the prelude to interiority. Chapter 10 presents a workshop with the aim of discovering the inner being. Silence, sustained attention, breathing, meditation, body scan, are used in many of the practices that are presented here as useful for connecting with our inner being.

The mediation activity of the «GAC a l'escola» (Alternative conflict resolution at school) project in Barcelona should be mentioned, as it has different overtones from the other practices described throughout the book, as does the personal project at the Cor de María-Sabastida school, where pupils will finally realise that the greatest discovery they will make in life is themselves.

Ultimately, knowing ourselves is a much more complex task than we might initially think. Self-knowledge entails putting our feelings and thoughts into words, sharing them, connecting our inner self with the outside world, listening to ourselves, caring for ourselves and others, taking a moment of silence, being conscious of our bodies, our corporeal being, our breathing, our spirit, what we are, what we believe we are, and what we can come to be.

The challenge this book proposes is a complicated and unknown adventure, a journey into the interior of oneself. The suggestion raised from reading Aprender a ser perhaps derives from Luis Magriña's

idea that Ylla Janer mentions in the book's prologue: «What we have is of no importance. What we are is something we always carry with us.» Something that will accompany us throughout our life undoubtedly deserves being known, cared for, looked after, and, why not, worked on, to make it, as Foucault proposed, a work of art.

Gema Pilar Sáez Suanes ■

Musaio, M. (2016).

Realizzo me stesso. Educare i giovani alla ricerca delle possibilità [Self-realisation: Educating young people in exploring their possibilities]. Milan: Mimesis. 238 pp.

Thinking about the future of our young people today is the challenge this book's author proposes within the academic and professional sphere of educational, social, and cultural action; and she does this with the authority and rigour of someone familiar with the philosophical, anthropological, and psychological background that underlies the questions chosen to tackle the topic. It immediately becomes apparent that, on the whole, these are core questions, not without problems, in an approach that does not settle for simplistic explanations of the human but that also eschews sophisticated arguments. What is essential and central is often distinguished by the paradox of expressing oneself clearly without losing its complexity, and the reader encounters this very paradox throughout this book.



The notions of educability and encouraging the human are the starting points for all of the anthropological and pedagogical discourse of the author, Marisa Musaio (Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore di Milano, Italia) in the three long chapters that combine with the introduction, the conclusions, and the extensive bibliography to make up the book:

- 1. Recognising the person as possibility.
- 2. Pedagogy as knowledge of educable potential.
- 3. Educating between potential and self-realisation.

As for the question of how to promote a form of development that allows each individual to become ever more his or herself, Musaio responds with a pedagogy that starts with each person's intrinsic educability through which their potential as a whole unfold all through life to be unique, special, and new; not in a purely self-affirming and isolated way but instead in relation to reality and the other, in the reencounter with the human as a unifying factor (p. 89-90).

The prologue by Concepción Naval (a professor of theory of education at the University of Navarra) is also worth mentioning. With the title *Educación como praxis* (Education as praxis), it presents the book's emphasis on the practical essence of pedagogical knowledge, based on the liberty that is a fundamental part of human action, that generates valid possibilities for education, although the theoretical formulas that are needed cannot be derived from them (p. 16).

One of the recurring and especially important questions in the text as a whole is found in Musaio's overview of young

people and adolescents, influenced by authors such as Augé (2013), Bellingreri (2011), De Monticelli (2009), Hargreaves and Shirley (2012), and Mancini (2008). She regards them as a generational group that has its own particular features but is not determined by them, nor even pigeonholed in a stage of transition towards maturity, closed off and distanced from the adult world, which would therefore cease to be a valid reference point for a potential future. On the contrary, through adolescent growth, through the tests and developmental benchmarks that the adolescent must confront, the adult figure (educator, father, mother, etc.) is called on to interpret his or her own existential journey. the tests typical of life in general: the tension between the desire to live and being tired of living, between openness to life and accepting the limits it imposes on us and so on (p. 97). Only by openly listening to this intergenerational questioning can Mancini's «good reciprocity» be generated (2008) between young people and adults, through which not only does the young person appear before the adult as a future «promise», but the adult his or herself is also a «promise» for the young person, in a testimony that is not limited to merely transmitting knowledge, norms, or values, but is open to the hope that a future can be carved out despite the uncertainty, scarcity or fragility of existence, and that this future is not reduced to individual survival or satisfying personal needs (p. 212).

The question of the limit and of the constituent fragility of the person is decisive for the response education can offer to the fulfilment of the human. Each individual's existential journey is outlined in terms of potential and fragility, understood not in an exclusionary or contrary fashion but instead a complementary



and unifying one. Each person can «correspond to the form that pertains to her, in other words, a vocation, to the call with which the world and the other appeal to her without running the risk of being expropriated from herself» (p. 124). This is only possible if one recognises and experiences one's fragility as an element that makes human growth possible, if it is not hidden or avoided like a weakness. This ability to integrate one's own fragility is partly what is nowadays known by the term resilience, making it possible to transform difficult experiences into lessons and so acquire the useful competencies needed to improve one's own life and achieve greater autonomy (p. 172-173).

Accordingly, Musaio overlaps with the efforts of current psychology to promote the construction of a stable identity on which it is possible to re-establish the core of one's own interiority and live the experience of going outside oneself to encounter otherness (p. 190). The equilibrium between fragility and resilience on which to plot the future of young people (and of adult life) lies in learning to experience the dimension of the other in oneself, opening oneself up to trusting in what is possible despite uncertainty, doubt, and adversity as drivers of flexibility and change. A pedagogy like this defined under relational parameters pushes for the abandonment of educational behaviours that are most connected to accumulating achievements, experiences, and activities that feed an illusory self-realisation, based on misleading self-sufficiency and false individualism. Instead, it is a matter of promoting a pedagogy that perceives the aspirations and the deep desires of young people as a human heritage that adults and institutions must help to realise tangibly (p. 216); consequently, it is a pedagogy that is more concerned with the risk and protection factors in the evolutionary processes, more focussed on discovering the personal potential and talent of everyone and on generating chances for creativity and innovation where the vulnerability of the human combines with trusting in oneself and in others.

In essence, according to Musaio, this link between generations must be built «under the banner of generativity» (p. 216) as the capacity of both parties to give life to something new that derives not so much from biological generativity but rather from the relationship that recognises the human. Following on from Pedagogia della persona educabile (Pedagogy of the educatable person, 2010), in this new publication Musaio explores the promotion of the human as an educational task that all of us must generate between us. In life we must all make and share a new personal path by which we can «symbolically return», in Stoppa's words (2011), whatever has been given to us and we have received from others.

Carmen Urpí Guercia ■

Pérez-Pérez, C. (2016).

Educación en valores para la ciudadanía. Estrategias y técnicas de aprendizaje [Education in values for citizenship. Learning strategies and techniques]. Bilbao: Desclée. 256 pp.

The basic premise of this book is that not only is educating in values, especially



moral values, possible, but this education must be a priority for the formal education system, putting it at the same level as learning other areas of content or the acquisition of professional competencies. This is an arduous and complex task, but no less desirable for it, and it will bring us closer to the profile of the good citizen, necessarily compatible from an ethical perspective with that of the good person. In light of this task, education has an entirely essential role since, as the author states: «citizenship must go hand in hand with priority action in education» (p. 17). Education must, therefore, pay particular attention when planning, designing, implementing, and evaluating education in values. It is not a matter of imposing a dogma that limits the spectrum of education to pure indoctrination, but of spreading humanity with the hope of reaping a more dignified future.

Structured in six chapters, this work starts by considering the concept of value, its roots, origins, and evolution, to explain later the basic dimensions that help us better understand its complexity to be able to come to define the existing characteristics, types, and systems of values. In this first part is it is certainly interesting to emphasise the author's perceptive comments about the increasingly necessary educational pact, the cornerstone of this type of education, as well as the distinction he makes between secularity, secularism, and religion, coming to the same conclusion as Kant that the morality that must exist in a plural society can only be secular, in other words, independently respecting people's religious beliefs and giving them sufficient liberty to decide about their own lives. These are interesting issues that a book that revolves around values must evaluate, and so the relationship between religion and moral values —as well as other sensitive topics— is present throughout all of this work.

In the second part the author argues that there is no education without education about values. And these values, captivated by the values of postmodernity -closer to almost tangible instant gratifications such as pleasure, the present, aesthetics, individualism, etc.- must be reassessed when we work on them. Consequently, faced with postmodernity, the author supports the systematic and planned teaching of certain universal ethical values, an ethics of minima, both as a possibility and through necessity. A task in which, as the author correctly notes, an improvement in specific training for teachers is, among other aspects, vital, as is a greater rapprochement with families. the principal body for providing education in values for centuries.

This ethics of minima must include aspects that create greater wellbeing and justice for all, and respect cultural diversity and the content of the constitutions of democratic countries, thereby supporting values like liberty, justice, equality, honesty, solidarity, pluralism, and, ultimately, all of those that make our social coexistence more human. They must always, of course, take into account the fact that civic skills count for nothing if they are not built on a moral system as, «educating citizens cannot be carried out without educating people» (p. 67).



After examining what values to educate in, the third part of the book examines in greater depth five of the most common theories about values education: sociological, character education, philosophy for children, developing moral judgement, and clarifying values. We must consider the fact that this book developed from the heart of educational theory, with numerous references to the members of the field, and so consequently a theoretical support on which to base the subsequently developed practice could not be absent. We should not, however, think that we are facing an eminently theoretical book, since one of its strong points is its ability to move from discourse to action, from the most solid theoretical base to the potential pedagogical implications that can be drawn from reading it.

Nonetheless, before reaching the most practical section -chapter five- the work pauses to weigh up the current situation and the possibilities concerning the role of education for exercising citizenship itself. This is a teaching that is criticised and can, undoubtedly, be criticised, but the risk of losing the historical victories attained if the tension and effort that has seen them born is not maintained also depends on it. As Pérez affirms «The education system cannot restrict itself to the instructional duties that have traditionally been entrusted to it and remain outside the new circumstances of the current world» (p. 119). Reflections that are certainly pertinent for establishing what is understood by citizenship nowadays in Spain, Europe, and the world thanks to ICT, what its dimensions are (legal, social, economic, civil, etc.), its levels of involvement, and its educational repercussions in the school curriculum such as, for example, through the use of service learning.

Following this journey, we come to one of the most interesting parts of the work: the strategies and techniques for learning about values. Without being exhaustive, according to what objective we wish to achieve (clarifying values, developing the social perspective and empathy, exposure to valuable models, etc.), the author opens up a range of available strategies before us: listing values, discussing moral dilemmas, word photos, word walls, class assemblies, etc. In each of them a detailed presentation is given of the activity and its objectives, how the technique develops, the role of the teacher and interesting recommendations for applying it. Finally, they are all clarified with a very useful diagram summarising the steps to follow. This is a didactically very well thought through chapter that will guide the reader in applying the selected technique without problems. These are pages that make this book a necessary tool for helping us to educate in values.

Finally, supporting the belief that anything that is not evaluated becomes devalued, Pérez closes the book with a chapter on evaluation techniques that are equally applicable and well explained. The task of evaluation is already inherently complex and laborious, it is even more so when covering sensitive aspects such as values, above all moral values. The author is clear about this: «it makes no sense to stop evaluating these processes [...]. Evaluation is intrinsic to learning» (pp. 217-218). This chapter is controversial, as is



the whole book given its topic, and the author ends as he started, contributing with his knowledge from a pedagogical perspective that is different from mere opinion to the planning, teaching, and evaluation of one of the most important, if not the most important, facets of the whole process of education. This work will

enable readers who choose to appreciate it to make their classes will be more civic, fuller, more human, regardless of the level of education they work at but it will be especially interesting for those working at a pre-university level.

José L. González-Geraldo ■



This is the English version of the book reviews published originally in the printed Spanish edition of issue 269 of the **revista española de pedagogía**. For this reason, the abbreviation EV has been added to the page numbers.

Reseñas bibliográficas

Martínez, M., Esteban, F. Jover, G. y Payá, M. (2016).

La educación, en teoría. Madrid: Síntesis. 219 pp.

Escribir un libro de teoría de la educación con sencillez no es una tarea sencilla. Es por ello que este texto resulta original, tanto por su clara estructura, su lenguaje directo —en términos generales— muy comprensible y elocuente, como por su atención a cuestiones clásicas de esta disciplina relacionadas con problemas educativos actuales. Así las cosas, los autores, catedráticos y profesores de teoría de la educación de las Universidades de Barcelona y Complutense de Madrid, proponen un texto dirigido a académicos, profesionales de la educación y al público en general.

Sus cuatro partes y doce capítulos se encuentran engarzados entre sí a través de ejemplos reales, imaginarios, literarios y cinematográficos que sirven de base para los análisis teóricos realizados. Las diferentes partes dan respuestas diversas, complementarias e incluso, en algunos casos, enfrentadas a las cuestiones que se plantean, proporcionando así una riqueza de perspectivas de gran interés para el lector.

Se distancia de los manuales al uso de teoría de la educación en que no aborda las ideas de los grandes pensadores ni escudriña los problemas actuales a la luz de sus planteamientos, sino que, como los propios autores afirman, trata de plantear retos a la teoría de la educación desde la práctica, buscando acercar el espacio entre estas dos caras de la moneda educativa, pero sin despreciar las aportaciones de los grandes teóricos de la educación. Asimismo, es notable, como los propios autores reconocen al final del libro (p. 212), la especial atención prestada a la dimensión moral de la educación, lo que no es extrano por las líneas de investigación que vienen desarrollando desde hace años, y que permiten abordar el tema con la garantía de la experiencia y la profundidad en el análisis.

La primera parte se centra en la figura del educador y, partiendo del ejemplo de



Germain y Camus, se elogia su determinante papel en la vida de los estudiantes. Según explican, posee una influencia de crucial relevancia con carácter personal e inexcusable, imprescindible, inevitable, fuera de su elección. En la línea de algunas investigaciones recientes y clásicas en educación moral, afirman que los profesores buenos son algo similar a los buenos profesores, por lo que el buen desempeño profesional tiene que ver con la forma de vida del profesor y su excelencia personal, que está caracterizada por:

- La vivencia del deseo de saber, de enriquecerse culturalmente con lo mejor que se ha producido en la historia de la humanidad.
- 2) El trato personal con el alumno, que requiere respeto, pero implica ir más allá, y supone promover el compromiso con proyectos personales autodeterminados y guiados al mismo tiempo por el profesor.
- 3) La creación de espacios de aprendizaje únicos, donde estos fluyan de manera natural y se realicen con placer, con una forma y sentido particulares.

Acertadamente, critican la despersonalización que la racionalidad instrumental produce en la acción educativa y, para ello, confrontan la perspectiva educativa tradicional, focalizada en los contenidos, con la progresiva, centrada en el alumno, afirmando que, si bien el centro de atención se modifica en el cambio de modelo, la cientificación de la relación pedagógica se mantiene en ambos. El reconocimiento de la invalidez de estos planteamientos ha tornado la mirada hacia la influencia personal del profesor y nos acerca a una relación de amistad, y aunque no puede igualarse con ella, ambas comparten el respeto como elemento esencial, al que la educación añade la confianza y el optimismo. Ahora bien, ello no exime a la educación de su elemento personal, que no puede ser meramente funcional, pero que es intencional, pues su objetivo reside más allá de ella misma y se centra en el propio alumno y su libre orientación al mundo.

Analizan también la influencia y la intencionalidad educativas mediante preguntas esenciales como el por qué y el para qué educar, a lo que responden por la obligación moral y social que ello supone en el camino hacia el ser humano, de donde se deriva la importancia de la acción educativa y los educadores. Además de estar abierta a diferentes espacios y tiempos, me parece significativo destacar su concepción más allá del crecimiento lineal, en cuanto que se dirige también al reconocimiento de las propias limitaciones, superar dificultades, etc. Siguiendo al pedagogo alemán Spranger, realizan una interesante definición de educación como «favorecer la captación íntima de los productos culturales y estimular su ampliación teniendo como directriz lo que se debería hacer» (p. 51). Y, junto a ello, en la línea de lo planteado anteriormente, definen a los educadores como «personas que han colocado lo pedagógico en el centro de sus vidas, que han hecho en sí mismas la experiencia de la completa humanización» (p. 53), por lo que no es suficiente, como reza el título del capítulo, con buenas intenciones, sino que es necesario un desarrollo propio como persona para llegar a ser educador.



La segunda parte aborda los contenidos escolares y, más concretamente, se centra en su estrecha concepción utilitarista actual, donde la eficacia y la eficiencia marcan la pauta para su selección. En consecuencia, explican que está teniendo lugar un arrinconamiento de la cultura considerada clásica, al percibirla ajena a la realidad actual e identificarla con el aprendizaje memorístico, sin comprender que no solo nos permite subirnos a hombros de gigantes, sino que nos llama al conocimiento de la realidad y de nosotros mismos. Esto nos lleva a uno de los debates más importantes en los actuales sistemas educativos, donde las dos posturas se ejemplifican en las ideas de Dewey, por un lado, y de Oakeshott, por otro, contraponiéndose la continuidad de la experiencia entre generaciones al aprendizaje dialógico del mundo humano que permite al individuo elevarse sobre sus circunstancias. Este debate ha llegado también a la universidad, donde la cultura, según Dewey, debe servir funcionalmente a la situación actual, manteniendo así la continuidad entre el pasado y el presente. Afirman los autores que la dimensión profesional de la educación debe ser propiamente educativa, vinculada a las técnicas y a sus fundamentos, a su historia y su lugar en el mundo, manteniendo un equilibrio entre las necesidades sociales y la participación en la conversación sobre el sentido de la existencia humana.

La tercera parte torna la mirada hacia el aprendiz e identifica dos formas de concebir a los alumnos fundadas en el pensamiento liberal y comunitarista, respectivamente. Los autores del libro abogan por una combinación de ambas concepciones frente a la posición actual que prima la primera frente a la segunda, lo que tiene graves consecuencias para la dimensión moral de la educación, como la promoción de la indiferencia hacia el alumno, la concepción de la moral como un mercado o buffet de valores con diferentes opciones pero sin criterio de elección, o la irrealista aspiración a la neutralidad moral sin comprender que esta es también una opción moral. En este sentido, es muy interesante también el análisis antropológico que realizan del alumno, tomando como referencia la tensión paradigmática existente entre el caso de Víctor de Avevron v la filosofía naturalista de Rousseau. Como alternativa a estos dos enfoques fallidos proponen los autores conocerse a sí mismo, pero manteniendo el compromiso con el mundo, ser consciente de sus posibilidades ayudándose del reflejo de los otros.

El capítulo 9 introduce una perspectiva distinta al análisis del alumno y, partiendo de planteamientos posmodernos, advierte de la necesaria prudencia y humildad a la hora de educar, evitando los errores del positivismo y el tecnicismo en la educación, dejando espacio para lo imprevisible en el aula. Siguiendo a Arendt, definen al estudiante como una novedad radical que exige una nueva vivencia educativa en el educador que se concreta en infinitas posibilidades de actuación, que demandan apertura, flexibilidad y renovación ante el nuevo comienzo. Las consecuencias de este planteamiento son la plena horizontalidad con el alumno que pasa a ser así el principal protagonista del proceso educativo.

La cuarta y última parte se refiere al entorno en el que tiene lugar la educación.



La multiplicidad de recursos no sirve de mucho si se carece de un sentido educativo que los oriente, lo que, a juicio de los autores, ha ocurrido en los últimos tiempos en el ámbito educativo. En este sentido, identifican tres tendencias perniciosas consistentes en:

- a) Una necesaria pero excesiva apertura de la escuela a la realidad que olvida la orientación ética de los alumnos.
- b) Un desmedido protagonismo del alumno sustentado en la sobrevaloración de sus capacidades, aunque en proceso de desarrollo, aún inmaduras para la determinación de la práctica educativa, lo que a su vez redunda en una dejadez de funciones esenciales por parte del profesor.
- c) La relación familia-escuela ha pasado de la confianza ciega en la labor docente al cuestionamiento y la sospecha constante, enturbiando la conversación y el clima educativos. Como consecuencia de lo anterior, reclaman la colaboración entre la escuela y otros agentes sociales para la calidad de la educación, pues aisladamente no le es posible cumplir sus objetivos. De esta forma, los límites clásicos entre la educación formal, no formal e informal, tienden a desaparecer, estableciéndose dinámicas de retroalimentación y sinergia muy necesarias hoy, que avudan a comprender el éxito educativo más allá de las tradicionales metas escolares.

El último capítulo tiene un carácter diferente a los anteriores y realiza un mapa histórico-disciplinar de la teoría de la educación, prestando atención a sus orígenes en España y a sus fuentes internacionales que manan de las tradiciones alemana, francesa e inglesa. Me parece interesante destacar los retos actuales de esta disciplina que se apuntan en el libro, que son esencialmente dos: su relación con la práctica y la técnica sin que ello suponga renunciar al conocimiento teórico, y su desarrollo en el paradigma posmoderno que llega a negar incluso la posibilidad de su existencia, fundamentalmente por su dimensión normativa, lo que a juicio de los autores puede solventarse con propuestas que mantienen la tensión en la esfera moral entre lo universal y lo local.

Junto a todo lo anterior, este libro proporciona una clara evidencia de que la teoría de la educación no es, como en algunos foros se dice del latín y del griego clásico, una *lengua muerta*, sino que en el panorama utilitarista actual, la teoría educativa tiene mucho que decir y está llamada a jugar un papel crucial, vinculado a la práctica, pero con entidad propia. Más que nunca, resulta pertinente recordar la idea kantiana de que «La práctica sin teoría es ciega y la teoría sin práctica es estéril».

Juan Luis Fuentes ■

Sarramona, J. (2017).

Conservadores e izquierdistas frente a la educación.

Barcelona: Horsori. 170 pp.

El diálogo ha sido siempre una virtud que cabe aplicar en todos los ámbitos de la vida y que es preciso fomentar en la educación. El diálogo supone escuchar y



argumentar, supone buscar sinceramente la verdad con los otros, porque «la verdad está muy repartida, nadie la tiene en exclusiva y, más bien, se puede descubrir mediante el diálogo franco con quienes piensan distinto».

La frase entrecomillada del párrafo anterior corresponde al prólogo, escrito por el mismo autor de la obra, Jaume Sarramona, que es objeto de la presente reseña. Esa frase resume perfectamente lo que supone y pretende la obra en cuestión, que presenta los argumentos que son esgrimidos por dos personajes enmarcados en los grupos que, de manera un tanto simplista, solemos calificar como de conservadores e izquierdistas. Y es que el propósito indudablemente didáctico del autor se vale de esos dos personajes para mostrar los argumentos que, con notoria frecuencia, suelen utilizarse para defender las posiciones que frente a los temas educativos esgrimen uno y otro grupo.

Quien conoce la larga trayectoria académica del ahora profesor emérito Jaume Sarramona, sabe de su claridad de formulación, de su equilibrio ideológico, sin dejar por ello de adquirir compromisos cuando lo ha considerado oportuno, pero siempre con el apoyo de argumentos que tienen en cuenta el pensamiento del otro, e incluso anticipándose a sus posibles planteamientos. Es de valorar el que, aunque defiende sus convicciones con firmeza, esta no le impide tener muy en cuenta siempre los puntos de vista ajenos; de manera que, si eso forma parte de lo que denominamos empatía, en las obras de Sarramona encontraremos una buena dosis de esta disposición tan valiosa.

Centrados en la presente publicación. Conservadores e izquierdistas frente a la educación, se advierte el esfuerzo por recopilar los argumentos que utilizan los dos personajes dialogantes, a quienes el autor no ha querido asignar nombre ni sexo, para dejar que sea el mismo lector quien lo haga. Ambos personajes, aunque claramente representativos de sus respectivos colectivos, se muestran mesurados -dentro de la firmeza con que defienden sus ideas— y siempre respetuosos, sin excluir a veces una sana ironía, siempre en el marco de una sociedad democrática donde conviven opciones diversas. Hay que reconocer el esfuerzo del autor por no inclinar claramente la balanza hacia una u otra posición, aunque el lector avezado puede intuir donde está situado, especialmente si conoce otras de sus obras. En la presente, sin embargo, pretende que sea el lector quien se reafirme en sus convicciones o encuentre argumentos para matizarlas; esto es: que sea el lector quien reflexione y confronte ideas hasta determinar las suyas.

El libro resulta muy agradable de lectura, sin perder nunca el rigor en el lenguaje y en los argumentos, puesto que los temas son analizados en sus múltiples facetas. Se capta fácilmente la atención del lector, al menos hasta el final del capítulo iniciado. Son nueve los capítulos con que se estructura la obra, abarcando una temática altamente atractiva para ser debatida desde perspectivas ideológicas y pedagógicas contrapuestas: la escuela como institución, la coeducación, premios y castigos, la evaluación, la educación del alumnado inmigrante, la dirección escolar, la investigación en ciencias sociales,



la profesionalidad docente... Todos ellos son tratados con rigor, a la vez que induce a la mente del lector -que se acerque a su lectura sin rígidos prejuicios— a encontrar argumentos que, casi con toda seguridad, le lleven a reflexionar o, con no poca probabilidad, a tambalear algunos criterios previos. Porque las convicciones personales más firmes precisan ser sometidas a debate para ponerlas a prueba; algo fundamental, porque, de lo contrario, se tratarían más bien de «pre-juicios», que dirían poco de la capacidad reflexiva de la persona. Jaume Sarramona nos quiere ofrecer esa posibilidad de contraste, poniendo a prueba de debate aquello que pudiera parecer más obvio y que luego resulta no serlo tanto.

Pocos autores se atreven a escribir una obra donde se presenten, no solo los propios criterios, sino también los contrarios. Existe amplia tradición pedagógica en la defensa del diálogo entre maestro y alumno, pero tal diálogo no suele ser más que una técnica para llevar al que no sabe por el sendero que previamente se determina como deseable; sin duda ese tipo de diálogo resulta válido y atractivo, desarrolla la capacidad de reflexión del discente y la habilidad dialéctica del docente: es el modelo denominado «socrático». Y es que, en general, nos sentimos fuertes cuando silenciamos las posibles objeciones nacidas de una convicción y reflexión previa. Tendemos a reafirmamos en nuestras creencias y opiniones, a refugiarnos con quienes piensan igual que nosotros... y a silenciar -incluso interiormente -- a los contrarios. El mundo universitario, pero también los otros niveles educativos, proporcionan ejemplos de ese sectarismo intelectual,

contrario a la esencia de la intelectualidad abierta y deseosa de avanzar en la búsqueda de la verdad. No es ese el tipo de diálogo que utiliza Sarramona, sino una abierta confrontación de ideas elaboradas y maduras que se confrontan abiertamente, poniéndose mutuamente a prueba. Este es el gran mérito de la obra que nos ocupa.

Para terminar esta breve reseña, nada mejor que la reproducción de los párrafos finales del epílogo de la obra que resumen perfectamente el propósito de la misma (pp. 168-169):

I. ¿Me preguntas si he cambiado de parecer después de escuchar tus argumentaciones? Tú no has dicho que lo hayas hecho tras escuchar las mías. Te diré que, desde luego, no me he pasado a tu bando, pero con la misma sinceridad también te digo que me has hecho pensar y que, en adelante matizaré algunos de mis planteamientos. Considero que ha sido muy enriquecedora la oportunidad de establecer un diálogo franco y claro, el tener ocasión de conocer las razones de quien situamos en la trinchera de enfrente.

C. Con igual sinceridad que la tuya te confesaré que también ha sido para mí una experiencia sumamente enriquecedora el poder contrastar contigo ideas y argumentos de manera distendida y franca. Seguramente no somos dos casos radicales, de situaciones extremas que hagan imposible el diálogo y que, precisamente por ello, lo hemos llevado a cabo. También tendré presentes argumentos tuyos en mis propias reflexiones, como no puede ser de otra manera tratándose de personas que, manteniendo nuestras respectivas ideas, somos capaces de razonarlas y de escuchar otras opciones.



I. Tal vez podamos repetir la experiencia en otra ocasión y tal vez entonces nos diremos hacia dónde se han movido nuestros respectivos planteamientos.

C. Tal vez.

José Antonio Jordán ■

Buxarrais, M. R. y Burget, M. (Coord.) (2016).

Aprender a ser. Por una pedagogía de la interioridad. Barcelona: Graó. 184 pp.

> «Conócete a ti mismo». Oráculo de Delfos.

Conócete a ti mismo y ocúpate de ti, entonces podrás ocuparte de los demás. Esta, quizás sea la máxima sobre la que se edifica el libro *Aprender a ser. Por una pedagogía de la interioridad*. Su lectura es una continua invitación a mirar hacia el interior para conquistar nuestro propio ser, y desde allí, conectar con el mundo exterior.

Contemplar, meditar, hacerse preguntas, escucharse, son algunas de las sugerencias, comunes a los dieciséis capítulos que forman la obra, para cultivar lo anímico, lo espiritual, lo emocional y lo racional, esto es, nuestra interioridad.

Bajo diferentes nombres o títulos, tales como *Pedagogía de la interioridad*, *Habilidades para la vida*, *Autoconciencia*, *Yo místico*, etc., sus autores indagan sobre el poder de la educación como guía en el complejo proceso de aprender a ser. Con el único objetivo de evidenciar la importante necesidad de establecer una pedagogía para la interioridad, el libro se divide en dos partes. Una primera donde se hace un recorrido por distintas ideas y reflexiones teóricas sobre el ser como concepto. Y un segundo bloque que presenta prácticas reales en educación, en diferentes contextos, etapas educativas, y con actividades muy diversas.

Necesariamente, las propuestas que este libro recoge llevan a pensar en el informe Delors de la UNESCO de 1996 *La educación encierra un tesoro*, y en dos de los cuatro pilares sobre los que se sustenta *Aprender a ser y aprender a vivir juntos*, proponiendo un desafío a la educación del siglo XXI.

El primer capítulo, trata de cimentar la estructura de la pedagogía de la interioridad proponiendo al mundo de la educación a valerse de herramientas tan poderosas como el arte o la belleza para movilizar al ser tendencial del hombre hacia el conocimiento. Según esta teoría, la persona «es divisible» en tres dimensiones: esencial, existencial y tendencial; siendo de este modo el ser esencialmente universal v existencialmente único. Pero además, es un ser tendencial, esto es, es un ser incompleto, con deseos de perfeccionarse. Recordando tal vez a la admiración y el asombro aristotélico, el texto comprende esta ambición, como un motor para conocer. Admiración que surge de que el ser humano, aun siendo parte de la realidad, tiene la capacidad de preguntarse por ella, y por consecuencia de guerer conocerla. El valioso papel de la belleza, y del arte, como impulsores al conocimiento, ha de ser reconocido y utilizado por la educación.



Conocer la realidad supone también, tomar conciencia de uno mismo, autoconocerse. En el segundo capítulo del libro, apoyándose en las evidencias actuales de la neurociencia, apuesta por la autoconciencia o metaconciencia, distinta de la conciencia, una reflexión sobre nuestra propia mente, nuestros pensamientos y la realización de un análisis crítico y de nuestro propio ser.

Cuando se habla de autoconocimiento, se pretende dar un sentido que va más allá de lo meramente superficial. Este conocimiento ha de llevar necesariamente al cuidado ético de las personas; es decir, el cuidado de uno mismo, y por consecuencia el de los demás. Cuidar al prójimo en palabras de Gilligan (1982) es ayudarle a crecer. A su vez, ser cuidadosos, nos puede ayudar a encontrar nuestro verdadero ser, y ser impulso de nuestro propio desarrollo.

El cuidado ético, descrito en el tercer capítulo, es vital para el desarrollo del ser humano, un ser que según Simone de Beauvoir (1949) «nace, crece y alcanza la plenitud anclado en un entramado de redes interpersonales afectivas». El contacto con los demás, ha de llevar al cuidado de los otros y de nuestro propio ser. Sin duda, las aulas son la primera red social, más o menos estable, donde poner en práctica el cuidado ético.

Los capítulos cuatro y cinco, siguiendo con la idea de cuidado ético, ponen el foco en el acompañamiento del alumnado, para responder a sus necesidades, y atender a sus emociones. Aparece el concepto de eneagrama, que describiendo nueve tipos de personalidad, propone buscar el perfil más cercano al alumno y aprovechar las potencialidades de cada uno. El eneagrama es una herramienta con gran potencial que muestra a cada alumno su «don» y le enseña lo mejor de sí mismo.

En los siguientes capítulos se insiste en un error frecuente en el que cae la educación actual. La educación de hoy generalmente va «hacia fuera», para «cumplir el currículo», o responder a cierta ley que no contempla o impide el desarrollo de otra pedagogía. Sin embargo, la educación ha de ir «hacía dentro», y una vez allí, comenzar a edificar puentes hacia el exterior, sin olvidar que la educación de la interioridad no está necesariamente limitada por el curriculum o por una ley concreta, puesto que se trata de un contenido que está presente en el día a día de las aulas.

La segunda parte del libro, y quizás la más atractiva, recoge ejemplos y puestas en práctica cuyo objetivo es la educación del ser y su relación con la interioridad descritas en distintas situaciones educativas.

La Universidad de Barcelona cuenta con una asignatura (Análisis de las relaciones educativas) en el Grado de Educación Social, que fue creada sobre la idea de que para relacionarnos con los demás es necesario previamente relacionarnos con nosotros mismos, con nuestra intimidad. Los resultados e impresiones de los alumnos de esta asignatura van de la sorpresa a la gratitud.

Sin embargo, las propuestas más numerosas se enmarcan en la educación obligatoria. Una ellas es la del IES Antonio María Calero, que se propone la práctica del reconocimiento a través de ejercicios cotidianos que no se enmarcan en



ninguna ley o programa. Esta propuesta busca alcanzar la autoridad moral, en un escenario donde el rol docente se encuentra algo desdibujado. Busca la autoridad desde el reconocimiento del alumno, a través del saludo, del interés por sus sentimientos y sus preocupaciones.

Otras prácticas de interés, como la descrita en el capítulo nueve, ponen el acento en el ser corporal, cuyo conocimiento también resulta necesario para llegar al ser espiritual. La atención al cuerpo, a la postura, a nuestra motricidad, son quizás la antesala de la interioridad. El capítulo 10, presenta un taller que tiene como meta el descubrimiento del ser interior. El silencio, la atención sostenida, la respiración, la meditación, el body scan, son utilizadas en muchas de las prácticas que aquí se presentan como válidas para conectar con nuestro ser interior.

Merecen mención, por tener tintes diferentes al resto de prácticas expuestas a lo largo del libro, la actividad de mediación del Proyecto GAC «a l'escola» de Barcelona. O el proyecto personal de la escuela Cor de María-Sabastida, donde los educandos finalmente han de darse cuenta de que el mayor descubrimiento que van a hacer en la vida son ellos mismos.

En definitiva, conocernos a nosotros mismos es una tarea mucho más compleja de lo que podamos pensar *a priori*. Conocernos supone poner palabras a nuestros sentimientos y pensamientos, compartirlos, conectar interioridad y mundo exterior, escucharnos, cuidarnos y cuidar al prójimo, tomar un momento de silencio, ser conscientes de nuestro cuerpo, de nuestro ser corpóreo, de nuestra respiración, de

nuestro espíritu, de lo que somos, lo que creemos ser y lo que podemos llegar a ser.

El reto que este libro propone es una aventura complicada y desconocida, un viaje hacia el interior de uno mismo. La invitación que la lectura de *Aprender a ser* hace, surge quizás sobre la idea de Luis Magriña, que Ylla Janer recoge en el prólogo del libro: «Lo que tenemos no tiene ninguna importancia. Lo que somos siempre lo llevamos encima». Algo que nos acompañará toda la vida merece sin duda alguna ser conocido, cuidado, mimado y por qué no, trabajado para hacer de ello, como proponía Foucault, una obra de arte.

Gema Pilar Sáez Suanes ■

Musaio, M. (2016).

Realizzo me stesso. Educare i giovani alla ricerca delle possibilità. Milano: Mimesis. 238 pp.

Pensar hoy el futuro de nuestros jóvenes es el reto que la autora del libro plantea dentro del ámbito académico y profesional de la actuación educativa, social v cultural; y lo hace desde la autoridad y el rigor de quien conoce el trasfondo filosófico, antropológico y psicológico que subvace a las cuestiones escogidas para abordar el tema. En seguida salta a la vista que, en su mavoría, se trata de cuestiones nucleares, no exentas de problematicidad, bajo un planteamiento que no se conforma con explicaciones simplificadoras de lo humano pero que también huye de sofisticadas argumentaciones. Lo esencial y nuclear se distingue a menudo por la paradoja de manifestarse con sencillez sin perder su



complejidad, y esta misma paradoja se va encontrando el lector a lo largo del libro que tiene entre manos.

Las nociones de educabilidad y promoción de lo humano son el punto de partida de todo el discurso antropológico y pedagógico que sostiene la autora, Marisa Musaio (Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore di Milano, Italia), a lo largo de los tres amplios capítulos que, junto a la introducción, las conclusiones y la amplia bibliografía, completan el libro:

- 1. Reconocer a la persona como posibilidad.
- 2. Pedagogía como saber de las potencialidades educables.
- 3. Educar entre potencialidad y realización de sí.

A la pregunta sobre cómo promover un desarrollo que permita a cada uno llegar a ser cada vez más sí mismo, Musaio responde con una pedagogía que parte de la *educabilidad* intrínseca de cada persona por la cual el conjunto de sus potencialidades se despliega a lo largo de toda la vida para ser única, singular y nueva; pero no de un modo puramente autoafirmativo y aislado sino en relación con la realidad y con el otro, en el reencuentro con lo *humano* como elemento de unión (p. 89-90).

Mención aparte merece el prólogo de Concepción Naval (Catedrática de Teoría de la Educación en la Universidad de Navarra), bajo el título *Educación como praxis*, que adelanta ya el énfasis del libro en la esencia práctica del saber pedagógico, fundado en la libertad constitutiva de la acción humana, generadora de posibilidades válidas para la educación, aunque de ellas no puedan desprenderse fórmulas teóricas universales y necesarias (p. 16).

Uno de las cuestiones recurrentes v de especial relevancia en el conjunto del texto se encuentra en la mirada que Musaio, bajo la influencia de autores tales como Augé (2013), Bellingreri (2011), De Monticelli (2009), Hargreaves v Shirley (2012), Mancini (2008), dirige hacia jóvenes v adolescentes. Ellos son considerados como grupo generacional que posee sus peculiaridades pero que no queda determinado por ellas, ni siguiera encasillado en una etapa de tránsito hacia la madurez, incomunicado y distanciado del mundo adulto, el cual dejaría así de ser referencia válida para un futuro posible. Al contrario, a través del crecimiento adolescente, a través de las pruebas e hitos del desarrollo que el adolescente debe afrontar, el adulto de referencia (educador, padre, madre...) es llamado a interpretar su propio recorrido existencial, las pruebas propias de la vida en general: la tensión entre el deseo y el cansancio de vivir, entre la apertura a la vida y la aceptación del límite que nos impone, etc. (p. 97). Solo desde una escucha permeable a dicho cuestionamiento intergeneracional, es posible generar la «buena reciprocidad» de Mancini (2008) entre jóvenes y adultos, por la cual no solo el joven se presenta frente al adulto como futura «promesa», sino que el propio adulto también se constituye en «promesa» para el joven, en testimonio no limitado a la simple transmisión de conocimientos, normas o valores, sino abierto a la esperanza de que es posible labrarse un futuro a pesar de la incertidumbre, la precariedad o la fragilidad de la existencia, y que este futuro no es reducible a la supervivencia individual o a la satisfacción de necesidades personales (p. 212).



La cuestión del límite y de la fragilidad constitutiva de la persona resulta decisiva para la respuesta que la educación puede ofrecer al cumplimiento de lo humano. El recorrido existencial de cada uno se delinea en términos de potencialidad y de fragilidad, entendidos no de modo excluvente o contrario sino complementario y unificador. Cada persona puede «corresponder a la *forma* que le es propia, es decir, a su vocación, a la llamada que el mundo y el otro le apelan sin correr el riesgo de ser expropiada de sí misma» (p. 124). Esto solo es posible si se reconoce v se vive la propia fragilidad como elemento posibilitador de crecimiento humano, si no se esconde ni se evita como si de una debilidad se tratase. Esta capacidad para integrar la propia fragilidad es en parte lo que hoy se conoce bajo el término resiliencia, que permite transformar las experiencias difíciles en aprendizajes v adquirir así las competencias útiles para mejorar la propia vida y conseguir mayor autonomía (p. 172-173).

En este sentido, Musaio coincide con los esfuerzos de la psicología actual por promover la construcción de una identidad estable, a partir de la cual sea posible restablecer el núcleo de la propia interioridad y vivir la experiencia de salir fuera de sí para ir al encuentro de la alteridad (p. 190). El equilibro entre fragilidad y resiliencia sobre el cual trazar el futuro de los jóvenes (y también de la vida adulta) está en aprender a experimentar la dimensión del otro en uno mismo, abriéndose a la confianza en lo posible a pesar de la incertidumbre, la duda, la adversidad, como motores de flexibilidad y de cambio. Una pedagogía así definida bajo

parámetros relacionales insta a abandonar los comportamientos educativos más ligados a la acumulación de logros, experiencias o actividades que alimentan una autorrealización ilusoria, basada en la autosuficiencia engañosa y en el falso individualismo. En cambio, se trata de promover una pedagogía que perciba las aspiraciones y los deseos profundos de los jóvenes como patrimonio de la humanidad que los adultos y las instituciones deben avudar a realizar de modo tangible (p. 216); por tanto, se trata de una pedagogía más preocupada por atender los factores de riesgo y de protección en los procesos evolutivos, más centrada en descubrir el potencial y talento personal de cada uno y en generar posibilidades de creatividad e innovación, donde la vulnerabilidad de lo humano quede integrada en la confianza en uno mismo y en los otros.

En definitiva, para Musaio este vínculo entre generaciones debe construirse «bajo la insignia de la generatividad» (p. 216) como capacidad de ambas partes de dar vida a algo nuevo que proviene no tanto de la generatividad biológica sino de la relación reconocedora de lo humano. Después de Pedagogia della persona educabile (2010), en esta nueva publicación Musaio se adentra en la promoción de lo humano como tarea educativa que nos corresponde generar entre todos, si es que a todos corresponde en la vida realizar y compartir un camino personal y nuevo, por el cual «restituir simbólicamente» -en términos de Stoppa (2011) - cuanto se nos ha dado y hemos recibido de otros.



Pérez-Pérez, C. (2016).

Educación en valores para la ciudadanía. Estrategias y técnicas de aprendizaje. Bilbao: Desclée. 256 pp.

La premisa básica del libro que nos ocupa consiste en que no solamente es posible educar en valores, especialmente en valores morales, sino que dicha formación ha de ser prioritaria para el sistema educativo formal, situándola al mismo nivel que el aprendizaje de otros contenidos o la adquisición de competencias profesionales. Una tarea ardua y compleja, pero no por ello menos deseable, que nos acercará al perfil del buen ciudadano, necesariamente compatible, desde un punto de vista ético, con el de buena persona. Ante esta empresa, la educación juega un papel completamente esencial pues, tal y como afirma el autor: «la ciudadanía debe venir de la mano de una actuación prioritaria en la educación» (p. 17). La educación, por tanto, ha de prestar especial atención a la hora de planificar, diseñar, implementar v evaluar la educación en valores. No se trata de imponer dogmas o de limitar el espectro educativo al puro adoctrinamiento, sino de sembrar humanidad con la esperanza de cosechar un futuro más digno.

Estructurado en seis capítulos, la obra del profesor Pérez comienza aproximándose al concepto de valor, a sus raíces, orígenes y evolución, para después explicitar las dimensiones básicas que nos ayudan a comprender mejor su complejidad y así poder llegar a definir las características, tipos y sistemas de valores existentes. En esta primera parte es ciertamente interesante destacar los agudos comentarios que durante sus páginas realiza sobre el

cada vez más necesario pacto educativo. piedra angular para este tipo de educación, así como la distinción que realiza entre laicidad, laicismo y religión, llegando a la kantiana conclusión de que la moral que ha de existir en una sociedad plural solamente puede ser laica, es decir, autónoma respecto de las creencias religiosas, otorgando la suficiente libertad a las personas para decidir sobre su propia vida. Aspectos de interés que, como no podría ser de otra forma, un libro que versa sobre valores necesariamente ha de valorar. Por ello, la relación que existe entre religión v los valores morales -así como otros temas sensibles— está presente a lo largo de toda la obra.

No hay educación si no se educa en valores, asegura en la segunda parte. Y estos valores, embelesados por los propios de la postmodernidad -más cercanos a gratificaciones inmediatas casi tangibles: placer, presente, estética, individualismo, etc. – deben ser replanteados a la hora de ser trabajados. Así, frente a la postmodernidad, el autor defiende la enseñanza sistemática y planificada de ciertos valores éticos universales, una ética de mínimos, tanto como posibilidad como por necesidad. Tarea en la que, como acertadamente apunta entre otros aspectos, es imprescindible una mejora de la formación específica del profesorado y un mayor acercamiento a las familias, principal institución educadora en valores durante siglos.

Esta ética de mínimos ha de tratar aspectos que generen mayor bienestar y justicia para todos, que respeten la diversidad cultural y los contenidos de las constituciones de los países democráticos,



auspiciando por tanto valores como la libertad, la justicia, la igualdad, la honestidad, la solidaridad, el pluralismo y, en definitiva, todos aquellos que hacen más humana nuestra convivencia social. Siempre teniendo en cuenta, por supuesto, que de nada servirían las destrezas cívicas si no se construyen sobre un sistema moral pues «La educación de los ciudadanos no se puede llevar a cabo sin la formación de las personas» (p. 67).

Tras examinar en qué valores educar, la tercera parte del libro profundiza en cinco de las teorías sobre la educación de valores más señaladas: sociologistas, educación del carácter, filosofía para niños, desarrollo del juicio moral y clarificación de valores. Hemos de tener en cuenta que estamos ante un libro nacido en el seno de la Teoría de la Educación, con numerosas referencias a los miembros que componen el campo, y que por tanto, no podía faltar un asidero teórico que sustentara la práctica posteriormente desarrollada. Pero no debemos por ello pensar que estamos ante un libro eminentemente teórico, pues uno de sus puntos fuertes es la capacidad de progresar desde el discurso hasta la acción, desde la más sólida base teórica hasta las posibles implicaciones pedagógicas que de su lectura derivan.

No obstante, antes de aterrizar en la parte más práctica —capítulo quinto—, la obra se detiene para sopesar la situación actual y las posibilidades existentes en cuanto al papel de la educación para el ejercicio de la ciudadanía propiamente dicha. Una enseñanza criticada y criticable, sin duda, pero sobre la que también pende el peligro de perder las conquistas históricas alcanzadas si no se mantiene la ten-

sión y el esfuerzo que las ha visto nacer. Tal y como afirma el profesor Pérez «El sistema educativo no puede limitarse a las funciones instructivas que tradicionalmente ha tenido encomendadas y permanecer ajeno a las nuevas circunstancias del mundo actual» (p. 119). Reflexiones ciertamente pertinentes para comprender qué se entiende por ciudadanía hoy en día en nuestro país, en Europa y en el mundo -gracias a las TIC-, cuáles son sus dimensiones (legales, sociales, económicas, civiles, etc.), sus niveles de implicación y sus repercusiones educativas en el currículo escolar como, por ejemplo, a través del uso del Aprendizaje Servicio (ApS).

Tras este periplo, llegamos a una de las partes más interesantes de la obra: las estrategias y técnicas para el aprendizaie de valores. Sin ser exhaustivos, dependiendo del objetivo que pretendamos conseguir — clarificación de valores, desarrollo de la perspectiva social y la empatía, exposición a modelos valiosos, etc.—, el autor abre ante nosotros un abanico de estrategias disponibles: lista de valores, discusión de dilemas morales, fotopalabra, frase mural, asamblea de aula, etc. En cada una de ellas se realiza una exposición detallada de la actividad y sus objetivos, el desarrollo de la técnica, el papel del profesor e interesantes recomendaciones para su aplicación. Finalmente, todas ellas quedan clarificadas con un útil gráfico que resumen los pasos a seguir. Un capítulo didácticamente muy cuidado que guiará al interesado para que pueda aplicar sin problemas la técnica seleccionada. Páginas que hacen de este libro una precisa herramienta a la hora de ayudarnos a educar en valores.



Por último, defendiendo la creencia de que lo que no se evalúa se devalúa, el profesor Pérez cierra el libro con un capítulo sobre técnicas de evaluación igualmente aplicables y bien articuladas. Si la tarea evaluativa ya es de por sí compleja y farragosa, más todavía al tratar aspectos sensibles como son los valores, sobre todo los valores morales. En este sentido el autor es claro: «no tiene sentido dejar de evaluar estos procesos [...]. La evaluación es intrínseca al aprendizaje» (pp. 217-218). Estamos ante un capítulo controvertido, como lo es el libro dada su temática, donde el autor termina como

empezó, contribuyendo con su saber, y desde un punto de vista pedagógico alejado de la mera opinión, a la planificación, enseñanza y evaluación de una de las facetas más importantes, si no la más importante, de todo el proceso educativo. Gracias a su obra, los lectores que tengan a bien apreciarla, sin importar el nivel educativo en el que trabajen pero siendo especialmente interesante para los previos al universitario, podrán conseguir que sus clases sean más cívicas, más plenas, más humanas.

José L. González-Geraldo ■



La revista española de pedagogía aparece en los siguientes medios de

documentación bibliográfica:

Bases de Datos Nacionales:

CARHUS, CIRC, Dialnet, ISOC, DICE, MIAR, PSICODOC, REDINED, Red de Revistas Científicas de Educación (RERCE) y RESH.

Bases de Datos Extranieras:

Academic Search Complete, Academic Search Premier, Cabell's Directory, Directorio Latindex (México), Education Research Complete, Education Source, Educational Research Abstracts (USA), ERIH, Fuente Académica, Fuente Académica Premier, International Bibliography of Periodical Literature on the Humanities and Social Sciences e International Bibliography of Books Reviews of Scholarly Literature on the Humanities and Social Sciences (Alemania). International Database on Higher Education, IRESIE (México), JSTOR, Latindex, Periodicals Index On line (USA), OPAC LUK, SCOPUS, así como en el Scimago Journal & Country Rank, en el Social Sciences Citations Index, en el Journal Citation Reports/Social Sciences Edition y en el Social Scisearch.

Catálogos Nacionales:

Catálogo del CSIC, Catálogo Colectivo de Publicaciones Periódicas de la Biblioteca Nacional. Catálogo de Publicaciones Periódicas en las Bibliotecas del CIDE, Indice Español de Ciencias Sociales, serie A, Catálogo REBIUN de las Bibliotecas Universitarias Españolas, Directorio de las Revistas de Ciencias Sociales y Humanidades del CSIC.

Catálogos Internacionales:

Catalogue Colectif Nacional Français, On line Computer Library Center, de USA, The British Library Current Serials Received, The Serials Directory EBSCO Pub., European Reference Index for the Humanities, Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory, Bulletin Signaletique (Francia), Copac, Sudoc, Contents Pages in Education (Inglaterra), INIST (Institut de l'Information Scientifique et Technique) de Francia, ZOB (Alemania) etc.

Suscripción:

La suscripción a la revista puede hacerse escogiendo cualquier modalidad de pago, incluido el uso de tarietas de crédito, v siempre mediante carta o e-mail a la administración (rep@unir.net) de la revista española de pedagogía.

El costo de la suscripción es diverso para suscriptores institucionales e individuales. de modo que sea más equitativo para quienes reciben la revista para su uso personal.

Precio de suscripción anual de la edición española impresa:

- a) Para personas jurídicas: España 70 euros Resto del mundo 85 euros
- b) Para personas físicas en uso individual: España 50 euros Resto del mundo 65 euros

Precio de suscripción anual para la web (solo online: español + inglés):

- a) Para personas jurídicas: 200 euros
- b) Para personas físicas en uso individual: 90 euros

Precio de suscripción anual para impreso (en español) + online (español e inglés):

- a) Para personas jurídicas: España 230 euros Resto del mundo 242 euros
- b) Para personas físicas en uso individual: España 120 euros Resto del mundo 135 euros

Número suelto de la edición española impresa: España 25 euros Resto del mundo 30 euros

(IVA incluido en todos los precios).

Colaboran en el sostenimiento económico de la revista española de pedagogía la Facultad de Ciencias de la Educación de la Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia. la Facultad de Educación de la Universidad Complutense de Madrid, la Facultad de Filosofía y Letras de la Universidad de Navarra, la Facultad de Pedagogía de la Universidad de Barcelona, el Departamento de Ciencias de la Educación de la Universidad de Islas Baleares, el Departamento de Educación Comparada e Historia de la Educación de la Universidad de Valencia y el Departamento de Teoría de la Educación de la Universidad de Valencia.

