THE FOOTBALL STADIUM AS CLASSROOM

EXPLORING A PROGRAM FOR AT-RISK STUDENTS IN SECONDARY VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

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Chapter 1. Introduction and problem statement

This chapter forms the general introduction to the study described in this dissertation. The section starts with a description of the origins of the study. Next, the concepts that underpin this study are briefly presented, followed by the context and the aim of the study. Then the research questions that guided this study are introduced followed by a description of the research approach and the research methods. The chapter concludes with the outline of the dissertation.

1.1 Origins of the study

The motive for the study originates from a problem known worldwide as dropping out of school or early school leaving, which concerns youngsters who leave school before graduation. The literature has provided evidence for the negative consequences of school dropout for adolescents (De Witte, Cabus, Thyssen, Goot, & Van den Brink, 2013; Rumberger, 1995; 2001), for example for their chances of employment (Brekke, 2014; Oreopoulos, 2007) and for their health (Esch et al., 2014; Freudenberg & Ruglis, 2007). Furthermore, dropouts are more vulnerable for addiction to alcohol and drugs (Lynsky & Hall, 2000; Townsend, Flisher, & King, 2007), criminality (Webbink, Koning, Vujić, & Martin, 2012) and delinquency (Henry, Knight, & Thornberry, 2012), and they experience less well-being and happiness in their lives (Oreopoulos, 2007). Thus, school dropout is considered to be a serious problem, not only for youngsters and their families but also for society as a whole.

The members of the European Union formulated an ambitious plan to reduce European dropout numbers in their 'Lisbon 2000' policy by defining targets in this area. More recently, this topic was also included in the 'Europe 2020' policy, which targeted a decrease in the dropout rate to less than 10% in 2020. In line with these targets, in 2002, the Dutch government introduced a dropout prevention policy called 'Fighting school dropout' (in Dutch: Aanval op de school uitval), which included policy measures for all levels of the educational system that aimed at prevention and support for youth. In the Netherlands, school dropout involves young people under 23 who are not in school and do not have at least a secondary vocational education level-2 (in Dutch: mbo-2), general secondary education (in Dutch: havo) or pre-university education diploma (in Dutch: vwo).

Recent research has shown that in the Netherlands dropout numbers have decreased by 5.5% in the past decade (Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, 2017). This indicates that the

before-mentioned national prevention policy has led to interventions from which students benefited, as more of them are obtaining a diploma. The work by Cabus (2012) and De Witte and Cabus (2013) provides an evaluation of the Dutch dropout prevention policy in which they point out that interventions aimed at monitoring truancy, smooth school transitions and job orientation have led to a decrease in dropout numbers. These studies at the macro level together with decreasing dropout numbers have provided useful insights in the overall effectiveness of the prevention policy, but also evoke questions about how this impact has been realized in practice at the meso and the micro level, and why students benefit from it. In order to expand the research-based knowledge about effective dropout prevention, this study investigated in depth one intervention that was implemented in four programs, a project for students at risk of dropping out that was developed with and within four schools for secondary vocational education (SVE; in Dutch: mbo). In-depth research on this implemented intervention may provide information that can help address these remaining questions, in order to better identify, understand and explain why interventions are perceived by teachers and students as effective, how and why they contribute to dropout prevention as well what characteristics are necessary to realize effectiveness in practice.

The project that forms the nucleus of this dissertation started in 2011 as result of a trip to London, when teachers and managers from four Dutch SVE schools visited a program for primary school children. This program, called *Playing for Success*, is aimed at children 9-14 years old, who are labeled as underachievers due to their social and emotional problems. Children in the program work on school tasks (mathematics, English and ICT) in an attractive out-of-school sports context that is considered to be appealing for the children. The tasks are interwoven with the sports context, for example, interviewing a football player or computing the number of seats in the stadium. The program has a strong emphasis on improving children's attitudes and motivation for learning in order to contribute to meeting educational standards (Sharp, Chamberlain, Morrison, & Filmer-Sankey, 2007; Sharp, Schagen, & Scott, 2004). The *Playing for Success* program for primary school children is currently implemented all over the United Kingdom in different sports contexts, including soccer, rugby, cricket and basketball (http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk). In the Netherlands, more than twenty *Playing for Success* centers for primary school children have also been opened in sports contexts such as soccer and basketball and cultural contexts such as theatres (www.playingforsucces.nl)

The teachers and the managers were inspired by the United Kingdom *Playing for Success* program and assumed the program could be adapted and implemented for older youth. They expected the sports context to be especially inspiring for youth who struggled at school with their motivation and engagement. This assumption is not totally new and is also supported by research pointing out the positive role of sports for social and emotional learning and for re-engaging youth (Bailey, 2005; Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2009; Sandford, Armour, & Warmington, 2006). However the effectiveness of social and emotional development through sports is highly dependent on the context (Hartmann, 2003; Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011). The teachers and the managers of the schools formed a project group, wrote a project plan, and obtained a grant from the government for the project.

The project target group was defined as students who are struggling at school or maybe were already labeled as unmotivated, disengaged, dropout or NEET (Not in Education Employment of Training). The project, *Playing for Success 15-23*, resulted in four programs at four different SVE schools. All the four programs were developed and implemented based on the same principles:

1) The programs had to focus on social and emotional learning.
2) The programs had to be learner-centered.
3) The programs had to include sports as a vehicle for learning.
4) The programs had to include job orientation and (peer) coaching.
5) The programs had to be carried out in a sports stadium or sports arena.
6) The programs had to last for 8-10 weeks.

1.2 Conceptual framework

Key to his study are the following four theoretical concepts: programs for students at risk, program sustainability, students at risk, and students' motivation and engagement.

1.2.1 Programs for students at risk

Following Van den Akker (2003), the four implemented programs in SVE can be considered as curricula intended for students at risk. A curriculum includes curricular components that are presented in the "curricular spider's web" (sic, p.6). The spider's web provides a framework that not only includes the rationale for a curriculum addressing objectives, aims, learning activities, learning content, materials, and assessment but also considers group composition, teachers' role, time, and the physical location, which in these programs is a sports stadium or arena. In particular the components of group composition, teachers' role,

and location are relevant for the present study, based on the research by Sharp et al. (2004, 2007).

For curricular research, it is important to keep in mind that curricula can be presented in five different forms (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009; Van den Akker, 2003). The first form is the *intended curriculum,* which includes the ideal curriculum expressing the vision and philosophy underlying the curriculum. The intended curriculum also includes the formal or written curriculum, which refers to intentions described in curricular documents and materials. Another form or representation is the *implemented curriculum*, which addresses the curriculum as interpreted and understood by its users, especially teachers (perceived curriculum), and the actual process of teaching and learning (enacted curriculum). A third for or representation is called the *attained curriculum* and addresses the students' perspective on the curriculum or program (experiential curriculum) as well as resulting learning outcomes (learned curriculum). In this study, we investigated the ideal, the formal curriculum, the perceived and experiential curriculum.

Nieveen (1999, 2009) poses that the quality of curricula can be evaluated using four criteria: relevance, consistency, practicality, and effectiveness. Relevance addresses the need for the curriculum (why it is considered necessary), in particular from perspective of potential users and the scientific knowledge base. Consistency applies to the logical structure and cohesiveness of a curriculum. Practicality includes the expected usability of a curriculum in the context for which it has been developed as well as actual usability in practice (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009). Effectiveness includes, on the one hand, the expectation that the implemented curriculum will lead to the desired outcomes, and on the other hand, the actual observed outcomes of the curriculum.

Quality criteria build on each other (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009). In addition to the criteria provided by Nieveen (1999, 2009) we used a fifth criterion: sustainability of the use and effectiveness of the curriculum.

1.2.2 Program sustainability

Innovative programs for youth have been developed and researched all over the world (Mawn et al., 2017), and although these programs have different aims, goals and characteristics, they all face the challenge of long-term sustainability. Programs often have problems implementing innovative ideas in existing contexts. Rogers (2003) posed that sustainability is a process of institutionalization in which the innovation must be spread over the organization. The development of sustainable innovative programs in education almost automatically

includes learning and development for teachers, because there cannot be curriculum development without teacher development (Stenhouse, 1975) and school development (Diephuis, 2017). Following Crossan, Lane and White (1999) and Rikkerink, Verbeeten, Simons and Ritzen, (2016) we suppose that program sustainability indeed depends on the learning capacity of the organization and the people who work in that organization, and we chose the Integrated Model for Sustainable Innovation (IMSI; Rikkerink et al., 2016) to guide the research on sustainability of the four programs (see chapter 5).

1.2.3 Students at risk

In this study students at risk play a central role; the concept of student at risk may evoke the question: students at risk of what? The simple answer seems here to be at risk of dropping out. Yet, dropping out is neither a moment, nor a one-shot decision. Dropping out is considered to be a process or negative spiral characterized by disconnection and withdrawal from school, ending up in the final decision to quit school (Finn, 1989). Students at risk can be seen as students who are present in the school system but experience (the start of) that negative spiral, expressed by unmotivated or disengaged behavior, truancy and inappropriate classroom behavior such as resistance and passivity (De Witte & Csillag, 2014; Markussen, Frøseth, & Sandberg, 2011; Rumberger, 1995). In our study, the concept of at-risk students is synonymous with disengaged students and being at risk is considered to be an outcome of a progressive and cumulative process of disengagement with school that presents as a negative attitude towards school (Appleton, Christenson, & Furlong, 2008; Finn, 1989).
Another question that needs to be answered is how these students get into the negative process of disengagement that enhances the risk of dropping out, the more so because all children more or less seem to have an inborn motivation for learning and development (Deci & Ryan, 1985). A lot of research has been done on this topic (see De Witte et al., 2013), aimed at determination of risk- factors that are linked to either the students' personal character (such as physical and psychological health), his or her personal environment (such as family composition or neighborhood) or the school (such as policy or school climate) (Alexander, Entwisle, & Kabbani, 2001; Lee & Burkham, 2003; Markussen et al., 2011; Rumberger, 2001, 2004). The general idea is that risk factors are cumulative, meaning that the more risk factors apply to the student, the more likely he or she will drop-out. In addition, the literature has also provided evidence for factors that support students in their engagement and motivation and can therefore counterbalance the risk factors (Lagana, 2004; Mahoney & Cairns, 1997).

The term ‘risk factor’ can be interpreted as meaning more or less fixed factors that can apply to someone, for example, one’s neighborhood or a physical handicap. Yet, many risk or counterbalancing factors have a dynamic and flexible character, for example, the influence of personal experiences, school achievement, peer group, relationships with teachers, and development of competencies. Therefore, the negative spiral of withdrawal does not automatically lead to dropping out, but allows students together with teachers, parents and peers to change and reverse the negative process by supporting the students’ engagement and motivation (Appleton et al., 2008).

1.2.4 Students’ motivation and engagement

Motivation for school is important for academic achievement as well as for students’ psychological well-being (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Vansteenkiste, Lens, De Witte, & Feather, 2005). In classroom practice, students’ motivation can stem from intrinsic feelings of interest, pleasure and joy or can be more externally controlled, for example by feelings of guilt and pride as well as by punishments or rewards from teachers (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Both types of motivation -intrinsic and extrinsic- may evoke learning behavior. For example, students may learn because they want to get good marks or avoid negative feedback or because they are interested in the subject matter. The intrinsic type of motivation is considered to be beneficial for student outcomes (Kusurkar, Ten Cate, Vos, Westers, & Croiset, 2013) and more resistant to periods of disappointment and failure (Ryan & Deci 2000, 2017).

Motivated students are mostly easily recognizable in classroom practice, as they show engaged behavior such as asking questions, doing homework and helping peers; the level of engaged behavior can be used as indicator for the level of motivation (Appleton et al., 2008). The concept of students’ engagement is often split into three components that have an interwoven character (Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004). The first addresses the visible behavioral engagement of students, such as classroom behavior and attitude towards teachers. The second component applies to the emotional bond students have with their school, such as identification with their school as expressed by relationships with peers and teachers (Appleton et al., 2008; Finn, 1989). The last component addresses cognitive or academic engagement, which includes learning strategies, for example, learning goals expressed by students and perceived relevance of school tasks (Appleton et al., 2008; Fredricks et al., 2004).

Teachers have a strong influence on students' engagement (Ryan & Patrick, 2001), for instance, by building up positive relationships, creating a positive classroom atmosphere and challenging students with relevant learning activities (De Witte et al., 2013). They also often fulfill the role of mentor or coach and are the first to signal personal or academic problems. Furthermore, teachers must match the program or curriculum to the world of the students (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009).

1.3 Context of the study

The context of the study is vocational education. In the Netherlands, vocational education starts in secondary education where students choose a pre-vocational track (called *vmbo* in Dutch). After pre-vocational education the student chooses a secondary vocational track (SVE, called *mbo* in Dutch), where this study was conducted. Students who enroll in SVE are 16 years old on average and stay for two, three or four years, depending on the track they choose. In the Netherlands, about 22% of the student population follows SVE that prepares students for a wide range of occupations in the Dutch labor market, from nursing assistant to mechanic or ICT manager. The SVE tracks involve four different levels and holders of level four qualification in SVE may enroll in higher education. There are two learning pathways for each SVE track: vocational training (called *BOL* in Dutch), where practical training takes up between 20 - 60% of the study time and block release (called *BBL* in Dutch), where practical training takes up more than 60% of the study time.

Vocational education and training centers (VET) that offer most of the vocational tracks in the Dutch context differ in size, but can host up to 20,000 students, including adult learners. However, in practice, most VET centers have organized their educational programs at smaller locations, for example, in different cities or through clustering the tracks per sector, such as tracks that prepare for health care, ICT, or being a technician.

The programs that form the heart of the study described in this dissertation are targeted for students at risk in SVE. Although these students are present at all levels within SVE, the research has provided evidence that most dropping out in SVE occurs at the lowest levels of SVE (levels 1 and 2) (Ministery of Education Culture and Science, 2017).

1.4 Aim of the study

Building on earlier research (Cabus 2012; De Witte & Cabus, 2013; De Witte & Csillag, 2014), the present study was conducted in order to expand the research-based knowledge about effective drop-out prevention by researching in depth one intervention, implemented in

four programs for at-risk youth that were developed with and within four SVE schools in The Netherlands. The programs were based on a program for primary school children in the United Kingdom that was aimed at enhancing motivation for learning (Sharp et al., 2004, 2007) and inspired by the ideal that sports can be used as a vehicle for social and emotional learning and re-engaging youth. Such an approach might indeed have potential (Baily, 2005; Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2009). We aim to know how the programs are implemented and enacted by teachers and students, how they think and feel about the programs and what problems they face during enactment of the programs. We chose to focus in this study on program quality operationalized by the relevance, consistency, practicality, effectiveness and sustainability of the programs and why students benefit from the programs (or not).

1.5 Research questions

The main question that directed this study was:

According to the perceptions of managers, teachers and students, what are the effective characteristics of four programs implemented for students at risk in secondary vocational education in order to decrease the drop-out rate?

In order to answer the main research question; four sub-studies were conducted in which we chose to include different program representations (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009). In study one, we focused upon the perceived program characteristics as they arose from teachers' practice (perceived and enacted curriculum). In study two, we investigated the students' perspective on the programs (enacted and experiential curriculum). For study three, we researched teachers' emotions and feelings (perceived and enacted curriculum) and in the fourth study, we examined the long-term sustainability of the programs. The first three sub-studies were conducted during the *Playing for Success 15-23* project time; the fourth study was conducted three years after the programs were implemented. All sub-studies were directed by two sub-questions.

Study 1: Perceived program characteristics

I. From the teachers' perspective and experiences, what are effective characteristics of the four enacted programs for at-risk students in secondary vocational education?
II. Based on teachers' experiences, what are effective elements when creating positive learning experiences for at-risk students in secondary vocational education?

Study 2: Students' perspective

I. How do students at risk experience support of their engagement in a program in secondary vocational education?
II. What are students' engagement levels before and after participating in the program?

Study 3: Teachers' emotions

I. What causes teachers' emotions in their work with disengaged students in secondary vocational education?
II. How do teachers' emotions relate to their perceived well-being as based on SDT and operationalized by experiences of autonomy, competence and relatedness?

Study 4: Program sustainability

I. How do characteristics of programs for at-risk students, contribute to sustainability based on how the four concepts for sustainable innovation are perceived by teachers and managers?
II. How are autonomy, competence and relatedness manifested in the concepts for sustainable innovation as perceived by teachers and managers?

1.6 Research approach and methods

The main question was answered using a multiple case study approach (Yin, 2014), meaning that four schools were approached as different cases for sub-study one (perceived program characteristics), study two (students' perspective), study three (teachers' emotions), and study four (program sustainability).

We chose a practice-based research approach, which included collaboration with teachers and managers regarding the research questions and collection of data. Before the study actually started, we went to the schools several times, in order to inform and involve teachers and managers and we also participated as an expert in the implemented programs for a couple of days. To understand how these programs were implemented in practice and how teachers and students enacted, perceived and experienced the programs within the specific context of SVE, it was important to build up relationships with the teachers and managers who participated in this study for two years. We believe that relationships and collaboration with practice benefited the research and provided the opportunity to study practices, perceptions and experiences from nearby and more in-depth.

The research methods are summarized in the next section. A more detailed description of the methods is provided in the chapters about each sub-study.

For sub-study one, concerning the perceived program characteristics, a qualitative research approach was chosen and data were collected using multi methods. Data to answer the research questions were collected from two sources. First, interviews were conducted at the four schools every ten weeks over 18 months with teachers who worked in the programs. The aim of the interviews was to identify program characteristics as perceived by teachers in practice (perceived and enacted curriculum). Furthermore, participants were asked about their personal experiences, opinions and beliefs related to the programs. In addition, documents were gathered in a continuous process during data collection. Documents were collected for information about the written programs, goals, pedagogical principles and planned learning activities (formal curriculum).

Sub-study two addressed the students' perspective on the programs (enacted and experiential curriculum) and was conducted with a mixed methods approach. For this study, interviews were conducted with students who participated in the programs at the four different schools. Students were interviewed immediately after they had finished the programs and were asked about their experiences In addition, students completed a questionnaire aimed at providing information about their engagement.

Sub-study three, which investigated teachers' feelings and emotions (perceived and enacted curriculum), consisted of a qualitative study based on interviews with teachers. Data were collected together with data for sub- study one, because the participants had a limited amount of time to spare. Interview questions focused upon sources of emotions for teachers who work in the programs. Topics of the interviews therefore addressed teachers' personal feelings, thoughts and emotions related to their work.

Sub-study four was a follow-up study focusing on the sustainability of the programs and was conducted three years after the programs were implemented. The researcher went back to the schools and visited the programs. The aim of this study was to examine their sustainability. Three of the four schools participated this follow-up study, for which a multi- method approach was chosen. Data collection consisted of interviews with teachers and program managers.

1.7 Participating schools

The four participating schools that implemented the programs are briefly described below, in terms of location, size, public/private status, pathways, levels offered, drop-out rate, student satisfaction, and mission and vision of the school. A summary of the information is presented in Table 2.

School A

This VET school has about 14,000 students enrolled in vocational tracks in eight different cities. The school is located in the Northern part of the Netherlands and is part of the public educational system. It offers a range of different vocational tracks at all levels of SVE, through the BOL as well as the BBL pathways. It had 4.2% early school leavers in 2016-2017, compared to the national average in that year of 5.2%. Students had a below-average level of satisfaction with their school, at 6.5 compared to the national average of 6.6 (scored on 10-point Likert scale). The vision and mission of this VET school is presented as *success for all students* operationalized in three themes: successful employment, successful enrollment in further education, successful participation in society. In addition, the school focuses upon *flexible workmanship*, which is expressed by four areas of focus: pedagogical relationships, practice-based learning, personal development and (inter) active learning.

School B

This public school is made up of different sub-schools, including a VET school, a pre-vocational education school and a school for elite youth sports education. The VET school has about 11,000 students at three different cities in the middle of the Netherlands and provides educational tracks at all levels, through the BOL as well as the BBL pathways. Students at this school scored their satisfaction at 6.8 compared to the national average of 6.6 in 2016. In addition, the school had fewer early school leavers than the national average (4.0% in 2016-2017, compared to 5.2% nationally).

Although the school points out that all different sub-schools have their own identity they formulated five key values that apply to all sup-schools based on the Christian tradition of the school, namely: development of talent, respect, connection, finding meaning, responsibility.

School C

School C provides public education in six different cities in the east of the Netherlands for up to 18,000 students, with vocational tracks on all levels for both the BOL and the BBL pathways. Students at this school had better-than-average level of satisfaction with their school (6.7 compared to the national average of 6.6 in 2016). In addition, school drop-out was less than average (4.0%, compared to the national average of 5.2% in 2016-2017). The school formulated three ambitions to strengthen the organization: stimulating curiosity for students as well as for employees; creating connections with society based on flexible cooperation to prepare for the future; and inspiring each other by celebrating, sharing and taking responsibility.

School D

Public school D is located in the south-west of the Netherlands. This school hosts about 9,000 students in five different cities. The students can enroll in vocational tracks at all levels and all pathways (BOL as well as BBL). The school has a 4.9% drop-out rate, compared to the national level of 5.2%. In addition, students at this school expressed average levels of satisfaction, 6.6, which is also the national average for students at VET centers.
The school has formulated its mission as being to stimulate students for optimal development. In addition, they positioned four values to direct this ambition: versatility, engagement, clearness and accessibility

Table 1.1

Overview participating VET centers

School	Number of students	Sector	Level	Pathways	Drop-out rate (national average of 5.2%)	Satisfaction of students (national average of 6.6)*	Vision/ mission
School A	14,000	Public	1,2,3,4	BOL, BBL	4.2%	6.5	Available online
School B	11,000	Public	1,2,3,4	BOL, BBL	4.0%	6.8	Available online
School C	18,000	Public	1,2,3,4	BOL, BBL	4.0%	6.7	Available online
School D	9,000	Public	1,2,3,4	BOL, BBL	4.9%	6.6	Available online

*Students scored satisfaction on a 10-point Likert scale, whereas 1 meant low satisfaction and 10 meant high satisfaction

1.8 Overview of the dissertation

This dissertation covers four sub-studies all conducted within the context of the *Playing for Success 15-23* project. The first study (chapter two) examines effective program characteristics based on teachers' perceptions and experiences. The second study (chapter three) investigates students' perspective on the program and their experiences. The third study (chapter four) is focused upon the perceived emotions and feelings of teachers who work in the program and the fourth study (chapter five) is aimed at program sustainability. Finally chapter six provides an overview of all four sub-studies, a summary of the results and reflections on the research methods and outcomes. In addition, this chapter provides recommendations for research and practice.

Chapter 2. Curriculum design for at-risk students in vocational education: A study of teachers' practice

In this chapter a study is described concerning curricular characteristics of four programs aimed at enhancing motivation and students' engagement. Teachers pointed out that for improved student engagement the curriculum must be tailored to the individual development needs. In addition, social learning had to be prioritized above academic learning. In practice, teachers facilitated the development of students' competencies in different ways, by using a combination of peer group dynamics, sports activities and job orientation. Teachers believed that students' engagement and motivation depend on their relations with peers and teachers. The teacher's role was defined as being a coach of social skills, as an expert in the use of sports activities to develop students' competencies, and as a group manager, being able to create a positive peer group climate. Furthermore three important cornerstones for positive learning were determined.

2.1 Introduction

Students leaving school without a basic qualification has been a problem over the past few decades (Lamb, Markussen, Teese, Sandberg, & Polesel, 2011). Leaving school without a diploma causes problems from a personal perspective, for example, in finding a job (Brekke, 2014), and experiencing poor health (Oreopoulos, 2007). Moreover, drop-outs frequently become involved in criminal activities (Webbink et al., 2012). In The Netherlands, early school leaving occurs in all types of education, but most frequently in secondary vocational education, especially in the initial years and during school transitions (Ritzen, 2008; Elffers, 2011; Ministry of Education, Culture & Science, 2017). Therefore, schools for vocational education are encouraged by the government to develop policy measures to prevent school drop-out. However, a hard core of approximately 22,000 students simply lacks the ability to achieve certification at the required level (Ministry of Education, Culture & Science, 2017).

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These students generally seem to be somewhat “immune” to the measures taken up till now. Most of them have a “multi-problem” background, mainly characterized by the low social-economic status of their families, inadequate language and mathematical proficiency, low self-esteem and greater than average involvement in peer-group criminality.
To achieve the policy measures set by the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture & Science, i.e. providing more students with a basic vocational qualification, innovative and effective approaches to tackle this problem must be researched, developed and implemented.
Teachers of secondary vocational educational institutions (VET) in four cities in The Netherlands are cooperating in developing a curriculum for at-risk students. The schools are part of a project called “*Playing for Success 15-23*”, which was launched as an early school leaver program inspired by the United Kingdom “*Playing for success*” concept. The innovative characteristic of this curriculum is the cooperation with professional sports organizations, such as a professional soccer club. In this program, at-risk students are assigned to a ten-week curriculum held in a professional environment such as a soccer stadium or top sports arena. The goal of this cooperation is to motivate and engage at-risk students and to develop on a regional level training opportunity especially for this group. The aim of this study is to examine whether drop-out prevention, now typically located in a regular ‘bricks and mortar’ school environment, can be extended to a soccer stadium or top sports arena and to examine whether a professional, appealing environment with well-known sportspeople and a curriculum with many "binding" learning experiences reinforces the success of the program.” We assume that teacher impact really matters (Hattie, 2003; Timperley & Alton-Lee, 2008) and therefore we focus on teachers’ views on effective drop-out prevention and teachers’ pedagogical-didactical strategies for creating positive and motivating learning experiences for at-risk students.

2.2 Theoretical framework

2.2.1 Students at risk

In the past decades, much research has been conducted to understand the complex phenomenon of school drop-out, yielding a list of explanatory risk factors that are derived from comparison of student groups that have dropped out with groups that remained in school (Rumberger, 1995, 2001). These risk factors influence students’ behavior, beliefs and attitudes over a long time, ultimately leading to dropping out. Early school leaving is understood to be the final step in a process of disengagement that originates in early childhood, long before the moment the student decides to quit school (Finn, 1989). Generally

dropping out is presented as a function of individual student risk factors (Lee & Burkham, 2003), like, for example the statistical likelihood of dropping out. These factors are mostly seen as an aggregate and students with a sufficient number of the specified characteristics are ranked as 'high drop-out risk'. In recent studies, more attention has been paid to risk factors at the school level, rather than the level of the individual students. Lee and Burkham (2003) stated that dropping out can also be explained by school-related factors that include school structure and academic school organization. Teachers have been identified as the strongest school-related factor, in how they foster positive learning experiences and support students and build teacher-student relationships (De Witte & Cabus, 2013; Elffers, 2012a; Schuchart, 2013; Wentzel & Wigfield, 2007) and good teacher-student relations are characterized as supportive (Pyle &Wexler, 2012) and caring (Cassidy & Bates, 2005; Newberry, 2010). Positive teacher-student relationships have been determined to have a variety of beneficial effects, such as higher student engagement (Ryan & Patrick, 2001), motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and academic achievement levels (Martin & Dowson, 2009). Van Houtte and Demanet (2016) argued that positive expectations from teachers have a positive impact on at-risk students, while in the work of Pyle and Wexler (2012) teachers are positioned as advocates who 'can implement academic and behavioral support in a school climate' (p. 287). Rumberger (2001) suggested that positive teacher-student relationships aim at building up social capital in school context, which is positively related to students' connection with school (Cemalcilar & Gökşen, 2014). Ryan and Deci (2000) argued that motivation is related to the social conditions in which students develop and function; besides competence and autonomy, they also distinguished relatedness as a basic psychological need for proactive and motivated behavior, emphasizing the importance of supportive relationships for positive learning experiences.

However, in teachers' practice, building up a positive relationship with disconnected students might be hampered by the behavioral patterns of these students, involving truancy, lack of discipline and motivation (De Witte & Csillag, 2014; Markussen et al., 2011). Moreover, certain aspects of the school organization, such as the sheer size (in the Dutch context, VET school have an average of 7.350 students) and large classes, are not beneficial for building positive relationships between students and teachers and may be e threat for positive learning experiences. The teacher executes a teaching program aimed primarily on getting students to achieve the academic goals. At the same time teachers are expected to try to build supporting relationships.

2.2.2 Curriculum for at-risk students

A curriculum has the potential to be the framework containing incentives for a positive influence on students, allowing students to experience the value of the curriculum for their personal lives and engagement (Elffers, Oort, & Karsten, 2012; Fashola & Slavin, 2009; Keller, 2010; Waldrip et al., 2014). Teachers have the challenging task of operationalizing the curriculum and translating its goals to the world of the student, making the connection between curricular activities and students' needs (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009). Elffers et al. (2012a) pointed out the importance of the curricular fit for students' engagement and particularly students' emotional engagement. Van den Akker (2003) provided a framework (Figure 2.1), which represents how a curriculum is not only composed of learning content, learning activity and curricular objectives, but also can include other components equally important for fulfilling the raison d'être of the curriculum, such as the role of the teacher, group composition, and physical environment. The present study focuses on a curriculum that was especially designed for students at risk. In earlier research a comparable program was studied by Montgomery and Hirth (2011) who posed curricular assumptions for such a program. In the first place the teachers' role can be identified as 'relationship builder', which 'is a difficult task and cannot be performed by all teachers' (p. 259). Furthermore, the curricular goals should include learning life skills, as at-risk students often lack generally accepted social skills, such as appropriate classroom behavior, showing respect towards others and being able to resolve conflicts before getting out of hand (Zwaans, Van der Veen, Volman, & Ten Dam, 2007). The lack of these social competencies reduces their chance of having positive learning experiences in school, these students will receive more negative feedback and will have more conflicts with teachers and peers. The curriculum must offer an opportunity for students to positively connect with school; the sense of belonging and engagement supports students' achievement and motivation (Elffers et al., 2012a; Keller, 2010). In the work of Rumberger (2001) and of Fashola and Slavin (2009), the curricular characteristic of 'grouping' was discussed in connection with the student-teacher ratio: programs have more positive effects with smaller groups of students. Wentzel and Wigfield (2007) showed a central role for social relationships in interventions for at-risk students; they also posed that 'more specification is needed to identify the precise way supportive teachers affects students' (p. 267). The work of Ryan (2000) focuses on the role of peers in students' motivation, underlining that social relationships at school include not only teachers and students, but also peers.

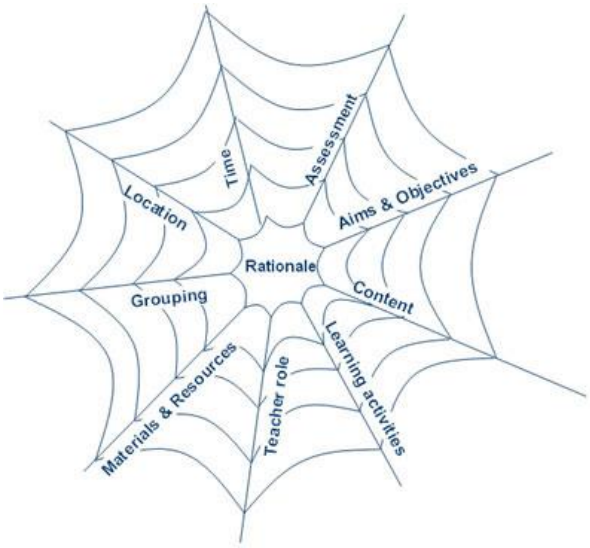

Figure 2.1. Curricular components expressed in a curricular spider web. (Van den Akker, Kuiper, & Hameyer (2003, p. 6).

Enacting a curriculum intended for at-risk students means creating positive learning experiences in the first place, and has two principal dimensions. The first is to align learning objectives and content with the student in such a way that it becomes attractive for them to engage in it. Secondly, attention should be paid to the possibility for students to build positive relationships with both teachers and peers. To explore how teachers create positive learning experiences in practice, this study investigates four executed curricula for at-risk students. The research is focused on teachers' perspectives regarding the curriculum as they arise from the teachers' practice in order to identify key curriculum characteristics and elements that contribute to the creation of positive learning experiences. Based on the theoretical framework as our basis we arrive at the following research questions:

1. From the teachers' perspective and experiences, what are effective characteristics of the four enacted programs for at-risk students in secondary vocational education?
2. Based on teachers' experiences, what are effective elements when creating positive learning experiences for at-risk students in secondary vocational education?

2.3 Methods

2.3.1 Data collection

In order to answer the research questions, the present study provides an in-depth description of the characteristics of four curricula. The curricula were described using multiple methods and two main data sources were used: written documents and focus group interviews. The collection of documents, usually on demand, has been a continuous process during the 18

months of data gathering. The document set covers a wide range: promotional materials, project plans, learning materials, school research reports and notes from meetings and evaluations. With the focus on teachers' practice in mind, only documents provided by teachers working with the curriculum have been included. No further prescriptions were given regarding the documents, in order to collect as much documents as possible including different types of documents.

Semi structured focus group interviews were planned in a ten week cycles, meaning that the same group of teachers was interviewed more than once. The aim of the interviews was to identify the teachers' attitudes and beliefs about working with at-risk students in this curriculum. And the emphasis was on the identification of the curriculum characteristics in practice. They were explicitly asked about personal experiences of success in practice and about personal beliefs related to working with at-risk students in the program. For in depth data collection teachers were followed 18 months and interviewed every ten weeks. Each interview took about an hour. In preparation for the interviews, teachers were informed about goal and content of the interview questions, and were asked to give permission for anonymous use of the information in the research. A total of thirteen interviews were held.

2.3.2 Participants

Selection of the cases and participants hasn't been random; the participating schools were connected to the study through a nationwide project for students at risk in VET called *'Playing for Success'*. They are situated in four different cities in the Netherlands being the only schools in the Dutch VET system to implement these 8-10 week curricula aimed at at-risk students. During the two-year period, 6-8 different groups of students participated in each curriculum, according to the school timetable. Three curricula were stand-alone in which students participated full-time, not visiting other regular school curricular activities. One curriculum was supplementary to the regular school curriculum. The groups involved had a maximum size of 15 students and at least 2 teachers. As said above principal aim of the curricula was to motivate and engage students using a sports location, such as a professional soccer stadium or a sports arena.

The schools selected the teachers, who were going to participate in this study. The focus groups were formed from teachers who enacted the curriculum at their school, resulting in three groups of four teachers and in one school a group of two teachers. The participating teachers had different backgrounds and varied in teaching experience; for an overview of participants' characteristics see Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

Overview of participants' characteristics

	Gender	**Age (years)**	**Experience (years)**	**Background**
School A	Female	> 50	> 15	VET
	Male	30—40	5—15	Social work
	Male	20—30	< 5	Social work
	Male	30—40	5—15	Social work
School B	Female	30—40	< 5	VET
	Female	20—30	< 5	Social work
	Male	20—30	< 5	Job coach
	Female	40—50	5—15	SE
School C	Male	> 50	> 15	VET
	Male	30—40	5—15	SE
School D	Male	40—50	> 15	SE
	Female	30—40	> 15	SE
	Female	30—40	> 15	SE
	Female	30—40	5—15	SE

*Note: SE = Special education, VET = Vocational Education Institute

2.3.3 Data analysis

After collecting the data, the researcher went through a series of steps: preparing data for qualitative analysis, analyzing data and representing data. First all documents containing private or personal information were anonymized. A total of 37 documents were analyzed to obtain information about curricular characteristics (research question 1).

A total of 16 interviews were transcribed and anonymized. Data processing and analysis were performed based on the steps defined in the Qualitative Analysis Guide of Leuven (QUAGOL) developed by Dierckx de Casterlé, Gastmans, Bryon and Denier (2012), which offers a comprehensive method to guide the process of qualitative data analysis. The QUAGOL method provides a coding scheme for the actual coding process; the codes are not mutually exclusive, so that it was possible for data to be labeled with more than one code. Reliability of this analysis was checked first by discussing the code scheme with a colleague researcher experienced in qualitative research methods and with knowledge of the topic of at-risk students, yielding clarification of codes. After that data were coded by the head researcher and 10% of the data was coded independently by the second researcher. The

comparison of their assigned codes yielded a Cohen's kappa of .910. All themes have been analyzed to identify the teachers' perspective on effective elements of the curriculum (research question 1). "Effective" was to be understood as "contributing positively to the main purpose of the curriculum", that is, to engage and motivate students. After that it was analyzed how, according to teachers, the curricular characteristics contributed to positive learning experiences (research question 2).
For verification the results were presented to the participating teachers and after this member check no adjustments were needed. The presentation of the results has been formatted according to the curricular framework of Van den Akker (2003).

2.4 Results

To answer research question one both interviews and documents provided insight into teachers' perspectives regarding the components of the curricular framework (Figure 2.1). Teachers identified five curricular components as important in their work with at-risk students: 1) curriculum goals; 2) curriculum content; 3) learning activities; 4) the role of the teacher, and 5) the location. One additional component (not presented in Figure 2.1) that has been identified by the teachers was: 6) the role of peers. Teachers' perspectives on these curricular components are described below.

2.4.1 Curricular goals

The main aim or rationale of this curriculum that was stated by teachers is the development of students' competencies. Teachers stressed the importance of adapting curricular activities to the needs of the individual student. This has been put into practice by applying individual learning trajectories, with individual learning goals and learning activities, resulting in differentiated learning outcomes for every student. Students have been explicitly encouraged by teachers to formulate their learning goals, in terms of the competencies to be developed. These in turn were adapted by the teachers in curricular activities regarding the questions, struggles or needs of the students. Learning goals turned out to be mostly focused on social competencies and life skills, such as making contact, the attitude towards others, handling feedback, communication, resolving arguments. Teachers consistently emphasized that the curricular aim was not about enhancing academic success rates, but that they wanted to focus on development of students' individual social competencies.

2.4.2 Curricular content, activities and peer group

Teachers from the four schools had different ways of operationalizing learning activities and learning content in practice, as well as the role of the peer group. These components and their operationalization by teachers from the different schools are described and analyzed below. For clearness information is organized separately for every school. To facilitate interpretation of the results a brief description of the curriculum for every school is presented in Table 2.2.

2.4.3 Curricular components: Learning goals, and learning activities

Teachers at school A used the peer group to set up a positive environment; learning activities were aimed at meeting each other and having fun, sports activities were seen by teachers as optimal for teambuilding. Students' learning was focused on personal development by learning from each other's stories: "*We have to build a safe environment and make sure that students can trust each other; then students will share their problems and learn from each other*". In the peer group, students were prompted to help and correct one another, to share their (life) stories and recognize each other's problems, give advice or offer help. Learning goals at school A were focused around individual social competencies that students need at school: "*If we want students to fit into the school system, they have to learn what kind of behavior is required in that system*". Peer group dynamics were used to practice social behavior and to determine students' individual competencies regarding their social behavior: "*Students often are surprised by the compliments they get from their peers, they have unrealistically negative self-images*". Teachers at school A perceived that peers are indispensable in helping at-risk students to continue at school, especially when times get rough.

In summary, teachers at school A centered mainly on development of social competencies by creating a positive and stimulating learning environment with help of peers. They supposed that peer group involvement highly enhances students' engagement, as "S*tudents feel they have to do this together*".

School B

Teachers at school B focused on creating an inspiring environment for students: "S*tudents often are tired and unmotivated when they start here, we try to create a new positive flow*". Teachers added exciting activities to the curriculum, such as sports activities yet unfamiliar to the students like mountain biking or free running: "W*e have a lot of sports activities in the curriculum, students are introduced to new sports skills and offered workshops by top sports*

athletes". In addition, teachers pointed out that the location, which was a well-known professional soccer stadium, was instrumental in creating an inspiring environment: "*Students have to be away from the school building to get inspired, this stadium is the perfect location therefore*".

Students' learning goals were aimed at the development of competencies connected to the labor market (such as presenting one-self, reflecting on one's own capabilities, handling feedback and communication skills): "W*e try to help students develop competencies they need to succeed in their future employment*". This was operationalized through individual job orientation, by offering an internship in the sector of the student's personal interest combined with intensive job coaching, where teachers visited and coached the students frequently during their internship. Peer coaching was used to help develop students' employee competencies: "W*e challenge students to identify each other's competencies and match it to a job"*.

In summary, teachers a school B supposed that students can be supported by creating an inspiring and exciting learning environment, together with job orientation and development of students' employee competencies.

School C

Teachers at school C focused on sports activities as the key activity for students' development: "*In sports you run into competencies you use in everyday life; it is important to find out how you react to difficult or even frightening tasks, you can learn from that*".

Teachers challenged students to develop competencies which are important for a positive attitude towards learning and positive classroom behavior such as asking for help, bringing up the motivation for difficult tasks, taking an interest in others, reflecting and creating strategies for problem-solving.

Development of students' competencies was interwoven with sports activities: *"We choose sport activities that ask for more than just the sports skill, we ask for teamwork, creativity, problem-solving, persistence and communication*". Students were coached and encouraged to extend lessons learned in sports to school situations (for example, when is persistence in normal school life important or how do you approach a difficult school task) in order to transfer the learning gain: "W*e see disengaged behavior in sports activities, this is exactly the kind of behavior that students also show at school; we ask them to reflect on it (…) they often are alarmed by their own attitude*". Teachers at this school emphasized that supportive peers are important for a positive learning environment. Students can also help each other by

providing feedback and asking questions. According to teachers, this peer feedback will enhance understanding of the student's own attitude and behavior and how this affects others: "*We ask students to reflect on each other's actions. I think that feedback from peers is more important for them than my feedback*".

In summary, teachers at school C focused on sports activities as instrumental for students' development and the transfer of learning gain in the sports context to school situations.

School D

Teachers at school D connected students' development to sports activities and the sports environment, in this case a top sports arena: *"Sports and this sports location is our chosen instrument to reach the learning goals*". In this curriculum, students' competencies were trained in sports activities: "*If we know a student has problems with authority we organize sports activities to practice with that".* According to teachers, the location was important owing to the variety in opportunities of sports activities and the stimulating sports climate that could be felt in the building (everyone was busy doing sports, including professional sports). Teachers in this curriculum supposed that learning in the sports context was most beneficial for social-emotional goals such as enhancing self-confidence, decreasing behavioral problems and making friends. According to teachers, students need their peers to learn social skills: "*Students need each other to achieve their goals. If you want to learn how to make friends, peers are essential and a compliment from a peer is more valued than a compliment from a teacher*".

In summary, for the operationalization of students' development teachers of school D used sports as an instrument for learning and practicing social competencies.

Table 2.2

Brief description of the curriculum per school

	Short summary of the curriculum
School A	Target group consists of students who have dropped out of school, main aim of the curriculum was to develop students' social competences and self-confidence in order to motivate them to go to school and enhance engagement. Students were offered sports activities, (peer) coaching and job orientation. If necessary, students also participated in health care or social care institutions.
School B	Target group consists of students with study choice problems. Main aim of the curriculum was orientation to the labor market and preparing students for working as employee. Students followed internship with job coaching and were offered sports activities and lessons on employee skills (such as self-discipline, providing feedback, solving conflicts and presenting one-self).
School C	Target group consists of students who lack basic school competences, such as persistence, planning and asking questions. Students were offered sports activities, coaching and the general school tasks in math and language. Main aim of the curriculum was to develop students' social competences (showing respect, listening to each other, presenting one-self, asking for help) and to motivate them for school.
School D	Target group consists of students who have shown risk behavior during their vocational track (such as conflicts, loneliness, truancy or resistance towards school). Students were offered social skill training (handling feedback, making contact, presenting one self and solving conflicts), sports activities, and (individual) coaching. Main aim of the curriculum was decreasing risk behavior and enhancing positive feelings such as confidence and engagement with their vocational track.

2.4.4 Curricular components: Teachers' role and location

Teachers working in this curriculum see their own role as being a coach and pointed out that coaching at-risk students means challenging students to make their own decisions and taking responsibility for these choices: *"If you start telling them what to do, you better go home. That will not work. These students want to make their own decisions and they are tired of getting good advice*". According to the teachers, coaching in this way requires equality between teacher and student, which means in practice that teachers put a lot of effort into building a personal relationship with students. Teachers asserted that this relationship asks for

very personal contact with students, including discussion of personal feelings and experiences, which they take into account in the curriculum: *"Yes, students know a lot about me, but that is necessary, I ask them to share difficulties with me, you would not do that with a total stranger, would you*". Teachers emphasized that it took a lot of courage to work on a basis of equality: "S*ometimes it felt difficult to share my opinions with my students, I was scared I would lose my position as leader of this class".* Teachers were convinced that this personal approach was the best (if not the only) way to achieve effective learning with at-risk students. In addition, they expressed that working in this personal way with students, calls for experienced and strong teachers with a lot of self-confidence.

Furthermore, teachers emphasized the role of being a specialist at creating learning activities, specifically in sports: "*Most learning experiences arise all of a sudden, at that moment you have to make explicit for students what they can learn from it*". Teachers also highlighted the transfer of learning outcomes achieved in sports activities to normal (school) life, for which teachers must know exactly what can be learned in sports and how this may benefit normal life.

According to teachers, peers-interaction is one of the most meaningful aspects of the curriculum. Therefore teachers have to be experts in group management, and they must be able to re-direct negative peer group influences. Teachers agreed about the importance of the positive climate, but they also pointed out that this is a challenging task for them*: "A positive climate never arises without effort, these are kids who have negative experiences with peers and teachers, you have to show that things can change and we as teachers have to work hard for it*". Teachers considered that for most regular teachers, additional training is necessary to be able to create a positive peer group atmosphere while working with these at- risk students.

In summary, teachers perceived their role as being a coach, an expert on learning activities in sports and a skillful group manager. According to them, it was important to be able to switch easily between these role

2.4.5 Positive learning experiences

Research question two focused on the teachers' practices during curriculum execution to create positive learning experiences. According to teachers, the most important condition for positive learning was a supportive relationship with students and between students. Teachers emphasized equality in this relationship between teachers and students, which was operationalized by a non-directive coaching style. The coaching included evaluation of the learning process together with students, not assessing but reflecting about their learning

process. In this regard, teachers addressed students' personal feelings and interests (for example, did the student experience success during a task and why). They also shared their own perspectives on the process (for example, what was the teachers' perspective on students' attitude towards peers during the task). Another tool for creating a positive relationship was humor. Teachers frequently emphasized the importance of humor, making jokes, and having a natural, friendly and cheerful attitude towards students: "*Students are often surprised that we laugh so much, they say that we are a little crazy*". Teachers used these elements to build positive relations and to reduce students' stress levels in order to evoke happiness and feelings of joy: "*We want to create a positive environment, so we laugh, we make fun and we make them feel happy, that costs no extra money, it is just a way of approaching*". Humor enhances positive communicating and benefits engagement; according to the teachers, laughing and having fun was one of the most important ways to make students more open and accessible for a relationship.

Teachers preferred students coming from different school levels, with different interests and experiences, because this variety contributed to the effectiveness of peer coaching and peer feedback. Students learned from listening to different points of view and have the opportunity to make new friends among unknown peers. According to the teachers, relationships with peers should have a positive and supportive character (for example, peer coaching can contain to solutions for a problem, sharing feelings and discussing difficult situations). Teachers emphasized that group size matters for effective peer feedback and peer coaching; they recommended a teacher to student ratio of 1:8.

The second condition for positive learning experiences was the match between students' needs and the curriculum. In this curriculum, teachers pursuit this match in several ways.

First of all they aimed at the adaptation of curriculum goals, namely adapting content and activities to students' individual needs and interests, making the curriculum relevant for them and motivating. One strategy teachers used was to engage the students in defining their learning goals. As described, sports activities were used in this curriculum to create new and inspiring learning experiences in which students engage because of fun and interest (for example, through unfamiliar sports as wall climbing, or a basketball clinic from a professional basketball player). Another way of building a bridge between student and curriculum was the use of an interesting location, like a sports stadium or arena. Although all teachers agreed that the sports context was probably not the only option, they stated that this curriculum cannot as

successfully be enacted in the school building. The location evokes interest in students and makes them curious, which is a prerequisite for engagement in the first place. As one teacher said: "*They come for the stadium, but they stay for the curriculum and their peers*". Moreover, the location reduces stress for students who have built up resistance towards school and teachers, and the first step in changing their disengaged attitude was to be out of the school building in a different, interesting context.

2.5 Conclusion

This study has been focused on teachers' educational practice with at-risk students in secondary vocational education. Our first question was aimed at teachers' perspectives regarding effective characteristics of a curriculum aimed at enhancing at-risk students' motivation and engagement. Teachers pointed out that for improved student engagement the curriculum must be tailored to the individual development needs. In addition they asserted that social learning had to be prioritized above academic learning. In practice, teachers facilitated the development of students' competencies in different ways, by using a combination of peer group dynamics, sports activities and job orientation. Teachers believed that students' engagement and motivation depend on their relations with peers and teachers. The teacher's role was defined as being a coach of social skills, as an expert in the use of sports activities to develop students' competencies, and as a group manager, being able to create a positive peer group climate.

The second research question addressed teachers' practices regarding positive learning experiences to students. Teachers in this study emphasized the indispensable contribution of positive learning experiences on students' engagement and motivation. Three important cornerstones for positive learning were mentioned: (1) equality in the relationship between student and teacher, operationalized in practice by non-directive coaching, sharing personal stories and humor; (2) positive relations between peers, operationalized by peer group coaching and peer feedback; and (3) a match between the curriculum and the students by the adaptation of learning activities, learning content and learning goals to students' individual needs, engaging students in goal-setting, attractive sports activities and on a location outside the school building.

2.6 Discussion

In this study, key characteristics of a curriculum in secondary vocational education were explored based on teachers' practical experiences. The curriculum was implemented for students who showed disengaged and unmotivated behavior and who were at risk of dropping out of the school system. Ryan and Deci (2000) posed that students' development of self-motivation depends on the social contextual conditions. These authors postulated three psychological needs, which, when satisfied, yield enhancement of students' motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000): autonomy, competence and relatedness. It became clear that teachers in this program were aware of students' psychological needs, resulting, for example, in the application of an autonomous approach to goal setting, a focus on development of students' individual competencies and coaching as the teaching role. Teachers are aware of the fact that creating a positive relationship with students is necessary to satisfy students' psychological needs.

According to Cassidy and Bates (2005), at-risk students require teachers who are a 'cross between a teacher and a counselor, a motivator, a mentor, a leader, all at the same time' (p. 83), underlining the complexity of teaching these students, which calls for well-prepared teachers characterized in the literature as teachers with high levels of engagement (Rumberger, 2001) and high self-efficacy scores (Van Uden, Ritzen, & Pieters, 2013). In this study, teachers experienced their role primarily as being a coach, which to them implied an equal relationship between student and teachers. Prior research on the teacher's role emphasized the teacher as a supportive and caring coach or mentor (Cabus, 2012; De Witte & Cabus, 2013; Van der Steeg, Van Elk, & Webbink, 2012). Cassidy and Bates (2005) posed that teachers should take a more personal role by sharing their lives with students, emphasizing that teaching at-risk students is, at first, a matter of building relationships. In the Dutch setting, teachers in secondary vocational education are primarily teachers who have a lot of professional experience in their field. We assume that working with at-risk students requires less emphasis on teachers' formal didactical skills (teaching as a profession), but more on the skills necessary to build relationships; it can be questioned whether teachers in secondary vocational education in the Dutch educational setting are aware of these differences and moreover, are capable of combining both types of skills.

Relatedness, in this study, was not restricted to relationships between teacher and student. Peer connection was also emphasized by teachers as important for building relatedness. In the framework of Van den Akker (2003), the component of 'grouping' involves peers; however, this component does not address the role peers have in the

curriculum as related to other students. For example, teachers in this curriculum used peers for providing feedback. The literature provides evidence that peers are a strong factor in students' process of disconnection from school (Ryan, 2000). Therefore, we suggest that in curriculum design for at-risk students careful consideration of the role of the peer group is necessary, as peers influence students a great deal, positively as well as negatively.

Teachers in this study were convinced of the positive contribution of sports activities for students' social development. This is in line with earlier research on social and emotional benefits of sports for adolescents (Bailey, 2005; Donaldson & Ronan, 2006). However, we have to be careful not to overestimate the beneficial effect of sports, because these effects may mostly occur in sports through positive relationships with peers and adults (Bruner, Hall, & Côté, 2011; Holt & Neely, 2011) and are highly dependent on a positive and stimulating environment (Hartmann, 2003; Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011). Moreover, the literature provides also evidence of the opposite, a negative effect of sports on children's social and emotional development (Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2009) for example on self-esteem. Sandford, Armour and Warmington (2006) stated that physical activities are able to re-engage disaffected young people only under the right circumstances. This suggest that sports may beneficially contribute to social development in a curriculum for at-risk students, but that positive peer group climate and good relationships with teachers are necessary for that to occur.

This study was done to investigate how teachers executed a curriculum aimed at at-risk students. Valuable information was provided as to how teachers actually worked with these students and how the teachers sought to help students improve their disengaged, negative behavior. However, students were not participants in this study; according to AlHaqwi, Van der Molen, Schmidt and Magzoub (2010), teachers and students may have different perspectives on what an effective curriculum is. Therefore, in order to strengthen determination of key curricular characteristics related to at-risk students, further research should be done with respect to students' perspectives. Teachers in this study felt that, "*students know what they want and they see school mostly as an obstacle for reaching their goals*". In any case, taking into account both teachers' and students' practical experiences when designing future curricula for this special group of students, seems to be highly commendable.

Chapter 3. Support of students' needs in secondary vocational education: A motivational perspective

In this study students' perspective was investigated on the programs. Research question one focused on students' experiences with engagement support in a program for at risk students. Findings suggest that students' engagement was supported in this program especially emotional engagement by relationships with peers and teachers. They also experienced enhancement of self-esteem and self-worth. Teachers helped students to determine and understand effective behavior and goals. In addition, students were interested in the program because of the relevant learning goals for their personal lives, the extraordinary location and challenging sports activities. The conclusion that students' engagement in this program is supported through connection with peers and teachers is strengthened by quantitative data that pointed at a positive change in students' engagement, especially the emotional component.

3.1 Introduction

People have an inborn motivation to learn (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Yet every teacher recognizes the picture of teens who stare blankly from the back of the classroom showing passive and indifferent behavior. These students seem to have lost all enthusiasm and motivation for learning. This may be the manifestation of an aggravating process of withdrawal from school in these students. They finally end up with a total lack of motivation for school and make the decision to quit and leave without a diploma (Finn, 1989; Rumberger, 2001).
In the Netherlands, students with motivational problems appear in all levels of education. The largest number of school drop-out is seen in the initial years of secondary vocational education (Ministry of Education, Culture & Science, 2017).

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At classroom level these students show inappropriate behavior, such as opposition towards teachers and passivity, which is not only a threat for the students' academic achievement but also for teachers' joy and motivation for their jobs (Hagenauer, Hascher, & Volet, 2015; Mega, Ronconi, & De Beni, 2014). At school level dropping out and truancy cause problems for schools meeting governmental requirements on curbing students' unqualified outflow. Dropping out from school also may hinder fruitful social participation as drop-outs are more prone staying unemployed, getting involved with criminal activities and having poor health (Brekke, 2014; Oreopoulos, 2007). Although motivation predicts student achievement (Mega et al., 2014), unmotivated students do not automatically head for dropping out. Motivation is considered to be a flexible construct and levels of motivation may fluctuate over time (Dörnyei, 2000). Students can be supported in their motivation for example with measures at the organizational school level such as truancy policy and smoothing of school transitions (De Witte & Csillag, 2014; Elffers, 2012a). In addition at classroom level, supportive teacher instruction and feedback (Keller, 2010; Turner, Christensen, Kackar-Cam, Trucano & Fulmer, 2014), engaging methods of assessment (Lutze-Mann & Kumar, 2013) and peer support (Ryan, 2000) can enhance students' motivation. In the past decade, schools in the Netherlands were obliged by the government to implement support measures for students resulting in a decrease of drop-out numbers (Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, 2017). This decrease in drop-out numbers indicates that students benefit from the measure as more of them are obtaining a diploma. However, it does not answer the question how students were supported and why students stayed at school. To explore how students' support was applied the present study focuses upon programs aimed at supporting students' motivation in secondary vocational education (SVE). We look through the eyes of the students at their perceptions and experiences because we are convinced that students provide valuable information for understanding how effective educational innovations are established (Könings, Seidel, Brand-Gruwel, & Van Merriënboer, 2014). Effective is this study is defined as positively contributing to students' motivation. We assume that students in SVE are aware of their own learning process and personal motivation and are capable to explain what supports them and why.

3.2 Theoretical framework: Students' motivation, engagement and needs support

3.2.1 Students' motivation

In this research we study students' motivation within a specific context of education, that is a special program for disengaged students. We have chosen the Self- Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000) to conceptualize motivation, because this framework originates from the naturalistic paradigm that motivation arises within a certain context. In this perspective contextual characteristics influence motivation in a direct or indirect way. In their article on motivation in the SDT, Ryan and Deci elaborated on their theory: "*Within SDT, Deci and Ryan (1985) introduced a second sub theory, called organismic integration theory (OIT), to detail the different forms of extrinsic motivation and the contextual factors that either promote or hinder internalization and integration of the regulation for these behaviors"* (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 72). According to SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2017) educational contexts may evoke learning behavior controlled by extrinsic stimulation such as rewards and punishments or feelings of guilt, anxiety and pride. In addition, SDT determines intrinsically regulated behavior that originates from students' interest and enjoyment and is closely related to personal values and standards (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In other words, students can show motivated learning behavior because they want to get good grades or avoid negative feedback (extrinsic motivation) or because they are interested in the tasks and value it apart from consequences (intrinsic motivation). Intrinsic motivation contributes to students' well-being and academic performance (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Vansteenkiste, Lens, De Witte, & Feather, 2005) and can be enhanced through addressing three basic psychological needs: the need for competence, autonomy and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

In educational contexts, students' needs are met when they experience control of their own learning process and perceive freedom to act in a way they fully endorse and understand (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994; Ryan & Deci, 2000). In addition, students' support is expressed in caring and meaningful relationships with teachers and peers who give the opportunity to share thoughts and feelings (Cassidy & Bates, 2005; Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, Lens, & Andriessen, 2009). According to Sheldon and Niemiec (2006), and Howell, Chenot, Hill and Howell (2011) meeting the individual needs asks for a careful balance in, for example, positive relationships that are beneficial to a context in which students can explore their autonomous values and goals. Yet to build up relationships both

student and teacher need to match their values and goals. If the teacher or student focuses one hundred percent at his own values and goals (high autonomy) without being interested in the opinion of the other, their relationship might be thwarted (low relatedness). Psychological needs supplement each other, in that, for example, experiences of success (high competence) enhance intrinsic motivation as long as it is accompanied by feelings of autonomy. Indicating that having success only intrinsically motivates when it is clear you are (partly) responsible for the achieved success (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2011). Stimulating intrinsic motivation by support of needs can be better seen as process rather than an instant consequence. Development of competencies and achieving success for example might not evoke feelings of intrinsic motivation instantly in contexts of learning. Developmental processes often ask for persistence and effort which do not always make students happy at that moment. However, satisfaction of the need for competence "will ultimately maximize well-being" (Howell et al., 2011, p. 13), which suggests that competence development contributes to intrinsic motivation over time. In our study we aim to identify the needs students perceive to be motivated for learning and the support teachers can give to increase fulfilment of students' needs.

3.2.2 Students' engagement

Teachers can easily point out which students are motivated and those who have problems with motivation during class by the way students are engaged with school. In other words, students' engagement is 'motivation in action' (Appleton et al., 2008; Fredricks et al., 2004; Skinner, Furrer, Marchand, & Kindermann, 2008). Motivated students show engaged behavior, which refers to students' attitude towards rules and classroom norms, the effort for academic tasks and participation in extra-curricular activities (Finn, 1989; Finn & Rock, 1997; Fredricks et al., 2004). Besides behavioral engagement, motivated students also engage emotionally with school, which addresses students' interest in learning, identification with school and feelings of belonging (Finn, 1989; Fredricks et al., 2004). The third component of students' engagement addresses the cognitive or academic component, such as adopting effective learning strategies (Fredricks et al., 2004). Appleton et al. (2008) argued that behavioral engagement is expressed by easily visible classroom and learning behavior; however cognitive and emotional engagement are less observable but can be gauged. Students' learning goals and perceived relevance of schoolwork can serve as indicators for cognitive engagement, and the quality of relationships with teachers and peers can indicate level of emotional engagement (Appleton et al., 2008).

In addition the work of Appleton et al. (2008) and of Skinner and Pitzer (2012) show that students' engagement is connected to support of students' psychological needs in classroom setting. If students show high levels of engagement, they probably experience support of their need for competence (good grades) and relatedness (positive relationships with teachers) and higher levels of perceived well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000). However, if students are disengaged they are likely to revert to non-effective ways of learning or inappropriate classroom behavior, leading to frustration of their needs, experiencing low academic success and negative interactions with teachers and peers. The work of Vansteenkiste and Ryan (2013) show that frustration of students' needs, leads to low self-esteem, loss of self-control (drug or alcohol abuse), rigid behavioral patterns and oppositional behavior. The reciprocal relationship between students' engagement and the support of students' needs can be presented as a spiral that might have an ascending character when students' support and engagement strengthen each other, but also can have a descending character as students struggle to stay motivated and engaged. Our study aims to further identify an increase in motivation through improving students' engagement.

3.2.3 Students' perspective on need support

To understand how students experience support of their needs a few researchers investigated students' perspective on learning environments. Kortering and Braziel (1999), Tanggaard (2013) and Wexler and Pyle (2012) interviewed students after they dropped out and asked them, among other things, what could have helped them to stay at school. These studies attribute an important role to teachers concerning support of students to improve their attitude and work habits while also providing academic support. Students who dropped out reported that, in practice, they often experienced non-supportive teacher behavior (Drewry, Burge, & Driscoll, 2010; Winding & Andersen, 2015). For example, teachers that did not listen to them, treated them like kids (Kortering & Braziel, 1999) or misunderstood them (Wexler & Pyle, 2012). The importance of positive student-teacher relationships for students is underlined by several researchers (De Witte & Cabus, 2013; Elffers, 2012b; Schuchart, 2013; Wentzel & Wigfield, 2007). In addition, Bullough and Pinnegar (2009) point out the pedagogical challenge of supporting students at risk in practice. Teachers in this study report: "when they are resistant to my efforts I have difficulty liking them" (Bullough & Pinnegar, 2009, p. 248). This clarifies that, although teachers and students are aware of the importance of supportive relationships, it is a challenge to enact student support in practice especially when students show disengaged behavior.

Support of students' needs is mostly researched through the lens of effectiveness (Cabus & De Witte, 2015) and this provides valuable insights into the effects that may be expected from need supportive learning environments. These studies however lack information on the individual level of the student. Support for needs cannot be generalized for all students because perceptions of support differ on the individual level (Appleton et al., 2008). Students' practical experiences with need support therefore extend and strengthen the theoretical understanding of students' engagement and yields detailed information on how practical need support is received by individual students.

For this study students' perspective on need support is researched in a program for disengaged students in SVE and the following research questions were addressed:

1. How do students at risk experience support of their engagement in a program in secondary vocational education?
2. What are students' engagement levels before and after participating in the program?

3.3 Methods

3.3.1 Research context

Students that participated in this study were connected to four different SVE schools in the Netherlands. The four schools were selected for this study because they were involved a subsidized project called *'Playing for Success'*. These schools developed a program for students who showed severe disengaged behavior in classroom. The program was explicitly aimed at enhancement of students' engagement. All four schools participated the study during project period which was three years. The program was evaluated positively by the governmental organization "The vocational education platform" who granted the subsidy. This indicates that schools succeeded in reaching the project goals, which includes explicitly support of students' engagement. Schools worked together to design the program that lasted ten weeks. Innovative in the program was the role of sport and sports environment. Schools developed activities to enhance students' engagement using sport as vehicle for development. These were the only four schools in The Netherlands who enacted this program in SVE. Learning activities included (peer) coaching, job orientation, apprenticeship and sports activities. All schools executed the program outside the school building in a top sports environment that is a football stadium or sports arena. Due to different school contexts, the activities were slightly different enacted in practice for example regarding the kind of sports activities or the amount of apprenticeship.

3.3.2 Data collection

To answer the research questions data were collected using an embedded mixed methods research strategy, by which a quantitative data collection was embedded in a qualitative methodology (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). For the first research question qualitative data were collected using semi-structured group interviews with students who had participated in the program. The goal of the interviews was to bring up students' experiences with and opinions about how support was enacted in practice. Each interview took about an hour. Before the interview, students were informed about the goals and content of the interview questions, and they were asked to give permission for anonymous use of the information for research.

To answer research question two, quantitative data regarding students' engagement was collected in a pretest-posttest design. We used a questionnaire on students' engagement that matched our research goal as it was constructed for the Dutch SVE context and focusses on engagement on the classroom level instead of school level (Van Uden, Ritzen, & Pieters, 2014). Four different engagement scales were distinguished; behavioral engagement (10 items), cognitive engagement (8 items), emotional engagement related to the curricular content (8 items) and emotional engagement related to the teacher (7 items). The response format was a four-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 4 (fully agree); 5 items were reversely coded before analysis.

3.3.3 Participants

During research period 195 students joined the program at four different schools. These students (14 to 23 years old) were selected by their teachers for the program because of their disengaged behavior expressed by inappropriate classroom behavior, severe truancy or low achievement.

For qualitative data collection, 48 students were interviewed. Because interviews were aimed at exploration of personal experiences and opinions of students, it was important that students felt safe during the interview. Therefore interview groups consisted of two or three students who knew each other and had participated in the same program at the same time. Selection of the students was not random. We asked teachers to select the students who completed the program and moreover were able to reflect and put their experiences into words. Students participated the interview on voluntary basis and were permitted to stop the interview or refuse answering any question at every time they wanted. It was also emphasized that

information was only anonymous shared with their teachers. In practice no student stopped the interview and all students did their best to answer all the questions.
We are aware of the weaknesses of participants' selection and interview group composition in the light of validity and transferability of the study. Yet we wanted to explore personal real life experiences of disengaged students and give them a voice and we are convinced that our research approach matched that goal.
For quantitative data collection, all students that participated in the program during the research period were asked to fill in the questionnaire addressing students' engagement. Teachers at the four schools organized the process of answering the questionnaire before and after participating in the program. Teachers were instructed to prepare them for data collection. They were asked to fill in the questionnaire themselves, after that topics, questions and difficulties were discussed and explained. We furthermore explained the procedure of a questionnaire for data collection. Teachers were permitted to guide students during the questionnaire and discuss the topics that were addressed, although we know that this may influence the outcome of the questionnaire. In line with program principles we did not want the questionnaire to look like an 'exam' or 'task' that the students had to full fill which may evoke negative feelings or resistance for students. For the pretest 150 students completed the questionnaire, for the posttest 72 students completed the questionnaire. We explicitly have chosen to adapt research approach to practice, as we work with vulnerable young children that try to get their life back on track. We did not want to hinder that in any way.

3.3.4 Data analysis

A total of 13 group interviews were scheduled with students (n=48) who had completed the program. After collecting data were prepared for qualitative analysis. The interviews were transcribed and anonymized. Data processing and analysis were performed based on the steps defined in the Qualitative Analysis Guide of Leuven (QUAGOL) developed by Dierckx de Casterlé, et al. (2012), which offers a comprehensive method to guide the process of qualitative data analysis. The QUAGOL method provided a coding scheme, which was used for the actual coding process; codes were not mutually exclusive, so that it was possible for data to be labeled with more than one code. Data were coded, using ATLAS.ti, by the head researcher who worked also for ten years at a SVE school as a teacher. Her connectedness with the SVE context and students was an advantage when doing interviews with the students as she knew 'the language of the students'. However for data analysis we decided that her teacher experience could influence objective analysis of the data. Therefore inter-rater

reliability was checked by having 10% of the data coded independently by a colleague researcher who had experience with qualitative research methods and knowledge of students' motivation and engagement in SVE but did not work in SVE. The assigned codes were discussed, resulting in a more clarified description of the codes. Then, another sample of 15% was coded independently by the two researchers. The comparison of their assigned codes yielded a Cohen's kappa of .801. All themes were analyzed to identify the students' perspective on effective elements of the program, where effectiveness was defined as supporting students' engagement.

Quantitative data on students' engagement were analyzed using SPSS version 22. First normal data distribution was checked; after that, students' engagement before and after participation in the program was analyzed using paired sample t-test analysis.

3.4 Results

3.4.1 Qualitative results

Research question one was aimed at understanding how students' experienced support of their engagement in the program. First we present supportive characteristics of the program from students' perspective, after that we elaborate on the critical comments on the program regarding engagement support. To organize the findings we use SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Need for relatedness

Students build up relationships in this program in two ways, first with their peers who were perceived as being very important primarily for sharing and discussing their problems. Students reported feelings of recognition, acceptation and respect from their peers: "*Here you can be just the way you are, it is normal to have a problem because everyone has a problem*". Students emphasized that they wanted to help others and they wanted to be helped by others: "*It is the feeling that you are not alone, we all help each other*", and posed that peers made this program worth coming for: "*Because of your friends, you know you'll have fun today, I really like coming here, because we laugh and it is a positive atmosphere*".

According to students relationships with teachers were supportive in the first place for their self-esteem and self-confidence: "*I was convinced that I was worth nothing, but here they told me I was a nice and funny person*". Teachers' supportive behavior in practice was expressed by a friendly approach (greeting students, having a chat), interest in the student (asking questions, careful listening), having fun together (making jokes/laugh, humor) equality (share of personal stories, showing real emotions) and being available for students (making time to

help with schoolwork, smartphone use). In addition teachers consequently emphasized students' positive competences. For building up a relationship with teachers it was important that teachers were reliable, expressed by trust in their expertise in teaching and knowledge: "*They are good teachers, they know what they are talking about*", and engagement: "*It feels like if I give him a call in the middle of the night he would answer it*", and: *"He took his car and picked me up, so I could join the group, he really tries to help me*". For their learning process students reported an important role for teachers who consistently and critically reflected on their learning process and behavior, which helped students to understand the consequences of their behavior: "*I did not know that my attitude impressed others in such a negative way, now I understand how this works and I try to present myself more positively*". Students appreciated teachers who confronted them about rules, bad and unsupportive behavior towards others and negative attitude: "*They (the teachers) are very honest about how they think about my behavior, that helps to improve my attitude"*.

The extraordinary location of the program (top sports arena) was experienced by students as supportive for building up relationships, moreover they agreed that this program could be enacted everywhere, except for a school building. Due to the location students were isolated from their normal friends which helped (or sometimes forced) them to get in contact with peers in the program and get to know each other: "*We can have class everywhere, except for school, in school we are distracted by others, here we only have each other.*"

Need for autonomy

Autonomy support for students first concerned the relevance of the program for their personal lives. According to students, participating in this program was foremost an opportunity to work on personal goals such as: 1) job orientation; 2) development of social and emotional competences (such as communication skills and deal with disappointment); 3) development of school or employee competences (such as presenting yourself and asking feedback or help) and 4) development of self-esteem and self-confidence. Students experienced that they were able to influence their own learning process in the program expressed by individual learning goals, adaptation of learning activities and individual coaching by teachers: "*You can determine your own process, together with the teachers"*. Students also felt that influence was reflected in responsibility: "*If you want to learn something here, you have to take the first step, otherwise nothing will change*". Teachers, in their opinion, did everything to help them, yet the student was designer of his learning process. According to students this ownership was important to identify and learn successful strategies for reaching goals. Students reported

that they learned why their behavior is successful (or not) and experienced responsibility for their own decisions.

Students highly appreciated the attractiveness of the program expressed by sports. According to students, up to 50% of the program time was reserved for sports activities that were experienced as fun, challenging and interesting. Students also reported that sports activities were used to practice competences such as persistence, self-esteem, teamwork, and communication skills. Furthermore students were attracted by the location of the program (the top sports arena): "*It feels special to have class here*" and for some students the location was a reason to join the program in the first place. However according to students, their feelings of excitement lasted for about three weeks; after that students perceived having class in the top sports arena as normal.

Need for competence

Students posed that personal problems were the reason for their disengaged behavior at school: "*I did not know where to begin, my life was a real chaos and I felt hopeless (…) my problem makes it impossible to succeed at school*", furthermore students were convinced that graduation was a vital prerequisite for finding a job. According to students, participation in the program brought back the belief that they can succeed at school, although they still experienced difficulties in their personal lives: "*Here I learned that my problems are experiences I can use*", and: *"I was very skeptical, I thought, no one can solve my problem, but now I understand that it is all about mindset and not about solving the problem*".

Students experienced a change in their beliefs; they felt empowered by teachers and peers and felt greater self-esteem and self-confidence to control their life. The program therefore seemed not only be important to identify and learn successful strategies to reach personal goals but also for building confidence and self-esteem to carry out the strategy.

Frustration of students needs

Although students mostly reported situations of support they also had critical comments. We have chosen to present these comments explicitly because this information extends and deepens the understanding of engagement support in this program.

Students' criticisms, in the first place, addressed the expectations students had before they enrolled in the program. Some students argued that learning activities did not match their expectations or personal goals: "*This was not what they told us it would be, I thought it was about finding a new educational track and now I'm sitting there talking about alcohol and*

drugs". Adaptation of the program activities to students' individual needs in these cases was not fully successful and students perceived part of the program as not relevant for them: "*This does not help me at all".*

All students explicitly appreciated the hard work and effort teachers put into their development; however, sometimes students felt that their teacher did not understand them, primarily because the teacher did not listen carefully enough: "*She (the teacher) talks too much, and she did not listen to me, at the end she forced me to visit some educational track I wasn't even interested in. She doesn't understand me*". Furthermore, students reported experiences of unfair teacher behavior towards them: *"I did not do anything wrong, (….), but he (the teacher) did not allow me to tell my story".* In addition, students perceived that teachers were sometimes inconsistent in their rules, which they viewed as being unfair.

The critical comments of students applied on the need for autonomy. Students felt they were not taken seriously and respected and the program did not accurately connect to their personal questions and lives. Furthermore autonomy support was very much connected to the teachers. Students felt that teachers did not give them the correct information or did not listen to them. Teachers' actions or attitude were the reason for students to criticize the program, according to these students autonomy support was not well enough enacted by teachers.

3.4.2 Quantitative results

Research question two addressed effects on students' engagement. Although this study was not designed as an effect study, we gathered data regarding students' engagement before and after participating in the program.

The response format was a four-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 4 (fully agree). Overall both pre-test and post-test scores were in the slightly to moderately positive range between 2.5 and 3 (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1

Average of students' engagement levels

		Mean	Std. Deviation
Behavioral engagement	Pre	2.7083	.45308
	Post	2.8250	.45370
Cognitive engagement	Pre	2.5940	.38325
	Post	2.7137	.48517
Emotional engagement	Pre	2.7157	.45464
	Post	2.8769	.54731

Compared to the pretest scores for all engagement scales increased on the posttest and significant differences were measured for emotional engagement (Table 3.2). Students reported lower engagement levels of emotional engagement levels with the program before (*M* = 2,5990; *SD* = .46200) than after participating in the curriculum (*M* = 2,7847; *SD* = .56847). This difference was statistically significant (*t* (71) = -2.112, *p* = .038). For emotional engagement related to teachers however no significant differences were found (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2

Differences in students' engagement levels

Engagement variables	Mean difference pre and post engagement	Std. Deviation	t	Df	Sig. (2 tailed)
Behavioral engagement	-.11667	.68443	-1.446	71	.152
Cognitive engagement	-.11966	.65905	-1.541	71	.128
Emotional engagement	-.16111	.71983	-1.899	71	.062
Emotional engagement program	-.18576	.74647	-2.112	71	.038*
Emotional engagement teachers	-.13294	.82059	-1.375	71	.174

Differences in pre and post-test scores for behavioral, cognitive and emotional students' engagement. Two types of emotional engagement were measured: 1) engagement related to the program content 2) engagement related to teachers *p<.05

3.5 Conclusion

Research question one focuses on students' experiences with engagement support in a program for at risk students in SVE. Findings suggest that students' engagement was supported in this program especially emotional engagement. Support was reflected in relationships with peers and teachers, as students felt respected, recognized and appreciated

and reported feelings of joy and fun. They also experienced enhancement of self-esteem and self-worth. Students and teachers together shared and discussed personal stories and emotions, which helped students to determine and understand effective behavior and goals. In addition, students were interested in the program because of the relevant learning goals for their personal lives, the extraordinary location and challenging sports activities.
In this program supportive elements were interrelated. Relationships with teachers and peers were perceived as caring and respectful and, together with sports activities, evoked feelings of fun, joy and pleasure for students in this program. This helped students to lower their resistance be more open for learning and reflection which was, according to students, conditional for autonomy and competence support. The conclusion that students' engagement in this program is supported through connection with peers and teachers is strengthened by research question two as the quantitative data pointed at a positive change in students' engagement, especially the emotional component.

3.6 Implications for practice

This study investigated a program for at-risk students in SVE and yields valuable information that can be used to strengthen educational contexts in a broader way. In the first place, we address the strategy that was used by teachers to support engagement and build positive relationships with students. On the one hand teachers used a friendly, interested approach, reported by students as concrete teacher behavior such as asking questions, showing interest, humor and careful listening. On the other hand teachers used critical reflection on students' behavior and confrontation about undesirable attitudes. Using this strategy, teachers created a safe environment for students to build relationships with each other, which is important regarding students' engagement (Anderson, Christenson, Sinclair, & Lehr, 2004; Ganotice & King, 2014) and also for students' self-esteem (Ryan, Stiller, & Lynch, 1994) . We suggest that in teacher training programs, pedagogical strategies regarding a positive classroom atmosphere and building relationships with students should be a main theme, which is not currently the case, as far as we know, in most training courses and vocational tracks.
At SVE schools a diploma is focused on student achievement at certain academic level. Yet for students at risk, academic learning may not be experienced as relevant at some point in their school career. These students often experience problems in their personal lives (Rumberger, 2004), such as conflicts with parents, teachers and peers, miscommunications, non-effective choice strategies and problems with self-image. Moreover, they lack the social and emotional skills to handle their problems. Knowing this, we suggest for opportunities in

education to connect learning as much as possible directly to students' personal lives and experiences. Pedagogies that adapt learning activities to students' personal experiences are not very commonly in literature however the 'narrative pedagogy' (Diekelmann, 2001; Ironside, 2003) that was described in the light of nursing education used students' experiences with patients for learning. In addition the theory of 'narrative learning' (Biesta, Field, Goodson, Hodkinson, & Macleod, 2008) may help understanding how people learn from their lived experiences. In addition Biesta et al. (2008) pose that "the social opportunities for narrating one's life story are an important vehicle for narrative learning and an important avenue for improving the capacity for narrative learning (p. 19). Underlining the importance of supportive relationships between people for learning.

3.7 Limitations

Although this study yielded interesting information, we have to make some critical reflections. Students who were interviewed were mostly positive about support in the program, although just a few students (n=6) had doubts about the benefits of the program for their lives. This might be the result of the way of students were selected for the interviews, as they were asked by their teachers and participated on a voluntary basis. We assume that students who experienced the program as ineffective may add valuable information for understanding what contributes to support students' engagement.

Furthermore, we want to emphasize that the quantitative results have to be interpreted very carefully, insofar as the research was not designed as an effect study. Only 49% of the students completed the posttest and they might have been the more engaged students who experienced the program as positive.

The results that were obtained in this study can be interpreted as an exploration of a learning environment for students at risk, and yield valuable information for teachers as well as for school organizations. In addition, we are aware of differences between educational contexts and we want to underline that this study is conducted with a relativistic paradigm. Insights and information therefore must be interpreted in the context in which they were obtained and can only be transferred with caution. Still, we assume that we can learn from students who tell us about their perceptions of supportive learning environments. Students in this study ask for a program where they can have fun, feel respected and recognized and work on relevant learning goals. This desire is, in our opinion, applicable to students in all contexts and can be seen as asking for support on their psychological needs rather than asking to be pampered.

Chapter 4. Make my day! Teachers' perceived emotions in their work with disengaged students in vocational education

The present study investigated teachers' emotions related to their work in the programs for at-risk students. The aim of the study was to investigate teachers' perceived emotions in their classroom practice and how emotions were related to their perceived well-being. Based on our literature study, we assumed that teachers' perceived well-being was affected by the emotional experiences in their classroom practice through their perceptions of autonomy, competence and relatedness. In our results, we reported that teachers perceived mixed emotions caused by interactions with students, the students' learning process, colleagues and the program. We determined characteristics of classroom practices that contribute positively to teachers' perceived well-being as well as characteristics that diminish teachers' perceived well-being.

4.1 Introduction

Happy and satisfied teachers are better teachers. They perform better compared to their unhappy colleagues and, moreover, they enhance students' motivation and achievement (Frenzel, Goetz, Lüdtke, Pekrun, & Sutton, 2009; Jalali & Heidari, 2016). According the literature, teachers' perceived emotions at work depend on the relationships between teachers and students (Frenzel, 2014; Frenzel et al., 2009; Hagenauer et al., 2015; Spilt, Koomen, & Thijs, 2011; Veldman, Van Tartwijk, Brekelmans, & Wubbels, 2013). Teaching, leading and learning can be considered as 'irretrievably emotional in character' (Hargreaves, 2000, p. 812), but the emotions involved seem to be ambiguous, and may include feelings of enjoyment and pride as well as anxiety and anger (Bullough & Pinnegar, 2009; Frenzel, 2014).

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Chang (2009, p. 20) argued that "the more teachers care about students the more likely they get angry or frustrated by students". In addition, Frenzel et al. (2009), Frenzel (2014) and Shen, McCaughtry, Martin, Garn, Kulik and Fahlman (2015) pointed out the mutual character of emotions in classrooms, as teachers and students affect and influence each other's feelings positively as well as negatively.

For teachers, regulation of emotions can be considered as part of their practice. In the first place, teachers must act upon students' emotional development for optimal learning (Pekrun, 2017). Some students might have negative experiences at school, causing negative emotions such as frustration or disappointment, which must be reshaped for optimal learning. In the meantime, teachers must also regulate their own feelings and emotions.

Chang (2013) posed that little is known of the emotional process that teachers experience in their classrooms, which brings up the question of how teachers' emotions in practice can be understood. Given that teachers' perceived emotions depend on the individualistic and contextual appraisal and experiences of teachers (Chang 2013; Frenzel, 2014; Lazarus, 2006; Maag, 2008), we assume no all-embracing answer to that question can be formulated. Yet, investigating teachers' emotions in practice can provide valuable information for understanding how emotions influence classroom practice, which is interesting from the perspective of students' learning as well as teachers' well-being (Frenzel et al., 2009; Jalali & Heidari, 2016).

In the present study, practical experiences were identified that have had an emotional impact on teachers, and we sought to determine the cause of the emotions and how these experiences were related to concepts of teachers' well-being.

4.2 Theoretical framework

Teachers' subjective well-being and the sustainability of their performance are related to the perceived emotional load during teaching (Bullough & Pinnegar, 2009; Chang, 2009, 2013; De Stercke, Goyette, & Robertson, 2015; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Frenzel (2014) provided insight into the emotions that teachers experience during their profession, by focusing upon their actual teaching task. Frenzel (2014) identified seven frequently perceived professional emotions during teaching: enjoyment, pride, anger, anxiety, boredom, shame and pity. She also determined the reasons for teachers' emotions; for example, positive student achievement that make teachers feel proud and happy. In addition, teacher-student relationships evoke emotions for teachers, addressing the emotions that teachers perceive as

arising in their personal involvement with students. Another cause for teachers' emotions is students' misbehavior, which arouses negative emotions for teachers, such as, anger and anxiety.

4.2.1 Teaching disengaged students

In classroom practice, a teacher is involved with a group of various students who all have different behaviors, including at-risk students who show disengaged behavior such as resistance or oppositional behavior or express passivity and lack of motivation, which evoke negative emotions for teachers (Frenzel, 2014; Sanders, Munford, & Liebenberg, 2016; Spilt et al., 2011). Groenenberg and Hermannussen (2012a, 2012b) asked 255 Dutch teachers about their drive to work within the lowest levels of Secondary Vocational Education (SVE), a type of education with high levels of at-risk students and drop-outs (Van der Steeg & Webbink, 2006). Teachers in this study understood their teaching role as being a pedagogue and experienced teaching as an interesting challenge. They developed interest in students' behavior and experienced feelings of satisfaction caused by students' successes and achievement. Teachers also perceived positive emotions such as warmth, trust and pride due to personal involvement with students (Groenenberg & Hermanussen, 2012a, 2012 b). The teachers also pointed out that building up positive relationships with students takes a lot of time and energy. One teacher stated: "it takes a terrifying amount of patience" and "you feel used" (Groenenberg & Hermanussen, 2012a, p. 41). Based on these reports, we assume that teaching disengaged students comes with intense emotions for teachers; however, the amount of emotional load individual teachers experience depends on the characteristics of the teacher. Chang (2013) suggested that teachers' correct appraisal of students' behavior leads to less negative emotion for the teacher, and Maag (2008, p. 56) reported that "when teachers avoid irrational thinking about a student's behavior, their level of emotional upset automatically decreases, giving them the emotional control to figure out an effective response". This indicates that teachers' perceived emotions depend on the context and teachers' interpretation of the situation as well as on their coping and emotional regulation strategies (Frenzel, 2014; Lazarus, 2006).

4.2.2 Teachers' emotions and self-determination

In the present study, teachers' emotions were investigated using the affective-motivational construct of Self-Determination Theory (SDT), which was originally developed to study human motivation and personality (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In the past 20 years, SDT has been

used as the theoretical framework for studies of various topics, including perceived well-being, also referred to as happiness (Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2001; Ryan, Huta, & Deci, 2008). The concept of teachers' well-being or happiness based on SDT represents, in the first place, "intrinsically preferred states" (Ryan et al., 2008, p. 141), which can be easily recognized by emotions such as perceived interest or joy. These emotions are connected to another type of well-being framed as self-realization, which represents experiences of living a meaningful life (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Emotions that come along with self-realization (Ryan et al., 2008) can be considered to be the result of self-determined and authentic choices based on values and interests.

According to SDT, perceived well-being and the quality of teachers' performance are supported by teachers' individual experiences of autonomy, competence and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2001). People perceive autonomy when they are respected and free to make choices. Feelings of competence are related to perceived success and achievement. And relatedness addresses people's desire to have caring relationships with others.

Experiences of autonomy, competence and relatedness are considered to be universal for all people (Church et al., 2012); however, understanding of these feelings occurs in the individual context (De Stercke et al., 2015; Tadiç, Bakker, & Oerlemans, 2013). How teachers perceive autonomy, competence and relatedness in their classrooms depends on their individual characteristics (Howell et al., 2011), and therefore teachers report different experiences gained in an identical context.

4.2.3 Teachers' feelings of autonomy, competence and relatedness

Research about autonomy, competence and relatedness in education has usually focused on students' motivational behavior (Haerens, Aelterman, Vansteenkiste, Soenens, & Van Petegem, 2015; Stroet, Opdenakker, & Minnaert, 2015; Van den Berghe, Cardon, Tallir, Kirk, & Haerens, 2016). However, some studies have focused on teachers' experiences. According to Canrinus, Helms-Lorenz, Beijaard, Buitink and Hofman (2012), teachers' perceived autonomy implied that teachers felt free in their interactions with students and experienced the opportunity to adapt their teaching to individual students. In addition, teachers' perceptions of autonomy are also affected by educational systems and established national achievement standards, which temper perceived autonomy (Canrinus et al., 2012; Hargreaves, 2000; Moekotte, Brand-Gruwel, & Ritzen, 2017).

Feelings of competence refer to the desire to contribute effectively to established goals (Canrinus et al., 2012). For teachers, their work goals are aimed at curriculum development or

professional development, but can also focus upon students' learning goals. Perceived competence positively impacts teachers' perceived well-being and job satisfaction (Federici & Skaalvik, 2012; Klassen & Ming Ming, 2010); however, development of teachers' competence requires persistence and effort. Perceived competence can therefore be considered to 'ultimately maximize well-being' for teachers, as defined by Howell et al. (2011, p. 13).

For the feeling of relatedness, Spilt et al. (2011) posed in the first place that teachers connect with their colleagues, just like other employees. In addition, teachers also have the opportunity in their work to engage in relationships with students (Klassen, Perry, & Frenzel, 2012). The intensity of this relationship depends on the time they spend together and the mutual involvement of the teachers as well as the students (Hagenauer et al., 2015). Positive relationships in classrooms can be a source of perceived joy, excitement, happiness and affection for both the teacher and the student (Hargreaves, 2000; Valleé & Ruglis, 2017). According to Hargreaves (2000), teachers report high levels of stress when they feel neglected or not known by students, suggesting that positive relationships for them are characterized by acknowledgement and respect, and that teachers may experience intense emotions in their connection with students (Hargreaves, 2000). From the students' perspective, teachers must be a resource for information and knowledge, which reflects the academic relationship between students and teachers (Sanders et al., 2016). However, students also seek recognition, connection and safety in their relationships with teachers before they can focus on learning (Sanders et al., 2016), which emphasizes the emotional involvement and mutual engagement of both student and teacher in their relationships.

This study focuses on teachers who work with disengaged students and the perceived emotions they experience in their classrooms. We are interested in these classroom practices because we presume – based on the literature – that these teachers encounter intense emotions due to the typically negative classroom behavior of the disengaged students and their negative attitude towards school caused by earlier experiences. The questions investigated in this study focus first upon teachers' perceived classroom emotions. In addition, teachers' perceived emotions will be analyzed in relation to the concept of well-being, using SDT, which pose that experiences of autonomy, competence and relatedness foster higher levels of perceived well-being (see Figure 4.1).

We address the following research questions:

1. What causes teachers' emotions in their work with disengaged students in secondary vocational education?
2. How do teachers' emotions relate to their perceived well-being as based on SDT and operationalized by experiences of autonomy, competence and relatedness?

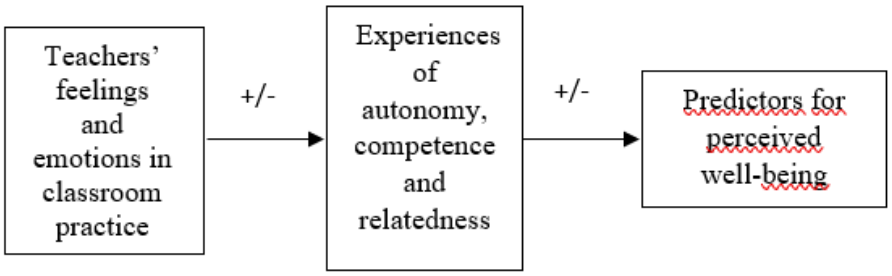

Figure 4.1 Conceptual model of the study: Teachers' emotions and feelings supporting or thwarting teachers' perceived feelings of autonomy, competence and relatedness and influencing teachers' perceived well-being

4.3 Methods

A qualitative research approach was used for this study. In order to answer the research questions, data were collected using focus group interviews with teachers. The aim of the interviews was to identify teachers' perceived emotions, and to determine the reasons for perceived emotions and reflect upon the situation in which emotions occurred. The emphasis was on the identification of experiences in practice. Teachers were first asked to reflect upon their work in general; for example, 'Are you satisfied?' and 'How do you feel about this group of students?'. After that, they were asked to elaborate on their answers and asked to describe the situation in detail. For in-depth data collection, teachers were followed for 18 months (2012-2013 and 2013-2014 school years) and interviewed every ten weeks, meaning that the same teacher was interviewed more than once. Each interview took about an hour. In preparation for the interviews, teachers were informed about the goal of the interview questions and were asked to give permission for anonymous use of the information in the research. A total of thirteen interviews were held. All interviews were audio-recorded,

transcribed and anonymized. To strengthen validity, member checks were done by presenting preliminary results to the teachers, who did not suggest adjustments.

4.3.1 Participants

Selection of the teachers was not random; schools selected the teachers based on their work in a program for disengaged students. Interview groups were formed of teachers who worked together at the same school, resulting in three groups of four teachers and one group of two teachers. The participating teachers (N = 14) had different backgrounds and varied in their teaching experience (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1

Overview of participants' characteristics

	Gender	**Age (years)**	**Experience (years)**	**Background**
School A	Female	> 50	> 15	VET
	Male	30—40	5—15	Social work
	Male	20—30	< 5	Social work
	Male	30—40	5—15	Social work
School B	Female	30—40	< 5	VET
	Female	20—30	< 5	Social work
	Male	20—30	< 5	Job coach
	Female	40—50	5—15	SE
School C	Male	> 50	> 15	VET
	Male	30—40	5—15	SE
School D	Male	40—50	> 15	SE
	Female	30—40	> 15	SE
	Female	30—40	> 15	SE
	Female	30—40	5—15	SE

*Note: SE = Special education, VET = Vocational Education Institute

4.3.2 Data analysis

After collecting the interview data, the researchers went through a series of steps to analyze the data.

Step 1

To answer research question one, all interviews were read and the statements where teachers referred to *positive* feelings or emotions were highlighted. An inductive approach was used to select the statements.

Step 2

Next the positive statements (a total of 76) were summarized, presenting the key message of the passage. The summaries were included in the database and labeled as *positive statements*.

Step 3

Subsequently, the interviews were read again and the statements where teachers referred to *negative* feelings or emotions were highlighted. Again, an inductive approach was used to select the statements.

Step 4

Next the negative statements (a total of 32) were summarized, presenting the key message of the passage. The summaries were included in the database and labeled as *negative statements*.

Step 5

For every summarized passage, first the perceived emotion was identified, yielding a list of different identified emotions (Table 2) and the emotions were clustered into themes, resulting in main themes for perceived emotions. Next, the reasons for the emotions were identified, yielding a list of reasons, which were clustered under 4 main causes (Table 3).

Step 6

To answer the second research question, we analyzed the identified reasons for emotions in depth, and we investigated how these reasons expressed perceived autonomy, competence and relatedness.

To enhance reliability and validity, two researchers worked together to analyze the first three transcribed interviews (steps 1-5). Subsequently, the researchers analyzed the other transcripts

separately and compared their analysis. They determined emotions and their causes (steps 1-4) and based on the literature, established general themes that were discussed until consensus was reached (step 5). After that, in-depth analysis regarding the concepts of autonomy, competence and relatedness (step 6) was carried out by the head researcher and the findings were discussed with the second researcher. After that, the transcripts were read again; no information was found that falsified the findings.

4.4 Results

4.4.1 Positive emotions

The first research question was aimed at what caused teachers' perceived emotions in their classroom. We first focus on the statements that represented teachers' positive emotions (Table 4.2). The first reason given for positive classroom emotions addressed contact and personal relationships with students. Aspects such as 'talking to students', 'getting to know them' and 'have a good time together' evoked positive feelings for teachers: *"I like it very much to have fun with the students and to make it pleasant for all of us".* Furthermore, teachers perceived positive emotions when students showed respect, supported and encouraged them: *"I have had a difficult period in my private life, but the support of the students gave me the energy to be here every morning".* In addition, caring relationships and positive interactions between students were also sources of perceived positive emotions; teachers were surprised how peers can support each other: *"The students helped each other, that felt very special for me"*. Teachers also enjoyed it when students were presented positively in front of others, such as parents, which made the teachers proud: *"What I liked very much was that we could tell his parents that we were very proud of him"*.

A second reason for positive feelings was related to students' learning. Teachers mentioned feelings of pride and joy when students made progress: *"A lot happened in this group of students, that was fantastic and special for me, these students have made big steps".*

Students' behavior was also a source of teachers' positive emotions. Not surprisingly, engaged student behavior evoked positive feelings and teachers enjoyed working with active, interested students. However, according to the teachers, engaged student behavior was often preceded by inappropriate classroom behavior. This behavior was mentioned by teachers as interesting and made them curious why students behave in such a way: *"I say to students…you make me curious what's behind your behavior and then I start asking questions…a lot of questions (laughs)"*. Teachers reported that they very much liked the students to be real and to express emotions: *"For me it was a very special group of students,*

they were all very open", even if this brought up aggressive or depressive emotions. Students' behavior in general interested the teachers, especially if this behavior was difficult, emotional and not well regulated by students. Teachers experienced positive feelings when students made the transition from inappropriate behavior to interested and engaged behavior: *"After that…the student decided to participate in the learning activity, he wanted to hear his strengths, I experienced that as a great moment"*.

Other sources of positive emotions were caused by colleagues. Teachers felt happy when they experienced working together as a team with their colleagues: *"It works very pleasantly that we supplement each other's competencies…that is the big gain"*. Teachers also experienced positive emotions when they felt appreciated and respected for their work by colleagues*: "It felt good that one of my colleagues told me how he appreciated the program"*.

Two other reasons for positive feelings were related to teachers' enjoyment in adapting the curriculum to students' needs and the pleasant feeling of responsibility they had for the program and the students: *"You are seen as the face of the program, that gives a lot of satisfaction".* Table 4.3 provides a summary of the findings for the reasons for teachers' perceived positive emotions.

Table 4.2

Overview of perceived teachers' emotions

	Reported feelings	
Positive emotions	Enjoyment	Challenge
	Pleasure	Responsibility
	Fun	Energy
	Enthusiasm	Interest
	Satisfaction	Warmth
	Pride	Support
	Appreciation	Connection
	Success	Vulnerability
	Achievement	Sensitiveness
Negative emotions	Stress	Loneliness
	Tension	Vulnerability
	Frustration	Anxiety
	Irritation	Failure
	Uncertainty/doubt	Dissatisfaction

4.4.2 Negative emotions

Most experiences of negative emotions were related to teaching practices in which teachers experienced a strong personal involvement with their students, especially in the case of teachers' search for effective approaches to help and support the students. An example was when students shared their problems: *"It kept me awake at night thinking about how I could help her"* and *"Every time when she is too late, I'm thinking is she still alive?...She does not want to live anymore, that is heavy for me".* Teachers mentioned also that they were triggered sometimes to go beyond their own limits: *"I had to go beyond my own borders to help her"* and *"I had to do something to change the negative process, I was also very negative, I lost myself in that…I had to motivate myself again"*. Teachers also addressed unsuccessful approaches that evoked negative emotions: *"I did not reach the students, that's frustrating"* and *"Sometimes I really doubt what was the right question to help, I had to do my very best".* Other perceived negative emotions were caused by colleagues. Teachers addressed a lack of shared responsibility, peer feedback, and following up on agreements with regard to their colleagues. They also mentioned differences in pedagogical strategies and vision: *"We have to confront them more with the life they live now…but I feel like I'm the only one who thinks that is the right thing to do"*.

Furthermore, students' learning evoked negative feelings for teachers, primarily regarding students' learning outcomes and their own contributions to the learning process: *"I don't feel satisfied… there are two or three students that have made too little progress"* and *"I'm thinking, what a pity, what can we do better"*.

Another point arousing negative feelings was organizational aspects of the teaching program. Teachers felt that the school organization sometimes hindered the possibility of guiding students in an optimal way: *"I don't have time to talk to students…during my break, I have to make my classroom ready, so the talks get lost".*

4.4.3 Experiences of autonomy, competence and relatedness

Research question two focused upon teachers' perceived emotions as related to their experiences of autonomy, competence and relatedness.

Experiences of *autonomy* were expressed by the perceived freedom to adapt the program and determine ways of coaching and guiding the students, which evoked feelings of responsibility, pride and satisfaction. However, teachers sometimes experienced a lack of opportunity to guide students in an optimal way due to financial issues or organizational limits, which limited their perceived autonomy and evoked feelings of frustration and dissatisfaction .

For *competence* teachers primarily addressed perceived competence regarding students' success, as they reflected upon their own roles in students' learning and students' behavior: *"For example, a girl who has made big steps and visited me personally to tell me what I meant to her, that is really great"*. Teachers attributed learning outcomes or positive change in students' behavior to their own role, which made them feel proud, satisfied and happy, but also evoked feelings of dissatisfaction and uncertainty about their own competences when they felt that students' learning was not optimally supported or students did not make progress.

For *relatedness*, teachers perceived positive emotions including joy and pleasure caused by classroom interaction and contact with students, which was reported as talking to each other, having fun and spending time together. Teachers also reported more intense emotions caused by their contact with students, such as appreciation, respect, warmth and support. These emotions occurred primarily when they engaged in activities that enabled students and teachers to share personal experiences with each other and be open about personal feelings, expressing high levels of mutual involvement. In addition, as mentioned before, teachers also referred to negative emotions caused by experiences of intense personal involvement, primarily expressed by feelings of doubt and uncertainty about teachers' strategies and pedagogies to support students, but there were also feelings of worries about students' problems.

Besides relationships with students, teachers also felt connected to their colleagues. Teachers perceived trust and support because they worked as a team and felt appreciated by their colleagues. Regarding their colleagues, teachers experienced negative emotions referring to lack of perceived teamwork or team spirit. For example, they mentioned experiences of a lack of shared responsibility for the program, lack of colleague feedback, and lack of shared pedagogical approaches to support students.

Table 4.3

Overview of the reasons for perceived emotions

Emotions caused by	**Reasons for emotions**	
Students	*Positive emotions* Sharing personal stories Talking to students and getting to know them Peer interaction Positive performance by students Emotions expressed by students Students' classroom behavior	*Negative emotions* Too much emotional involvement Pedagogical issues
Colleagues	*Positive emotions* Teamwork Appreciation of their work	*Negative emotions* Lack of feedback and help from colleagues No shared responsibilities Different opinions about pedagogies
Students' learning	*Positive emotions* Progress of students Personal contribution to students' learning	*Negative emotions* Personal contribution to learning process Learning outcome Pedagogical issues Lack of personal competencies
Program and organization	*Positive emotions* Possibility of adapting programs for students program	*Negative emotions* Inability to have a good program Inability to have appropriate guidance for students

4.5 Conclusion

The aim of this study was to investigate teachers' perceived emotions in their classroom practice and how emotions were related to their perceived well-being. Based on our literature study, we assumed that teachers' perceived well-being was affected by their emotional experiences in their classroom practice through their perceptions of autonomy, competence and relatedness (see our conceptual model, Figure 4.1). In our results, we reported that teachers perceived mixed emotions caused by interactions with students, the students' learning process, colleagues and their program (Table 4.3). Figure 4.2 provides an oversight of the conceptual model based on the findings. This model shows how emotional classroom

experiences evoked emotions and how these emotions were related to autonomy, competence and relatedness. Based on this model, we conclude that the following characteristics of classroom practices contribute positively to teachers' perceived well-being:

- Practices in which teacher feel free to adapt and evolve their program to meet students' needs.
- Practices in which teachers have the opportunity to support students' individual learning processes and moreover are able to determine their personal contribution to students' success and achievement.
- Practices that allow teachers to have interactions with students that are characterized by normal classroom contact, such as talks and chats, and that allow teachers to have more emotional contact through sharing personal stories and feelings with students.
- Practices in which teachers have the opportunity to work closely together with colleagues, expressed by shared program vision, goals and responsibilities.

In addition, we argue that the following classroom characteristics diminish teachers' perceived well-being:

- Practices in which teachers are hindered from optimally adapt their program to students' needs, due to organizational or financial aspects.
- Practices in which teachers do not feel capable of supporting students optimally, for example, due to their perceived lack of pedagogical skills or competences.
- Practice in which teachers experience too much emotional load due to personal involvement with students, for example, when they feel pushed beyond their own limits or worry too much about individual students.
- Practice in which teachers work alone or lack support from colleagues.

4.6 Discussion

Teachers' perceived well-being and enthusiasm are important constructs regarding teachers' long-term persistence in their job and their job performance. These constructs have clear affective connotations, but have rarely been rarely integrated with the research topic of teachers' emotions (Frenzel, 2014). In the present study, we researched teachers' emotions related to their classroom practice and how perceived emotions expressed individual experiences of autonomy, competence and relatedness, which are considered to be related to perceived well-being as conceptualized by SDT (Ryan et al., 2008).

Teachers in the present study did not report negative feelings caused by students' inappropriate classroom behavior, which was interesting because students' negative classroom behavior was determined in earlier research to be an important source of perceived negative emotions for teachers (Frenzel, 2014; Spilt et al., 2011).

Based on the present study and also supported by work of Aldrup, Klusmann, Lüdtke, Göllner and Trautwein, (2018) and of Jennings and Greenberg (2009), we argue that teacher-student interaction was used as a tool to reduce students' classroom misbehavior and subsequently, enhance the level of perceived positive classroom emotions in the classroom. For better understanding of how teachers used teacher-student interaction in practice as a tool for creating a more positive classroom atmosphere, we need to explain the context of teachers' classroom practices more explicitly.

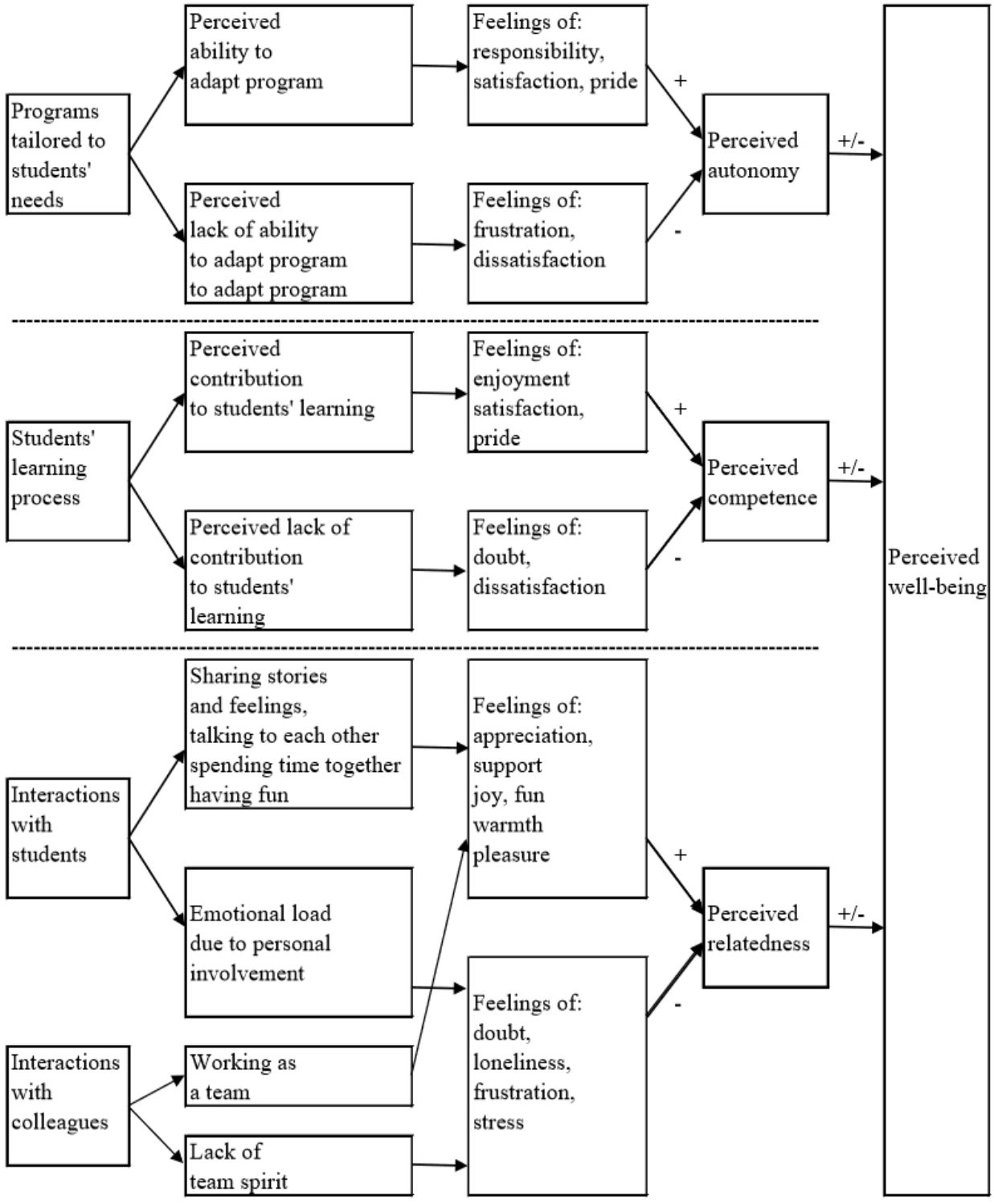

Figure 4.2 Conceptual model of the findings: perceived emotional classroom experiences lead to emotions that support or diminish teachers' perceived feelings of autonomy, competence and relatedness and their perceived well-being

The participating teachers in our study all worked in a special program for at-risk students and had the opportunity to build up strong relationships with students due to intensive contact with students, high teacher-student ratio and student-centered pedagogies that included coaching on individual learning goals. According to the literature, these characteristics are all considered to be beneficial for teacher-student relationships (Bosworth, 2014; Gándara, Larson, Mehan, & Rumberger, 1998; Sanders et al., 2016). We argue that this context enabled the teachers to notice even the smallest (negative) change in students' emotions and behavior; moreover, teachers interfered immediately when they noticed students' negative emotions or behavior. They took time to talk to students in order to understand students' inappropriate classroom behavior or emotions and responded in an effective and personal manner that strengthened the teacher-student relationship and reduced stress in the classroom setting for students as well as teachers.

Furthermore, teachers were well-prepared for emotions in their classroom, as they on occasion evoked students' emotions on purpose. Teachers wanted to learn students how to regulate these feelings in an appropriate manner in the classroom setting. We believe that by doing that, teachers contributed to a positive classroom climate, because they allowed students to express and discuss their emotions and feelings. In addition, teachers prepared coping strategies to handle students' emotions and also shared their own feelings with students. This proactive way of handling students' emotions reduced stress for teachers, as they were not surprised by emotions, and they took time to talk about it and share them with students, which reduced stress in their classroom setting. As mentioned before, the emotional mutual involvement between teacher and students caused intense emotions for teachers, such as pride and satisfaction, but also frustration, disappointment and doubt that even kept teachers awake at night. This provides insight that strong personal involvement in teacher-student relationships is not a magical solution for teachers' perceived well-being, but has ambiguous effects on teachers' emotions, although in our study it was seen to have the potential to benefit perceived well-being. As one teacher stated: *"When you recognize that they learned something from your lessons, it feels like the best reward ever"*.

And finally, we presume that not every teacher will encounter a positive experience of working with disengaged students. Based on the present study, we argue that classroom contexts in general, but especially contexts tailored to at-risk students, call for teachers who:

- Have special interest in this type of students, primarily for their behavior.
- Are excellent teachers, who are aware of the needs of at-risk students.

- Are open about their personal stories and experiences and are brave enough to manage the vulnerable feeling.
- Reflect critically on their own practices and upon their own role, competences and short-comings.
- Are open for colleague feedback and discussion.
- Are capable to define and guard their own limits.
- Take responsibility for their students and their program.

Chapter 5. Future proof! The sustainable character of programs for students at risk in secondary vocational education

Innovative initiatives in education often have problems with their sustainability. The present study investigated the sustainability of innovative programs for youth at risk in secondary vocational education in The Netherlands. The study was based on the idea that sustainable innovation comes with learning and development of teachers within the innovation. Two theoretical frameworks were used to guide the study: the Integrated Model for Sustainable Innovation (IMSI) and Self-Determination Theory (SDT). A qualitative research approach was chosen to study the perceptions of teachers and managers about the sustainable character of the programs. The concepts in IMSI are discussed, namely, flows of learning, context- conscious leadership, distributed leadership and vision and goals, together with the concepts in SDT, that is, autonomy, competence and relatedness.

5.1 Introduction

Project-based innovations in education have problems with their sustainability; and there are many examples to give of innovations that intensively have been developed, flourish for a while and then slowly disappear in the everyday hustle and bustle of the school. These innovations lack stability and the end of the financial resources often unfortunately also means the end of the innovation (Wopereis, Kirschner, Paas, Stoyanov, & Hendriks, 2005). Based on the work of Rogers (2003), problems with sustainability of innovations have more causes than simply financial causes, he posed that sustainability is a process of institutionalization in which the innovation must be spread over the organization. Rogers (2003) attributed a crucial role to the human capital in the process of institutionalization, expressed by the commitment to the innovation of all of the participants, the teachers on the one hand and the managers on the other.

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This commitment is an important part of sustainability because innovation often comes with new learning goals, learning activities or pedagogies and its success depends on the teachers' willingness change and adapt their practices (Kirschner, Hendriks, Paas, Wopereis, & Cordewener, 2004; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009). According to Rogers (2003), innovation occurs through adoption of the new ideas by the members of the social system within the innovation. The process is also reflected in the term 'learning organization', which represents the change in individuals as result of learning that is considered to be the nucleus of innovation (Crossan et al., 1999).

The present study focuses on sustainability of project-based innovation in education and investigates innovative programs in secondary vocational education (SVE) that were funded by the government and part of the project '*Playing for Success 15-23*'. The programs were assessed as 'good', by an external audit committee which means that the project goals were achieved, including sustainability. However the project was audited and judged right after the project period, when the programs had only been implemented in the schools for a short while; given the fact that time is a key element for sustainable innovation (Rogers, 2003) it is of interest to see whether these programs still exist after a longer period has elapsed. Therefore, three years after the programs were implemented, the present research was conducted as a follow-up study. Because sustainability depends on people's commitment and willingness to change, we focused upon the 'human factor' in the project-based innovation. We investigated the perceptions of teachers and managers who were engaged in the innovation regarding the sustainable character of the programs in SVE. We assume that to improve education, innovative initiatives must be developed and implemented; with this study, we aim to contribute to the knowledge of how these innovations are sustained in practiced.

5.2 Theoretical framework

5.2.1 Integrated Model for Sustainable Innovation (IMSI)

We used two theoretical frameworks to guide our study; the first is known as the Integrated Model for Sustainable Innovation (IMSI), based on Rikkerink et al., (2016) and developed from models for learning in organizations (Crossan et al., 1999) and leadership practices (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004). IMSI provides four concepts that characterizes sustainable innovation in education, namely, *flows of learning, context-conscious leadership, distributed leadership* and *vision and goals*.

IMSI flows of learning

The main starting point of IMSI is that learning processes of teachers are considered to be the backbone of educational innovation (Crossan et al., 1999; Rikkerink et al., 2016). This includes, in the first place, individual sense making of teachers with regard to new practices, as they attempt to fit the innovation into their existing beliefs and experience (Spillane et al., 2004). In addition, for sustainability, the innovation also requires the collective sense making by teachers and managers, for example, by sharing their thoughts, discussion and collective reflection (Rikkerink et al., 2016). This sense making is of significant importance for the change that comes along with innovation and is defined in IMSI as *flows of learning*. Individual and collective sense making drive people to explore new practices (feed forward flow of learning) and reflect upon or evaluate their practice (feedback flow of learning) as innovations are implemented in existing learning environments (Crossan et al, 1999). In these learning environments, stakeholders, such as parents, students and colleagues, have developed expectations, for example, addressing students' achievement. During the development of new practices, the innovating team must make sure to meet the expectations of the other stakeholders.

IMSI context-conscious leadership

The stakeholder expectations as well as settled standards and policy put pressure on the innovation and the more an innovation plans to change, the bigger the environmental pressure (O'Hara, Watson, & Kavan, 1999). For successful innovation, this contextual influence must be managed and the amount of change must be carefully dosed (Kirschner et al., 2004). Rikkerink et al. (2016) demonstrate that the amount of change must be adapted to the innovative capacity of the team. This *context-conscious leadership* creates balance between strategic leadership decisions, policy such as goals or vision, and teacher characteristics, including teachers' emotions and competences. Moreover, IMSI assumes the school manager must direct the process of innovation in line with existing policy and protect the team from too much information and contextual pressure (Rikkerink, 2011; Rikkerink et al., 2016).

IMSI distributed leadership

According to the work by Spillane et al. (2004), leadership in educational practice is not allocated to one person in the organization, but occurs in different levels of the school organization and can be formal as well as informal (*distributed leadership*). Rikkerink et al. (2016, p. 237) posed that 'leadership practices' can be pictured as the interaction between the

formal or informal leader, other actors and the situation, which represents the reciprocal interaction between the teacher, the manager and the school environment. The innovating team of teachers cannot be defined as obedient followers; they have their own ideas, experiences and beliefs regarding the innovation. Leadership activities are therefore spread within the social context of the innovation and apply to formal as well as informal leaders (Rikkerink, 2011; Rikkerink et al., 2016). Knowledge about the distributed leadership practices provides information for understanding the process of individual and collective sense making at different levels within the innovation.

IMSI vision and goals

For sustainable innovation, school managers at different levels of the organization must communicate with each other and pursue the same goals (Rikkerink, 2011; Rikkerink et al., 2016). IMSI considers clear goal-setting at all levels of the organization is an important determinant for the performance of the innovating team of teachers. Goals provide the innovative teams with clearer direction and allow them to determine better procedures and tasks; and it brings focus to their effort to get the job done. Furthermore, goal achievement is facilitated by the social structure of the innovating team which applies, from the perspective of distributed leadership, to all levels of the organization

5.2.2 Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

The other framework that guided the study is known as Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985), which addresses three concepts, namely, *autonomy, competence and relatedness.* According to SDT perceived feelings of autonomy, competence and relatedness are important for teachers' learning process, foremost because this contributes to self-regulated learning behavior and enhance feelings of interest and joy (Deci & Ryan, 2000), which are strong predictors for job performance as well as perceived well-being (Deci, Olafsen, & Ryan, 2017; Ryan & Deci 2001). SDT poses that motivation for learning is stimulated by support of teachers' perceived *autonomy,* which applies to opportunities to bring in ideas, opinions and personal experiences. In addition, feelings of autonomy also include the experience of being respected (Deci & Ryan, 2000), addressing the social context in which autonomous action is embedded. Teachers' perceived autonomy in innovation leaves an important role for school managers, for example, as they make sure teachers feel safe to change their individual ideas and respect the identities of individual teachers.

During innovation, teachers are challenged to develop new practices directed by the innovation goals and stakeholder expectations. For teachers and managers, this includes learning goals for students as well as personal goals and organizational goals. The opportunity to successfully contribute to meeting goals and standards comes along with feelings of *competence,* which is driven by people's desire to achieve goals and standards that are important to them (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Teachers reflect on how their personal goals, experiences and values fit with the innovation goals. Initiatives that have puzzling or trivial goals may hinder effective competence development if teachers struggle to match them with their personal experiences, values and goals.

SDT addresses the social aspect within learning as *relatedness* which addresses the need for people to connect with other people. Different types of relationships may evoke feelings of relatedness for teachers, for example, in their relationships with colleagues, but perceived relatedness may also be present in teachers' contact with students. SDT considers perceived relatedness to occur primarily in caring and safe relationships where teachers can share ideas and feelings with others (Deci & Ryan, 2000). SDT has been used to investigated motivation for learning in education (Haerens et al., 2015; Stroet et al., 2015; Van den Berghe et al., 2016).

These frameworks were chosen because they focus, from different perspectives, upon the learning that is the heart of sustainable innovation. The embrace of the concepts of autonomy, relatedness and competence in research on sustainable innovation in education adds "more depth to the discussion of innovation" (Mudambi, Mudambi, & Navarra, 2007, p. 352) and can help to better understand characteristics of sustainable innovative initiatives.

For this research we investigated innovative programs for students at risk in SVE. We wanted to know how teachers and managers perceived the sustainable character of the programs using the four concepts of IMSI that are proven to be important for sustainable innovation in education, namely, *flows of learning, context-conscious leadership, distributed leadership,* and *vision and goals* (Rikkerink, 2011; Rikkerink et al., 2016). For better understanding we researched how the concepts of SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000): *autonomy, relatedness* and *competence* were presented within the sustainable characteristics of the programs. We considered the learning of teachers to be a key element for sustainable programs and we aim that by using the two different frameworks we deepen the knowledge of how sustainable innovation occurs in practice. We addressed the following research questions:

1. How do characteristics of programs for at-risk students, contribute to sustainability based on how the four concepts for sustainable innovation are perceived by teachers and managers?
2. How are autonomy, competence and relatedness manifested in the concepts for sustainable innovation as perceived by teachers and managers?

5.3 Methods

5.3.1 Context of the study

Four different SVE schools in The Netherlands were invited to participate this study. These schools worked closely together to create four programs for students at risk. Three years after implementing the programs, all four schools were asked to join the present follow-up study and three schools responded immediately and positively. The fourth school was still enacting their implemented program and we contacted all teachers and managers that were involved with the development of the program; however, they were not working in the program anymore. We contacted the new teachers and managers and they confirmed that the program still existed and were enthusiastic about the program, but they did not respond positively to joining the follow-up study. This school was therefore excluded from this study.

5.3.2 Data collection

For data collection a multi-method approach was used. First a total of six interviews were held, two at each participating school. One interview was held with the innovating team of teachers and one interview was held with the manager of the innovating team. For school A we interviewed the manager, two teachers and two pre-service teachers, for school B we interviewed the manager and two teachers and for school C we interviewed the manager and one teacher. Each interview took about an hour and a half. Before the interviews, the teachers and managers were informed about the goals of the study and they gave permission for anonymous use of the information they gave. The interview involved the use four supporting descriptions. The goal of the descriptions was to clarify the four concepts of ISMI (*flows of learning, context-conscious leadership, distributed leadership, vision and goals*). Before the interview started, the participants were asked to read the description of the first concept (*flows of learning*) and could ask clarifying questions, after the concept was clear, the participants responded to the interview questions belonging to that concept, subsequently the participants read the description of the second concept (*context-conscious leadership*), again could ask

clarifying questions and responded to the interview questions, this proceeded until the participants responded to all of the interview questions. The six interviews were transcribed and anonymized, to strengthen construct validity we asked the participants to read, supplement and correct the reports (Yin, 2014). Two interviewees (manager of school A and manager of school C) asked for adjustments, which was because they wanted to nuance their words or add an explanation for their words. After the adjustments were made, both agreed with the content and we included their interviews in the database.

Second, a document study was conducted to investigate one concept of IMSI, namely, the (described) *vision and goals*. The other concepts of IMSI (*flows of learning, context-conscious leadership* and *distributed leadership*) applied to innovative processes and were not expected to be present in documents. A total of 35 documents associated with the project were collected. Eleven documents were connected to a specific school and 24 documents applied to all schools (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1

Overview of collected documents for every school

School	Type of document	Number
School A	Program description	1
	Research report	1
School B	Program description	1
	Research report	3
School C	Program description	1
	Research reports	4
Project documents applying to all schools	Meeting notes	10
	Project reports	5
	Other	9

5.3.3 Data analysis

After collecting the data, the researchers went through a series of steps to analyze the data. To answer research question 1, we used two different sources of data (interviews and documents); we executed the data analysis for both sources separately and then integrated the information in the results section.

Step 1

To answer research question 1, analysis was done using a deductive approach based on the concepts of the IMSI. All data were analyzed by the head researcher and to enhance reliability the data analysis was discussed with the second author. After the first round of analyses the original written interviews were reread and compared to the results to check that no information was lost during the data analysis.

Step 2

In addition for research question 1 document analysis the head researcher selected the phrases that described program vision and goals by using signal words (program goal, learning goal, sub goal, vision and mission). These phrases were discussed with the second author with respect to their content.

Step 3

For research question 2, the data were analyzed again with a SDT-based framework using the same deductive approach as described in step 1.

Step 4

To answer research question 2, we selected the phrases that were coded twice, meaning that these phrases were coded both as a concept from IMSI and as a concept from SDT.

Step 5

We analyzed the double coded phrases in depth, based on the question of how autonomy, competence and relatedness were manifested within the IMSI concepts.

5.4 Results

We used a multi-method approach to study the sustainable character of a program for at-risk students at three SVE schools using the frameworks of IMSI and SDT. In this section we present the results separately for every school.

5.4.1 Results school A

The results for school A using the IMSI framework are presented first, followed by those for the SDT concepts. For an overview of the results for school A, see Table 5.2.

IMSI flows of learning

Teachers and managers experienced warm and open contact with their colleagues, and they discussed and shared their opinions and ideas during formal and informal meetings. The innovating team (teachers and manager) had to handle stakeholder expectations mainly regarding explanation, and they mentioned that a big task is to explain and give information about the goals of the program in order to handle and meet stakeholder expectations within the broader context of the SVE school.

IMSI context-conscious leadership

The teachers and the manager agreed that constantly developing new practices was important in this program, first for improvement of the program, but also for themselves: "*It is fun to develop and create new learning activities".* They used their own networks, both within and outside the school, to bring in new ideas, for example, for learning activities or learning materials. They also searched for opportunities to adapt their new practices to the context of the school. In addition, the manager explained that the physical learning environment was sometimes a restriction for the program, as rules and habits were not always matched to students' needs, for example, during traineeship. The manager and teachers perceived the managers' role as a linchpin primarily for organizational and financial aspects; the managers wanted to create an organization that facilitated the execution and development of the program by teachers.

IMSI distributed leadership

Both teachers and manager felt that they worked together as a team. They agreed that they discussed the program based on equality and searched together for improvement; furthermore, they experienced a lot of freedom to make decisions in their work. Teachers felt that they had the opportunity to ask their manager for advice, and also the other way around. Teachers sometimes experienced that responsibilities for details were not always clear at all levels of the organization and they felt the necessity to discuss that with their manager.

IMSI vision and goals

The vision and goals of the program were described in documents and addressed goals for student outcomes, teachers' pedagogical approach, learning activities and organizational goals aimed at the number of students and finances for example. Program goals were important for

the manager in managing his team of teachers; program goals were often discussed and strengthened by teachers and the manager in formal as well as informal meetings. The manager only wanted to intervene in the work of the teachers when program goals were threatened. Teachers as well as the manager experienced shared program goals, although they report vagueness on some procedures; however, they did not experience this as a problem: "*It is not a problem, we just have to discuss it over and over again"*. Teachers mentioned that although they differed slightly in their pedagogical approaches, they had the same program goals, which was confirmed by the manager. However, teachers and managers differed in their view for the target group of the program, and they all mentioned that they discussed and talked about that a lot. According to the teachers the program goals were not visible enough for parents and stakeholders. The manager explained that the vision and goals were not clear to everyone in detail at all levels of the organization. Stakeholders were mainly involved at an organizational level such as financial and staff decisions, and not in goal setting.

Autonomy within IMSI

Teachers as well as managers experienced a lot of freedom in their work, in the sense that they experienced the opportunity to do their jobs autonomously. Teachers had to report to their manager for financial choices and the organization of the program, but they could freely develop their pedagogical approach and learning activities. They experienced trust from their manager and respect for their individual character. The manager reported that autonomy very much depended on the teachers' competence; good teachers meant more autonomy and less controlling behavior by the manager. Furthermore, the manager reported restrictions of autonomy in the school context, as there were financial and organizational limits. According to the teachers too much autonomy worked contrarily; the felt they had to work together at all levels of the organization in order to get the job done.

Competence within IMSI

Teachers experienced appreciation for their work from colleagues at the school as well as from the manager. They reported that they had an enormous drive to constantly develop and renew their practice to reach the program goals. Teachers had the feeling that they contributed positively to the program goals and they were convinced that they had the competences to reach the program goals; moreover, they experienced that their job was important for the sustainability of the program at other levels of the organization: *"If we reach the program goals, it will be okay at all the other levels of the organization"*.

Relatedness within IMSI

Teacher as well as managers reported an open, fair and pleasant atmosphere in their relationships. Teachers experienced equality and respect and they felt safe to share their feelings and opinions, even in discussions. Both teachers and the manager tried to help each other's practice by providing ideas and feedback. Teachers felt that they were in a team in order to reach the program goals: "*We feel we are connected because we have to do this together*".

Table 5.2

Summary of the results for school A

Flows of learning	Vision and goals	Distributed leadership	Context-conscious leadership
- Formal and informal meetings - Sharing and discussion of ideas and opinions by innovative team - Providing information about the program to handle stakeholder expectations - Expectations for target group differed between stakeholders	- Clear goals - Different pedagogical approaches of teachers - Differences in views of the program target group between teachers and managers - Detailed goals not shared and discussed with stakeholders at organizational levels	- Working as a team by teachers and managers - Equality in discussion and meetings - Freedom to make decisions - Lack of clarity sometimes regarding responsibilities at all levels of the organization	- Looking for opportunities to bring in new practices - Restriction of new ideas by physical learning environment - Manager as facilitator

Autonomy	Competence	Relatedness
- Freedom for teachers and managers to do their job - Respect for teachers' individual characteristics - Report on organization and financial choices - Restriction for autonomy as far as contextual factors - Autonomy related to teachers' competence - Contrary effect of too much autonomy	- Competence support for teachers in their work from manager and colleagues - Active contribution to program goals by teachers, an important experience	- Open and friendly atmosphere - Safety to share feelings and opinions - Discussion of issues by teachers and managers on equal basis - Helpful feedback provided to each other by teachers and managers - Feeling of connection between team members

5.4.2 Results school B

The results for school B using the framework of IMSI are presented first, followed by those for the SDT concepts. For an overview of the results for school B, see Table 5.3.

IMSI flows of learning

Teachers reported that they had to make sense of the program for themselves by reflecting on their practices alone and together. According to the manager, teachers learned from reflection and development of new practices because the program vision and program goals differed compared to regular school contexts. The manager suggested it was his role to stimulate this process of reflection and learning. The manager posed that the traditional pictures of classroom learning and the role of teachers hindered the innovative development of the program: "*We are switching between matching the vision of the program and fit within the context of the school with its expectations"*. It takes time to change these old pictures and convince the teachers that new practices are effective. The teachers also asked questions about how to show effectiveness for the students: "*I was struggling with that also … you don't change a student in 8 weeks, it is about the small things"* and *"classes and tests are very easily measurable and here I'm thinking how do we know we reached the goal with a student"*.

Teachers experienced that expectations from parents, colleagues and students played a role in the program. In addition, expectations of schools, for example, for academic achievement, were experienced by the teachers as well as the manager: *"Schools have difficulties explaining why students are placed out of school for 8 weeks and what students learn in the program, everyone is worried about the grades"*. The manager commented that expectations were discussed with parents and students before joining the program, and teachers confirmed that they could always find a solution to meeting the expectations of the other stakeholders by communicating and explaining program goals.

Teachers experience support for the program in the school context, although not everyone knew the program goals and pedagogical approach exactly. For this support, it was important to explain the program and inform stakeholders about it.

IMSI context-conscious leadership

Teachers did not have a clear picture of the engagement of every stakeholder within the program organization. In addition, teachers were aware of the influence of stakeholders on the

sustainability of the program: "*The smaller the school, the less money you have for this program"*. According to the teachers, constant development of the program was part of the vision, and teachers noted that they always were looking around for innovative ideas. The teachers stated that they had ideas about further development of the program, but they mentioned financial restrictions. These innovative ideas applied to learning activities as well as cooperation with stakeholders in the school context, for example, about special care. The manager reported that further development of the program did not have enough focus from the managers and that teachers were not stimulated enough to bring in new practices. The manager commented that innovative ideas were not discussed and developed due to too little contact between managers and teachers. The manager's role was experienced by both teachers and manager as a facilitator primarily on a financial level, not as bringing in innovative ideas.

IMSI distributed leadership

Teachers experienced a lot of freedom to shape the program activities and their pedagogical approach. In addition, they reported little connection within the program between stakeholders at different levels of the organization. They had to account for financial choices to their manager, but they felt that was the only important thing: *"Except for financial issues we don't have to account for anything"*. Teachers were focused explicitly upon their practice with students and not upon the mission or positioning of the program in the school, which they saw as the responsibility of the managers. However the teachers perceive their dependence: "*I hope we can continue the program…. at our school that is no surety… it takes a lot of money*". The manager used program goals and vision for managing his team; however, teachers were free to reach the goals in their own way. He reported high levels of freedom in his work, which according to him was not always a good thing: "*None of my managers asks me about the program, that feels not comfortable*" and could be interpreted as little engagement. He emphasized that connection between stakeholders at the different levels of the organization was necessary to strengthen the program: "*For me it is inconvenient, it is important to have the opportunity to discuss things with each other*". He emphasized the unpleasant feeling of being on your own and suggested that connection between the different stakeholders was important for the future success of the program.

IMSI vision and goals

Vision and goals were explicitly described in documents regarding pedagogical approaches and student outcomes, goals at the organizational level addressed the number of students and finances. Teachers experienced that they shared the program goals and vision; in addition they mentioned that they interpreted the goals and vision individually. They commented that program goals were clear at all levels of the program organization and formed the heart of the program. They experienced that a sense making process went on, because the program goals and pedagogical approach were frequently discussed by the teachers. The manager confirmed that his colleague managers shared the program goals and vision; however, at higher levels of the organization managers were not familiar with the program. The manager and teachers mentioned vagueness about the mission of the program (future perspective) and noted that the position this program will have in the future was not clear for them.

Autonomy within IMSI

Teachers experienced that they could autonomously shape their practice as long as they worked on program goals. According to the manager, freedom for teachers led to reflection and perceived ownership. Teachers did not experience controlling behavior by their manager and thought that their autonomy was based on trust and expertise, which was confirmed by the manager. The manager emphasized that autonomy could only flourish if there was frequently and well-structured connection between involved stakeholders; in addition, he stated that there was too little connection at this point. Furthermore, in his opinion autonomy asks also required self-reflection and evaluation. The manager had to make sure teachers had the right qualities and attitude. In addition, the manager experienced a highly autonomous position for himself, which he felt was unpleasant.

Competence within IMSI

Teachers were convinced of their own competences for classroom practice; they only had doubts about the future of the program. In addition, teachers sometimes struggled with how to make explicit their contribution to learning goals for students: "*We now use feedback from parents to determine if goals are reached with students"*. Both issues did not decrease their confidence: "*Everyone know this is a great program and it is working, but what they want in future we don't know".*

The manager stated that this program asked for teachers who could reflect and evaluate their own practice. Teachers had to develop their own competences because the program goals and

vision differed compared to regular educational practice. The manager also experienced that he had to develop his competences in order to create support for the program at all levels.

Relatedness within IMSI

The manager emphasized the importance of relationships and connection at the vertical level of the organization as well as the horizontal level. To keep the program successful in the future, all stakeholders had to be in contact with each other and discussing the program goals, vision and future mission, which was currently not the case.

Teachers mentioned the importance of relationships with other stakeholders for support of the program within the school and for reaching the program goals with students. They also experienced positive relationships with each other and mentioned they supplemented each other.

Table 5.3

Summary of the results for school B

Flows of learning	Vision and goals	Distributed leadership	Context-conscious leadership
- Expectations of students, parents and schools for academic achievement - Management of expectations by communication and explaining of program goals - Support of the program in the school context - Learning by teachers because of the different program goals and vision compared to regular education - Struggling by teachers to make the effectiveness of the program more explicit - Development hindered by traditional pictures of education	- Shared and clear program goals for teacher and manager but not at higher management levels within the school context - Frequent discussion of program goals by teachers - No clear picture of future mission and position of the program within the school	- Much freedom for teachers to develop the program - Use of program goals by manager to direct his team - Too much autonomy experienced by manager, seen as a threat to future success of the program	- Further development seen by teachers as part of the vision of the program - Clear picture of all engaged stakeholders lacking for teachers - Too little focus upon further development of the program at manager's level, seen by the manager - Manager as facilitator

Autonomy	Competence	Relatedness
- Autonomy based on trust and expertise - Autonomy as requiring teachers who are able to evaluate their practice - Autonomy flourishing through connection with all involved stakeholders - Too little connection between the stakeholders at this moment	- Development of teachers' and manager's competences because of different goals compared to regular school context - Teachers are convinced of their own competences for executing the program, however the struggle to make achievement of program goals explicit	- Too little connection between stakeholders at horizontal and vertical levels of organization - Importance of relatedness for support and future success of the program - Positive relationships between teachers

5.4.3 Results School C

The results for school C using the IMSI framework are presented first, followed by those for the SDT concepts. For an overview of the results for school C, see Table 5.4.

IMSI flows of learning

The teacher experienced freedom to develop the program together with her colleagues. She also mentioned that the process of collective sense making within the program sometimes led to discussion and arguments due to differences in approaches and views. She experienced these discussions sometimes as emotional; however, the goal was to work together and support each other. Furthermore, she perceived support from her manager in the process of collective sense making and the manager saw her own role as facilitating on the organizational level as well as the personal level. The teachers had meetings to reflect and evaluate with each other, sometimes in groups and sometimes alone with the manager. Teacher and manager both agreed that students and parents rarely had expectations of the program: "*These students don't have any expectations of school anymore, they are beyond that*". Moreover the teacher stated that most students had an oppositional attitude towards the program and expected to fail again, and parents were worried about their child. Colleagues from outside the program had different expectations and knowledge about the program. The teacher stated that they communicated explicitly about program goals with teachers from outside the program in order to get expectations clear: "*We always start by getting expectations clear from both sites*". The teachers and the manager had experienced that lack of clarity about expected results led to disappointment and questions about the effectiveness of the program. At the organizational level, expectations were focused on student outcomes; however, academic achievement was not included in the program goals. For the manager, the effectiveness of the program depended on the competences and experience of the teachers. The manager stated that the program was part of the total structure of the school and she emphasized the importance of the other stakeholders at all levels of the organization: "*We are not the enemy, we are one of you and we do this together".* According to the manager, to build a relationship with stakeholders you had to create a stable, visible and financially healthy program within the school.

IMSI context-conscious leadership

The teacher and the manager were convinced that there were plenty of options in the school context for further development of the program. The teacher reported that she uses structures at the school to develop special care for students: *"We use the pathways that are already in the school to get special care for students with special needs"*. According to the manager, the school context could be used for further development of the learning activities within the program. In addition, both the teacher and the manager saw opportunities to transfer the expertise that was developed during the innovation to the regular school context. This applied especially to the pedagogical approach to students and teachers' professional development. The teacher experienced that sometimes other stakeholders had a different view of the pedagogical approach. The teachers and the managers both saw no contextual restrictions for program development, if there were no financial restrictions.

IMSI distributed leadership

The teacher experienced herself as the heart of the innovation; she was free to develop the program within the framework of the school and that provided by the manager. For the teacher, this frame restricted her freedom sometimes, although she understood and agreed with the choices her manager made. The teacher experienced her team as self-responsible and perceived her manager as a facilitator for handling organizational issues, sources of information and personal support for the team. The teacher perceived direction from her manager regarding program goals and collective sense making: "*It is the role of the manager to make sure we find each other*". She felt very responsible for reaching the goals together with her colleagues: "*This program is my baby, so I feel responsible"*. In addition, the teacher felt that she was the most experienced member of the team and therefore had to take the lead. The teacher and manager had to account for the program at all levels of the organization; this accountability was primarily focused on the program's goals and finances: "*We are very transparent about the financial site of our program, we tell exactly what we did for whom"*. The teacher as well as the manager experienced a lot of freedom in their jobs as long as program goals were reached. The manager was convinced that teachers were experts and that they had to experience freedom to do their jobs. The teachers had to supplement each other with expertise. It was the role of the manager to create balance within the team of teachers. The manager experienced that she built the foundation upon which teacher could build the program. She noted that freedom for teachers led to a very well adapted program for students.

The manager underlined the role of communication to keep stakeholders at all levels of the organization informed: "*It is very important that you have your back covered at all levels of the organization and to have your finance in order".*

IMSI vision and goals

Teacher and manager agreed that they had the same vision and program goals that provided a frame for learning activities and pedagogical approach. According to the manager, not all stakeholders at all organizational levels were familiar with the vision and goals.
Goals and vision were explicitly described in documents for this school, with a lot of focus on pedagogical approaches; according to the teacher and the manager this was also a repeated point of discussion between stakeholders within the innovation. The teacher was not convinced that the vision focusing on the pedagogical approach was totally understood by all team members: "*I doubt everyone really understands the vision of our program, that has to be sharpened again, what we are doing now*". She felt like she had to explain the vision and goals over and over again, not only to her colleagues in the program but also to other stakeholders. The manager agreed that the level at which the vision was lived through differed between the teachers.

Autonomy within IMSI

The manager thought together with her team of teachers; in addition, the teacher experienced no control or restriction from the manager. The teacher felt she had the space to shape the program together with her colleagues. The manager also experienced a lot of autonomy in her job and experienced her job as building a foundation for the program. According to the manager and the teacher, the context of the school gave the program opportunities for autonomous development of the program and provided financial and organizational restrictions. The teacher reflected that autonomy was not a matter of the more, the better. She posed that contextual structures helped the innovation to fit into the school: "*I fully agree we have better structures now in the program, but it took me some of my autonomy".* The teacher experienced no pressure from standards; she was convinced that explaining the pedagogical approach to other stakeholders contributed to autonomy in this program.
According to the teacher and the manager, autonomy in this program was based on trust and expertise: "*She assumes you take your responsibility, until she experiences otherwise"* and "*I see what they do and I think it is very good*". The manager was convinced that autonomy for

teachers contributed to the quality of the program; she also underlined the importance of collective sense making: "*The teachers have all freedom to do with each other what is necessary for the students"*. According to the manager, this collective sense making was based on program goals and the developed pedagogical approach, and also influenced by teachers' individual characteristics and experiences.

Competence within IMSI

The teacher was convinced of her own expertise and the effectiveness of the pedagogical approach, she developed in order to reach the program goals with students.
According to the manager, development of new practices asked for special competences: "*Not every teacher is able to do this"*. She also suggested that teachers' competence was related to the effectiveness of the program for students and that her teachers were experts: *"I think you have to leave that to the teachers, they are experts, they know what to do"*. The teacher thought that competence had to do with experience and brought with it responsibility for the program. She felt responsible for coaching and helping her les experienced colleagues and she expected her colleagues and herself to have the right attitude to develop their competencies in order to reach the program goals with students: "*I don't want a fixed mindset, I want a growth mindset"*. In this school, development of teachers' competences and the pedagogical approach was an important issue. This developmental process was not always easy and took a lot of energy for the teacher. However, this process was viewed by the teacher and the manager as necessary for reaching the program goals with students.
The teacher experienced support from her manager related to her feelings of competence: "*She said to me, don't let them blame you for this situation, this not your fault"*. The manager underlined the importance of clear program goals and she felt competent to reach those goals.

Relatedness within IMSI

According to the teacher and the manager, relationships were beneficial for development of the program. Personal relationships with stakeholders facilitated development of the program and the other way around, as teachers in the program could support teachers in regular education.
Within the program the teacher experienced a warm and caring relationship with her manager. She saw her manager was supportive for her as a person as well as for organizational issues. This was confirmed by the manager.

The teacher furthermore experienced a positive relationship with her colleagues as persons; however, she also reported difficulties in her relationship with her colleagues: "*We have conflicts and I was very emotional, but we have to supplement each other, because we both have competences".* The manager agreed that conflicts were sometimes part of the innovative character of the program; she focused in her leadership practice on connecting the teachers and supporting them.

Table 5.4

Summary of the results for school C

Flows of learning	Vision and goals	Distributed leadership	Context-conscious leadership
- No expectations from students and parents - Communication by teachers to stakeholders to get clear expectations - Shaping of the program in relation to other stakeholders - Collective sense making as leading to discussion and arguments - Manager's role as facilitating teachers' collective sense making	- Shared goals for teachers and managers - Different levels of 'living through' the vision and goals between the teachers - Necessity for constant discussion of vision and goals at all levels of the organization including the teachers	- Much freedom in their work experienced by teacher and manager - Frame for teachers to develop provided by manager - Program goals used by manager for direction - Accounting for the program at all levels of the organization required for managers and teachers - Importance of communication to connect all stakeholders in the innovation	- Mutual connection between context and the program - Benefits from context for program innovation and contribution of the innovative ideas to regular educational context at the school

Autonomy	Competence	Relatedness
- Perceived autonomy in their work for teacher and manager - Based on trust and expertise - Some restrictions from context - No control by her manager experienced by teacher - Contribution of autonomy for teacher to a better program or students	- Relationship of teachers' competences to effectiveness of the program for students - Development of competences as a constant challenge for teachers - Support for teachers' competences from the manager - Importance of reaching program goals for support of the program at all levels of the organization emphasized by the manager	- Benefits of positive relationships are beneficial for program development - Conflicts are part of the innovative character of the program - Manager's role is to connect the teachers and support them individually as well as on the organizational level

5.5 Conclusions

5.5.1 The concepts of IMSI

For this study, we investigated the sustainable characteristics of innovative programs for at-risk students in SVE and we researched how the four concepts of IMSI are perceived by teachers and managers (research question 1). For School A, *flows of learning* were important for teachers and managers, and collective sense making was done together by sharing and discussing program goals and pedagogical approaches. Stakeholder expectations were managed by providing information and explaining program goals. *Vision and goals* were described and perceived as providing direction for development of the program; differences in pedagogical approaches were appreciated and respected as long as program goals were reached. The teachers and the manager worked together as a team based on equality (*distributed leadership*), whereas teachers were seen as experts in classroom practice and were actively engaged in development of new practices and future development of the program. The manager was considered as a facilitator for development at the organizational level (*context-conscious leadership*).

At School B the teachers and manager experienced sense making as an important theme for themselves; however, the teachers and the manager experienced little sense making together (*flows of learning*). Both the teachers and the manager experienced expectations from the school, parents and children, primarily regarding on academic outcomes and they managed the expectations by providing information on program goals. The manager experienced also the influence of the stakeholder expectations on the development of the program (*flows of learning*). The teachers perceived development of new practices within the context of the school as well as outside this context as an important part of their job; however, this was not stimulated or directed by their manager (*context-conscious leadership*), who took on the role of facilitator at the organizational level. The teachers and the manager reported shared and described program goals and teachers discussed these goals with each other; but they did not discuss them with the manager or other stakeholders (*vision and goals*). Both the teachers and the manager perceived little connection between different levels of the innovation and no structural meetings were planned with stakeholders at different levels of the innovation, which was perceived as a shortcoming (*distributed leadership*). The teachers as well as the manager were unsure about the future position of the program within the school context.

For School C, a main theme was collective sense making, which was not always easy as teachers differed in their opinions about the pedagogical approach (*flows of learning*). Teachers as well as the manager handled the expectations of other stakeholders through

providing information and explanation of program goals. Program goals were shared and described, and communication and transparency about these goals was seen as important for the sustainability of the program (*vision and goals*). The teacher and the manager experienced high levels of teamwork and provided feedback to each other; in addition, they both respected each other's expertise (*distributed leadership*). The teacher and the manager were convinced that the school context could be used to further strengthen the program; however, the other way around was also the case, as innovative ideas could strengthen regular educational practices (*context-conscious leadership*).

5.5.2 The concepts of SDT within IMSI

For research question 2 we analyzed how SDT concepts *autonomy, competence* and *relatedness* were manifested in the concepts of IMSI. At school A, the teachers as well as the manager experienced a lot of autonomy in their work. According to the manager, the level of autonomy given was as related to the competence of teachers, yet too much autonomy was perceived by the teachers as undesirable. Restrictions to autonomy were perceived as arising through contextual, financial and organizational factors. Teachers and managers perceived a lot of connection and safety to share their ideas and feedback, and worked together on an e equal basis. Teachers furthermore felt supported in their competence by their manager and colleagues and were convinced that they actively contributed to meeting the program goals which was perceived as important for the future of the program.

At School B, the teachers perceived a lot of autonomy in their work, which was based on trust and expertise and confirmed by the manager. In addition, the manager perceived himself as having too much autonomy in his job, which was interpreted as little engagement by the other stakeholders. The teachers experienced the relationships between them as positive; however, they perceived little connection with stakeholders at the other levels within the innovation. In addition, the manager was also critical and stated that there was almost no relationship between the stakeholders, which he perceived as a threat for the future. The manager reported high levels of trust in the competence of his teachers and furthermore perceived that teachers had to develop their competences due to the innovative character of the program, which differed from normal classroom practice.

At school C, both the manager and the teacher perceived a lot of autonomy in their work; they had to account for the program at all levels of the organization, but did not experience controlling behavior by the stakeholders. According to them autonomy was based on trust in their competences. Teachers at this school were constantly challenged to develop their

competences, with support of the manager. Relationships between the manager and the teacher were perceived as warm and open on organizational issues as well as personal issues. The teacher perceived the role of the manager as being responsible for the connection between all stakeholders.

5.6 Discussion

In this study we investigated the sustainable character of three innovative programs in SVE in The Netherlands. We would first like to note that such innovative programs are not exclusive to the Dutch context. Innovative programs for youth are presented in global literature from the USA, Australia and the United Kingdom as well as Scandinavia and Asia (Mawn et al., 2017; Wilson, Lipsey, & Derzon, 2003). In addition, problems with the sustainability of these programs are also not limited to the Dutch context and have received global attention (Adelman & Taylor, 2014; Meki Kombe & Herman, 2017). One common characteristic of innovative programs around the world is that they often depend on external financial resources provided by the government and are created foremost as an answer for problems such as youth unemployment or school drop-out, and not primarily for academic achievement (Cameron, 2009, Mawn et al., 2017). Implementation of the innovative insights and approaches to strengthen education is not self-evident. Han and Weiss (2005) underlined in their review study the important role of the teacher in transferring innovative ideas into regular practices. This is also expressed by the 'human factor' in the work by Kirschner et al. (2004) and in the work of Rogers (2003) that underlines that teachers have to adopt new ideas and practices.

5.6.1 What do we learn?

For this study we investigated the sustainable character of three programs at three different schools and we presented the results as three different cases. Yet, similarities between the schools are visible. First, teachers as well as managers at all schools underlined the importance of relationships between the stakeholders who were engaged with the innovation regarding sustainability, support and further development. At one school (B), the poor connection between stakeholders was perceived as a threat for the future success of the program. In this study relationships were perceived by the participants as an important factor for collective sense making (flows of learning), such as discussion of learning activities and pedagogical approaches, but also sharing of ideas and thoughts. Relationships were also important for creating the right stakeholder expectations, for example through sharing

program goals. For sustainability, it was important that relationships were built up and supported in a structural manner, which was seen in this study as a task for the manager. We believe that building up relationships and connection between stakeholders is an important issue during innovation in education, which cannot be left to run its course, but must be planned, created, monitored and evaluated on purpose.

In this study, all teachers as well as managers experienced a lot of autonomy in their jobs, which was seen beneficial as for the quality of the programs and for adaptation of the program to students' learning goals. However, all participants also mentioned that too much autonomy was a threat for sustainability. We consider the concepts of feedback flows of learning (IMSI) and context-conscious leadership (IMSI) to be important for creating an anchor for the program, because these concepts link the innovation with the existing educational context. We suggest that for sustainability, context-conscious leadership and feedback flows of learning must be balanced with support of teachers' perceived autonomy, which has to be a point of interest for managers.

5.6.2 The concepts IMSI and SDT

For the present study, we used two theoretical frameworks to investigate the sustainable character of three programs in SVE. The IMSI considers the learning of individuals as well as collective learning to be the heart of innovation (Rikkerink et al., 2016). SDT was developed to explain the quality of motivation for learning (Deci & Ryan, 1985). We conclude, based on this study that there is close connection between the concepts within these two frameworks, and we elaborate on that in the next section.

First, we address that autonomy and competence (both SDT) play an important role for feedforward flows of learning (IMSI). Teachers experienced freedom and the space to design, develop and evaluate the program, which was based on trust in their expertise. Furthermore, teachers as well as managers experienced that collective sense making within the innovation leads to competence development. In addition, we conclude that feedback flows of learning (IMSI) restricted the autonomy of teachers and managers, due to expectations from stakeholders within the context of the innovation.

Second, the managers in this program worked on an equal basis with the teachers, which characterizes the type of leadership within the innovation. The managers trusted the expertise of teachers and took on the role of facilitator more than the role of developer. The concept of distributed leadership (IMSI) presumes that teachers are not obedient followers, but experts with their own opinions and attitudes. In this study, all teachers experienced respect for their

expertise and personal characteristics, which was underlined by the perception that they worked on qual basis with their manager and provided feedback and ideas. We consider distributed leadership to be important in this innovation not only for sustainability but also for perceived autonomy and competence.

Third, context-conscious leadership (IMSI) addresses the awareness of teachers and managers of options for developing new practices. Teachers perceived that they had the opportunity to implement and experiment with new innovative ideas, and they utilized possibilities within the context of the school as well as outside this context. Yet, the managers (and sometimes also the teachers) protected the innovation for becoming too much autonomous by guarding the connection of the program with the school context, achievement of the program goals and finances.

Last, according to this study, positive relationships (SDT) were perceived as fundamental for the three innovative processes of IMSI: distributed leadership, flows of learning and context-conscious leadership. These concepts were embedded in the social structure of the innovation, and negative or indifferent relationships with stakeholders were seen as a threat for sustainability. In addition, the teachers and the managers experienced their relationships as personal, intense, warm and caring, which represents emotional relationships that go beyond just program goal achievement, but can be considered to be beneficial for feed forward flows of learning and distributed leadership.

This study was the first attempt to connect a framework for sustainable innovation (IMSI) with a theory addressing motivation for learning (SDT), and we are convinced that the present study shows that motivation for learning and sustainable innovation are related to each other based on theory and practice. Yet, we are aware that this study presents the preliminary conclusions, and we assume that more research is necessary to understand exactly how concepts of both frameworks are connected to each other. This study provides evidence that the sustainable character of an innovative program in the context of SVE is not just about finances, procedures and targets. It is primarily about relationships, trust in expertise, sharing, freedom and communication. This applies to all levels of the innovation and we are convinced that this must be taken seriously during the innovation process.

Chapter 6. Recapitulation and discussion

This chapter summarizes the findings of the four sub-studies presented in this dissertation. First an overview of the study is provided and then the outcomes per sub-study are summarized. Next, the overall conclusion is presented, which is followed by a discussion of the research findings and a reflection on both research methodology applied and the outcomes of the study. The chapter ends with recommendations for research and practice.

6.1 Overview of the study

The study presented in this dissertation originates from a problem that is known as school drop-out, which concerns youth who leave school without obtaining a certification, and is considered to be a problem for individuals as well as for society (De Witte et al., 2013). Research about drop-out prevention measures taken at the macro level in the Netherlands provided useful insights on the overall effectiveness of that prevention policy (Cabus, 2012), but also evoked questions about how its impact has been realized in practice at the micro level and why students (don't) benefit from it. The study was conducted in order to expand the research-based knowledge about effective drop-out prevention by researching in depth one intervention, implemented in four programs for at-risk youth that were developed with and within four SVE schools in The Netherlands.

The studies programs were based on a program for primary school children in the United Kingdom that was aimed at enhancing motivation for learning (Sharp et al., 2004, 2007) and inspired by the ideal that sports can be used as a vehicle for social and emotional learning and re-engaging youth. Such an approach might indeed have potential (Baily, 2005; Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2009). However, the effects of learning through sports depend highly on contextual factors and the quality of the program (Hartmann, 2003; Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011; Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009). Program quality concerns the relevance of and needs for the program, as well as its theoretical foundation, its practicality (expected and actual usability in practice), its consistency (a logical and cohesive program structure), its effectiveness (expected and actual student outcomes), and its sustainability, which addresses the long-term implementation of the program (Nieveen, 1999, 2009; Rikkerink et al., 2016). The research was guided by the following main question:

According to the perceptions of managers, teachers and students, what are the effective characteristics of four programs implemented for students at risk in secondary vocational education in order to decrease the drop-out rate?

Four sub-studies were conducted in order to answer the main research question. These studies were set out to focus specifically upon different program representations, namely the intended (ideal and formal curriculum), implemented (perceived and enacted curriculum) and attained (experiential curriculum) program representation (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009). In study one, we focused upon the perceived program characteristics as they arose from teachers' practice (perceived and enacted curriculum). In study two, we investigated the students' perspective on the programs (enacted and experiential curriculum). For study three, we researched teachers' emotions and feelings (perceived and enacted curriculum)
The questions that guided the four sub-studies were:

For sub-study 1: Perceived program characteristics

I. From the teachers' perspective and experiences, what are effective characteristics of the four enacted programs for at-risk students in secondary vocational education?
II. Based on teachers' experiences, what are effective elements when creating positive learning experiences for at-risk students in secondary vocational education?

For sub-study 2: Students' perspective

I. How do students at risk experience support of their engagement in a program in secondary vocational education?
II. What are students' engagement levels before and after participating in the program?

For sub-study 3: Teachers' emotions

I. What causes teachers' emotions in their work with disengaged students in secondary vocational education?
II. How do teachers' emotions relate to their perceived well-being as based on SDT and operationalized by experiences of autonomy, competence and relatedness?

For sub-study 4: Program sustainability

I. How do characteristics of programs for at-risk students, contribute to sustainability based on how the four concepts for sustainable innovation are perceived by teachers and managers?
II. How are autonomy, competence and relatedness manifested in the concepts for sustainable innovation as perceived by teachers and managers?

6.2 Summary of the findings

6.2.1 First study – Perceived program characteristics

The first study (chapter 2) focused upon effective characteristics of programs for at-risk students aimed at enhancing students' motivation and engagement. In this study, teachers' views on effective curricular characteristics and teachers' strategies to create positive learning experiences for students were explored using a qualitative research approach. Data were collected using a multi-methods strategy consisting of focus group interviews with teachers and an analysis of documents that described the programs (including program goals and underlying vision). It was concluded that for improved student engagement, a program must be tailored to the individual student's developmental needs and that social learning had to be prioritized above academic learning. Teachers facilitated the development of students' competencies in different ways, by using a combination of peer group dynamics, sports activities and job orientation. Teachers believed that students' engagement and motivation depend on their relations with peers and teachers. The teacher's role was defined as being a coach of social skills, as an expert in the use of sports activities to develop students' competencies, and as a group manager being able to create a positive peer group climate. Teachers emphasized the indispensable contribution of positive learning experiences to students' engagement and motivation. Three important cornerstones for positive learning were mentioned: (1) equality in the relationship between student and teacher, operationalized by non-directive coaching, sharing personal stories and humor; (2) positive relations between peers, operationalized by peer group coaching and peer feedback; and (3) a match between the curriculum and the students by the adaptation of learning activities, learning content and learning goals to students' individual needs, engaging students in goal-setting, attractive sports activities and a location outside the school building.

6.2.2 Second study – Students' perspective

In the second study (chapter 3), perceptions of engagement support were studied from the students' perspective. A qualitative research approach was chosen for data collection by means of interviews with students. In addition, in a pre-post design quantitative data were collected regarding students' engagement. Findings suggest that students' engagement, especially emotional engagement, was supported in the programs. Students perceived support in relationships with peers and teachers reflected by feelings of respect, recognition and appreciation. They also experienced enhancement of self-esteem and self-worth. Students and teachers together shared and discussed personal stories and emotions, which helped students to determine and understand effective behavior and goals. In addition, students were interested in the programs because of the relevance of the learning goals for their personal lives, the unusual location and challenging sports activities. Supportive elements were interrelated in the programs. Relationships with teachers and peers were perceived as caring and respectful and, together with sports activities, evoked feelings of fun, joy and pleasure for students. This helped students to lower their resistance and to be more open to learning and reflection, which was necessary for autonomy and competence support, according to students.

6.2.3 Third study – Teachers' emotions

The third study (chapter 4) was aimed at determining teachers' perceived emotions related to their practice and what caused these emotions. Teachers reported positive as well as negative emotions related to their work that were caused by interactions with students, addressing feelings of pleasure, joy and more intense emotions such as warmth and support. Teachers also perceived negative emotions such as doubt, stress and frustration. In addition, teachers perceived positive emotions caused by peer interactions between students. The learning process of students evoked positive emotions for teachers, as they reported pride and satisfaction about students' learning achievement, as well as negative feelings, for example, disappointment, when learning goals were not reached. Colleagues caused mixed emotions for teachers and teachers reported these emotions in a work-related manner. Teachers also felt positive emotions that referred to responsibility and ownership regarding the enactment of program they developed for students, but there were also negative emotions, as when they felt their program ambitions to benefit the students could not be realized.

Research question two in this study focused upon teachers' emotions and the concepts of self-determined motivation, namely: autonomy, competence and relatedness.

Teachers' experiences of autonomy were related to perceived freedom to make autonomous choices in order to develop a well-adapted program for students. Experiences of competence for teachers were related to students' learning, when teachers were able to determine their own positive contribution to students' learning process. In addition, teachers also doubted their competence when they experienced providing non-optimal support for students.
For relatedness, two types of contact with students were identified. First, classroom interaction between students and teachers catered for a sense of relatedness that evoked positive feelings for teachers, such as joy and fun. Second, a more intense connection was identified, characterized by strong personal emotional involvement expressed by emotions such as care, support and warmth, but also by doubt and uncertainty. These feelings of connection occurred during activities that enabled teachers and students to share personal feelings and experiences. Perceived relatedness with colleagues was primarily work-related, and was reported as teamwork and team spirit, which evoked positive as well as negative emotional experiences for teachers.

6.2.4 Fourth study – Program sustainability

The fourth study (chapter 5) was designed as a follow-up study aimed at investigating to which extend the implemented programs were sustainable. All four schools were invited to join this follow-up study. Unfortunately, school D did not agree to participate, although they still enacted the program in practice. Therefore, the follow-up study was conducted at three schools.
For School A, teachers together with their manager shared and discussed program goals and pedagogical approaches and worked together as a team based on equality. Stakeholder expectations were managed by providing information and explaining program goals. and teachers were actively engaged in development of new practices and future development of the program. The manager was considered as a facilitator for development at the organizational level. At school A, the teachers as well as their manager experienced a lot of autonomy in their work. Yet too much autonomy was perceived by the teachers as undesirable. Teachers were convinced that they were competent to meet the program goals, which was perceived as important for the future of the program.
At School B, sense making was an important theme for the teachers and their manager. However, they did not have structural meetings to discuss the program goals and vision with all stakeholders. Expectations from stakeholders that were experienced were managed by providing information. The teachers perceived development of new practices as an important

part of their job; however, this was not stimulated or directed by their manager, who took on the role of facilitator at the organizational level. The teachers and their manager perceived little connection between different levels of the innovation, which was seen as a threat for the future position of the program within the school context. Teachers perceived a lot of autonomy in their work, based on trust and expertise. The manager furthermore perceived that teachers had to develop their competences due to the innovative character of the program. The manager also perceived himself as having too much autonomy in his job, which was interpreted as little engagement by the other stakeholders.

For School C, collective sense making was not always easy, as teachers differed in their vision regarding pedagogical approach. Relationships between the manager and the teachers were perceived as warm and open on organizational issues as well as personal issues. The role of the manager was perceived as being responsible for the connections between all stakeholders. Expectations by stakeholders were handled through explanation of program goals and communication. Transparency was seen as important for the sustainability of the program. The teachers and the manager experienced high levels of autonomy and teamwork, and respected each other's expertise. They had to account for the program at all levels of the organization, but did not experience controlling behavior by the stakeholders. According to them, autonomy was based on trust in their competence. Teachers at this school were constantly challenged to develop their competences, with support from the manager.

6.3 Conclusion

In this study we focused upon perceptions of managers, teachers and students on a program for at-risk students in SVE and we chose to focus on program quality operationalized by the relevance, consistency, practicality, effectiveness and sustainability of the programs.

6.3.1 Program relevance

Based on the presented research, we conclude that the programs were highly relevant. First because the programs supplemented regular education, as they focused heavily on social and emotional development compared to regular education, which is focused mainly on academic standards. Also students rated the programs as relevant. They reported to appreciate the program they participated in because it was as much as possible tailored to their personal needs, they were allowed to work on their personal problems that hindered, their school career. Some students experienced the program as their last opportunity to stay in school. Our findings furthermore support the idea that sports can be used as a vehicle for learning, as long

as learning through sports is accompanied with a positive social learning climate created by competent teachers and supportive peers which was generally the case in the researched programs. In addition, we believe that sports is not the only vehicle for social and emotional learning, as other vehicles were suggested in our study, such as theatre, cooking, painting or other forms of creative expression. We conclude a high relevance for the program, which was not only based on research on the experiential curriculum, addressing students' perspective. The intended curriculum provided evidence that the programs were inspired by an ideal that was based on empirical research. Furthermore, the programs were implemented keeping in mind the specific contextual circumstances that are conditional for learning through sports, such as strong teachers and a social learning climate.

6.3.2 Program consistency

In the study, information was collected about the program as perceived, enacted and experienced by managers, teachers and students. Based on the findings, four program characteristics can be formulated, that are considered to be the 'backbone' of the programs. First, all four programs used a learner-centered approach for students' development. This approach was described in formal documents (formal curriculum) and confirmed by managers and teachers based on how they enacted the programs (perceived and enacted curriculum), as well as experienced by students (experiential curriculum). The learner-centered approach was operationalized by individual learning goals, individual learning activities and individual coaching.

The second program characteristic addressed the high level of teachers' engagement in the programs, which was confirmed by managers, teachers (perceived and enacted curriculum) and students (experiential curriculum), although concise described in program documents (formal curriculum).

The third program characteristic was the role of peer support, which was considered to be important for students' development and their engagement. The contribution of peer support for students' learning was not explicitly described in curricular documents (formal curriculum), although peer support was mentioned as design principle (see chapter 1.1). Teachers as well as students described peer support as an important characteristic of the programs (perceived, enacted and experiential curriculum).

The role of sports and the sports environment for students' development was one of the most important theoretical foundations for the programs that was explicitly described in formal documents (formal curriculum). Students did not recognize the role of sports and the sports

environment as a vehicle for their personal learning goals, although they mentioned sports as a pleasant learning activity in the programs (enacted and experiential curriculum). Teachers did mention the role of sports for students' development (perceived and enacted curriculum). However they also reported that development through sports depended on contextual factors, for example, the support of teachers and peers.

Based on these findings we conclude that the learner-centered approach, the high level of teachers' engagement, peer support and sports reflected program consistency, although the exact contribution of sports could not be determined because teachers and students differed in their perceptions about the role of sports for students' learning.

6.3.3 Program practicality

The practicality of the programs was strongly affected by the strategy that was chosen for program development and implementation by each of the participating schools. First, the manager and the teachers of each school described program goals. After that, the programs were implemented using a strategy that consisted of three phases, namely, try-out, evaluation and improvement. The try-out phase lasted for ten weeks, implying enactment of the program with students. After ten weeks, the program was evaluated by teachers and students, which brought up suggestions for improvement of the program. Next, the program was adapted in view of the improvement suggestions. After that the program was enacted again with a different group of students. The total period for program development and implementation took three years, and every school had at least five cycles of try-out, evaluation and improvement.

The teachers and the managers reported some challenges during development and implementation of the programs in practice. The first challenge was the cooperation with a top sports organization, which was idealistically seen as an inspiring learning environment for students. For the teachers and the managers, it was sometimes difficult to cooperate with a commercial organization, for example, for job orientation, traineeship and sports activities. The top sports organization was not used to the social-emotional learning goals for students and the developmental nature of the programs. Learning goals had to be explained by teachers and managers several times to create realistic expectations within the tops sports organization. The second challenge was the cooperation with the SVE school. To enhance practicality, smooth transitions were necessary for students, starting with students' entry into the program. Teachers had to create an intake procedure that matched the structure of the SVE school, using mentors and tutors for intake and registration. Development of this procedure was

experienced as a challenge by teachers, because making contact and informing mentors and care workers was difficult. These stakeholders were spread out across the big SVE school and could not be reached with one all-embracing tool. Another problem regarding the intake procedure involved the target group that had to be clearly described for mentors and care workers in order to create real expectations for students. This evoked the need to describe a student profile that matched the program goals, which appeared to be a tough question. Teachers often experienced that disengaged students needed help for their school-related problems as well as for their personal problems, for example, those caused by addiction, sexual or physical abuse, financial debts or criminal behavior. Those students might need intense forms of support and care that could not be offered in these programs. Developing a clear description of the target group in relation to the program goals was a never-ending process for teachers.

Another problem concerned enrollment in regular education for students who finished the program. Enrolling in regular education during the school year appeared to be difficult. Students had to wait, sometimes for months, until the new school year, before they could go back to regular education; the teachers at the program had to create in-between-solutions, for example, guiding students to traineeships or workplaces for these months. Another problem regarding transitions back to regular education was the high expectations that regular teachers had regarding the programs' effects, meaning that they often expected at-risk students to be perfect students after the program, which was obviously not the case. Teachers at the program constantly had to explain to their regular colleagues what real effects could be expected from the program in order to enable transitioning students to continue with their learning process.

6.3.4 Program effectiveness

The present research was aimed at in-depth understanding of how managers, teachers and students perceived effective program characteristics based on their program enactment and experiences. Teachers, reported differences in students' personal behavior as observed in their classroom practice and as reported to teachers by parents and colleagues. In addition, students' perceived program impact on their daily lives as they described program effects by means of changes in their personal attitude, feelings and emotions, such as a changed mindset, better understanding of their own behavior, better motivation and positive energy. Based on our research we can conclude that students who participated in the programs perceived a change in their personal emotions and feelings, and that changes in the behaviors of students were observed and reported by teachers.

6.3.5 Program sustainability

Based on our research, one of the most important factors affecting program sustainability was the relationships between stakeholders within the programs. These relationships focused on shared program goals and shared expectations about program effects. In addition, for program development and implementation, relationships between stakeholders were important for carrying out the developmental strategy, including the phases of try-out, evaluation and improvement. Relationships with the top sports organization and the SVE school was especially important in order to familiarize these organizations with the social and emotional program goals of students. Poor connection between stakeholders and too much autonomous program enactment was perceived as a threat for the future success of the programs at all investigated schools.

Yet, our research also points out the importance of teachers' autonomy and competence for a high quality program implementation. To find a proper balance between stakeholder interference and autonomy for teachers to do their jobs is an important task for managers. It is their responsibility to enable teachers, as experts, to create well-adapted programs for students and also engage the other stakeholders.

6.4 Reflections on the outcomes

6.4.1 Programs for students at risk

The effectiveness of policy and interventions aimed at students at risk have been researched in the past decades. Rumberger (2001) points out that rigorous evaluations of policy are readily available and if they are done, they have problems to demonstrate the effectiveness of the interventions, focusing primarily on the impact at the macro level and using indicators such as academic achievement and drop-out numbers (De Witte & Cabus, 2013; Dynarski, Gleason, Rangarajan,Wood, & Pedleton, 1998; Rumberger, 2001; Fashola & Slavin, 2009; Slavin, Madden, Karweit, Livermon, & Dolan,1990). According to Slavin et al. (1990) policy measures in practice are implemented as different interventions. These include pull-out programs, where students at risk are taken out of their classroom for remedial or other instruction; add-on programs, where services are provided outside the regular classroom, such as after school programs or summer schools; and replacement programs, where students are placed in self-contained classes in which the receive their education. These different types of supportive programs may originate from the same set of policy measures. By evaluating the effectiveness of policy only on the macro level information about how effectiveness was realized in practice is usually not given. Therefore, also research at the micro level should be

available in order to understand how effects were realized in practice, which was the aim of the study described here. Despite the criticism, macro-level analysis provides useful insights on the characteristics of interventions that at least have the potential to be effective (De Witte & Cabus, 2013; Rumberger, 2001; Fashola & Slavin, 1998; Slavin et al., 1990). We reflect upon these characteristics in the next section, comparing them with the effective characteristics that appeared from our study at micro level.

6.4.2 Program characteristics

According to Rumberger (2001), interventions for students at risk must be tailored to students' individual needs, addressing their behavior, attitude and beliefs, for example, operationalized by the learner centered-approach that was key to the programs in our study. Yet, we have noticed that the individualization strategy may also be experienced as coming very close to students' personal life and feelings, and might therefore be threatening for students. This is in line with work by Dynarski et al. (1998), who pointed out the importance of non-threatening learning environments for students at risk. Based on our findings, we identify four approaches that help students to relax and lower the feelings of stress, anxiety and being threatened. We are aware of the fact that teachers play an important role in using the identified tools in classroom practice, and we will elaborate on the teachers' role further in this section.

First, we want to focus on the role of teacher *humor*, which also has been a pointed at in the literature (Banas, Dunbar, Rodriguez, & Liu, 2011). Research provides evidence that by using humor, the learning environment is perceived as more enjoyable; self-disparaging teacher humor is related to less anxiety experienced by students (Bieg, Grassinger, & Dresel, 2017; Torok, McMorris, & Lin, 2004; Wanzer, Frymier, & Irwin, 2010). When teachers can laugh about their own mistakes, they demonstrate that mistakes are natural and students may feel less anxious. However, there are types of humor that are not beneficial for students, such as the use of aggressive and hostile humor that may cause negative emotions for students (Bieg et al., 2017; Jeder, 2015). We believe that disengaged students need a first step to help them to relax and open up, in order to build up trust and confidence as a starting point for their learning process. We noticed that students in the researched programs have had a lot of negative experiences at school, including experiences of failure, anxiety and loneliness. Based on our research, teacher humor, and especially the self-disparaging type, enables students to experience a positive classroom atmosphere and feelings of enjoyment and interest, which

might be the ‘magic bullet’ (Bieg et al., 2017, p. 32) that allows them to relax and relieves their stress before they are ready for learning.

The second classroom approach for a non-threatening environment can be typified as giving *control* to students. In our research, the perceived equality in the teacher-student relationships was operationalized as learning goals that were set *together with* students and individual coaching that was based on sharing the thoughts, experiences and feelings of both teachers and students. The latter may be a total paradigm shift for teachers, as they must share their personal feelings and emotions about students’ (mis)behavior instead of telling students how to change. The student is responsible for the decision to change his or her behavior (or not). Perceptions of being in control, of not being commanded and of respect for their choices help students to be open up for reflection and feedback without the feeling of being attacked or judged.

The third approach to create a non-threatening learning environment is *peer group* support. The role of peers for school achievement and school engagement has been researched (Dunn, Shelnut, Ryan, & Katsiyannis, 2017), especially for adolescent students who are challenged to make their own choices and develop their attitude towards school in a social context provided by parents, teachers and peers. During adolescence, students begin to spend more time with their peers and alone, instead of with their family. Although the impact might be significant, the effects of peer group influence on students’ learning is still not clear (Ryan, 2000). Moses and Villodas (2017) pointed out that perceptions of peer support depend on the quality of the relationship. High quality relationships are characterized by low conflicts, companionship and high intimacy, which involves sharing of personal feelings and experiences as well as demonstrations of caring. High quality peer relationship may cater for feelings of safety and trust instead of being threatened.

In addition, peer relationships have more impact than just providing a safe and social classroom atmosphere. Based on our finding, peers played a very important role for students’ social and emotional learning process. Students felt respected, recognized and appreciated by their peers, and experienced the opportunity to share stories and personal problems. Peers also provided feedback, introduced and discussed solutions for problems and gave encouragement for challenges. Students reported feelings of enhanced self-esteem and self-worth. This is in line with work by Ryan (2000), who argued that peer relationships influence students through an information exchange process in which discussion with peers may evoke new insights and

opinions. We are convinced that feelings of understanding and recognition originate in similar experiences, and therefore we suggest that at-risk students can be best supported by their equally at-risk peers. Yet this brings a challenge for teachers, because students do not automatically bring positive peer support, especially when they have had negative experiences with school. In our research, students were challenged to form a peer group with other (unfamiliar) at-risk students; the peer group dynamics were accompanied by strong leadership approaches from teachers, with intensive individual and group coaching in order to create a social and safe classroom atmosphere, which is necessary to benefit from peer support. We emphasize that based on our research, peer support for students at risk will only be a success when guided by strong and competent teachers.

The fourth approach that we want to highlight regarding a non-threatening learning environment is the role of sports and the sports environment. The physical location for the program, the sports stadium, was an important issue. Part of the program vision was that the sports context could be used as a vehicle for learning. Students perceived the location as initially interesting and stated that the location made them curious. Teachers also pointed out that the sports context was chosen to attract students. Based on the work of Rumberger (2001), the choice of the location may have a deeper layer than only being attractive or evoking curiosity. Rumberger (2001) posed that programs for students at risk have problems attracting students because of the negative perceptions of students, parents and educators that those programs are “a dumping group for bad students” (p. 30). In contrast, top sports stadiums have the fame of hosting successful and important sportsmen, athletes or even champions, instead of being a place for losers. This status has high attraction for students; the programs in our research had waiting-lists. This is in line with Maguire (2009), who described the excitement that people experience in the context of sports and pointed out the influence that elite sportsmen have on society.

Another point is the role of sports as learning activities. We reported that students did not recognize sports as a vehicle for their learning. However, they did report feelings of fun, joy and pleasure caused by doing sports together, especially the activities that were not typical for them, such as skiing, wall-climbing or mountain biking. Sports might in that case have functioned as a pleasant and enjoyable activity that lowered their feelings of stress and resistance without being noticed.

6.4.3 Teachers

We reflected upon four approaches that can be used to create a non-threatening social learning environment for students, namely, the use of humor, control for students, peer relationships, and sports. All four imply an important role for teachers, as they are the principal actors making use of these tools in their classrooms.

Dynarski et al., (1998) underlined that teachers who work with students at risk must care for them and accept personal responsibility for student success, which expresses the teachers' personal engagement that was also present in the findings of our research. Teachers who participated in our research did not work in the programs because they liked teaching a certain subject matter. They worked in the programs because they liked working with at-risk students, especially because of their challenging behavior and their unregulated intense emotions. Teachers perceived themselves to have mutual emotional relationships with students and were willing to share their personal stories, experiences and feelings, making the connection not at the academic level, but from person to person. Elffers et al. (2012) posed that students' emotional engagement can be supported with an academic connection or click more than by teacher-student relationships. We assume that support of emotional engagement should be defined in both social and academic terms. However, we noticed that students who did not succeed in regular education and enrolled, disappointed and frustrated, in these special programs in order to remain in school expressed a remarkable emotional need. These students wanted first to be noticed, cared for and appreciated, which might be necessary before achieving the academic click with at-risk students.

6.4.4 Organizational characteristics

The development of programs for at-risk students includes learning and development for teachers (Stenhouse, 1975) and school development (Diephuis, 2017). Rumberger (2001) pointed out that interventions for at-risk students must be focused not only on students' individual attitudes, beliefs and behaviors, but also on restructuring schools to create resources for students to remain at school, which is considered as a more systemic approach for interventions aimed at students at risk. Chapter five of this dissertation focused upon the sustainability of our programs, describing the importance of embedding the programs in the school organization by adaptation and evolvement of existing procedures. According to teachers and their managers, the systemic adaptation required a lot of time, patience and effort, which was also reported by Rumberger (2001). However, looking at the bright side, De Witte et al. (2013, p. 167) noticed that interventions that "are difficult to implement and

require a change in the process" have more impact on students, because these interventions are innovative.

One of the most discussed approaches to enhancing students' engagement and achievement at the organizational level is reducing class size, which is proven to benefit students' learning (Smith & Glass, 1980). Nonetheless, researchers have doubted the class size impact (Hoxby, 2000; Slavin, 1989). The work of Sanders, Wright and Horn (1997) and of Blatchford, Bassett and Brown (2011) draws attention to the mechanism that might explain why students are better supported in small classes, as they argue that teachers make the difference, rather than class size. In addition, Smith and Glass (1980) identified favorable effects for teachers of small classes, such as lower perceived workload, higher work morale and positive attitude towards students, which might explain why smaller classes are associated with better classroom climate and higher student achievement and engagement. In our study, teacher-student ration was very high, namely 1:8, compared to the regular education setting where the teacher-student ratio in some cases can be 1:40. We believe that characteristics such as learner-centered approaches and peer support require small class sizes because the teacher and the students must build up their relationships. We furthermore point out that the group dynamics process, with individual coaching and mentoring by teachers, requires opportunities to notice and observe students' behavior, which can be done more easily in small groups.

Another important strategy for interventions at the organizational level of schools addresses the workforce within the interventions. For example, teachers who work in the interventions may be hired especially for this job, may be transferred (by choice) from a regular school program or may be assigned involuntary to teach in the programs for students at risk (Kleiner, Porch, Farris, & Greene, 2002). In our study, all three types of staff employment were a reality. We also noticed a fourth type, namely, teachers who did not succeed at regular education, where they perceived their work as too heavy and stressful, and who were then placed in positions in the programs for students at risk. We would like to underline that all four staffing procedures may result in hard-working and engaged teachers. However we consider there to be a reasonable chance that teachers who are more or less forced to work in the programs do not have the excellent skills and attitude that are necessary for the work with at-risk students. More importantly, they also might perceive less pleasure and joy and more stress in their work. We would like to state that school managers, who see support for students at risk as a serious task for their school, pay careful attention to the employment procedures for their staff, especially the teachers. However, we are aware that the programs must always

compete with regular school programs for resources and money (Rumberger, 2001), therefore we argue that schools must make principled choices about policy for students at risk, not only as expressed by programs aimed at individual students, but also by prioritizing resources at a systemic level, for example, with small classes and employment of excellent staff.

6.5 Reflections on the research methods

The present research produced interesting information and knowledge for in-depth understanding of the effective characteristics of the programs for at- risk students. However, we would like to add some critical reflections on our research.

Various research methods were used to study programs for students at risk in SVE in order to answer the general research question. Three studies, described in chapters 2, 3 and 4, were conducted in the naturalistic context of the SVE schools during the program development and implementation period of two years. The longitudinal, mixed methods research approach enabled us to study the intended, implemented and attained program representations (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009), and the predominantly qualitative nature of these studies helped to develop an in-depth understanding of effective program characteristics. Yet the realistic context also affected the data collection procedures. For example, focus interviews were planned with the entire team of teachers, but for practical reasons, not all teachers could be present at that time. This happened also with planned interviews with students. Furthermore, for study 2 (chapter 3) quantitative data were collected using a questionnaire in a pre-posttest design. Teachers were instructed how to conduct the data collection; however, in practice they did not follow the instructions precisely. For example, they helped students respond to the questionnaire by explaining words and reading it together, which might have biased our results. The fourth study (chapter 5) was designed as a follow-up study, which was not part of the original project, *'Playing for Success 15-23 years'*, and was conducted three years after the project was finished. Unfortunately, we were not able to present a complete picture of sustainable characteristics of all four programs because one school did not participate in this study, although this school confirmed that the program was still enacted for at-risk students. Second, the presented results are based on data collected through focus group interviews. We chose group interviews instead of individual interviews because this enabled the participants to discuss and reflect together. It also yielded detailed information, as participants knew each other very well and were used to reflecting together. Yet we are aware of the bias that social interaction may bring into our findings (Kitzinger, 1994).

We also would like to point out the possibility that the selection of focus group participants could have influenced our findings. This concerns in the first place the selection of the teachers who participated in the studies presented. All teachers were selected by their schools. All worked in programs for at-risk students and were automatically connected with our study. Selection of the students was also not random, as students were asked by their teachers and participated on a voluntary basis. We assume that this may have affected the results, because these were students who successfully completed the programs. We know from experience that there were a few students who did not complete the programs and dropped out before the end. These students were not presented in this research. However, we assume that these students could add valuable information for understanding and untangling the features of effective support for at-risk students in practice.

The presented studies are all predominantly qualitative in nature, although in study 2 (chapter 3) we found a significant increase in students' engagement after joining the program based on quantitative data. We want to emphasize that the quantitative results regarding students' engagement levels must be interpreted very carefully, insofar as the research was not designed as an effect study but was integrated in the qualitative research approach. Only 49% of the students completed the posttest, and as we mentioned before, they might have been the more engaged students who had a positive experience with the program.

Al last, we want to emphasize that the studies were conducted with a relativistic paradigm. Insights and information therefore must be interpreted in the context in which they were obtained and can only be transferred with caution.

6.6 Recommendations

6.6.1 Recommendations for further research

In order to create a reliable picture of program effectiveness as perceived by managers teachers and students, we chose to investigate different program representations (Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009). First, the intended program representation was studied through document study, which provided information on the ideal and formal program characteristics (chapter 2). Second, the perceived and enacted curriculum was studied through teachers' perceptions (chapters 2 and 4). For more robust results regarding the implemented program, we suggest deepening the knowledge directly acquired from the programs-in-action. For example, this could involve doing observations, which provides insights on actual student support in classrooms apart from the perception of teachers and students.

Third, the experiential program representation was researched through students' and engagement (chapter 3). However we are aware of the short-term nature of this research approach, as students participated directly after they had finished the program. To broaden the knowledge gained about the experiential program representation, we suggest collecting long-term data, such as narrative data about students' school career, following students after they enroll in regular school programs to collect data and develop broader knowledge on transferability of the learning gain to a regular school setting.

Teachers in this study were convinced of the positive contribution of sports activities for social and emotional learning. However, students did not experience sports activities as important for their learning goals, although they mentioned sports activities to be fun and joyful. In addition, students experienced relationships with teachers and peers as important for their learning. This is in line with earlier research showing that the social and emotional benefits of sports occur through positive relationships within the sports context (Bruner et al., 2011; Holt & Neely, 2011). We believe that for deeper understanding of such learning, re-engaging students at risk through sports needs more research. We suggest focusing future research on the contribution and role of sports as vehicle for students' learning more exclusively than was done in the study presented here. This could include investigating different types of sports activities that might have different effects. Another point is the question whether learning through sports can be a vehicle for all at-risk students, including those who do not like sports. We did not investigate students' attitudes and experiences regarding sports or physical activity. We also noticed the teachers' suggestion that vehicles for learning may be useful, which was confirmed by the students, who attached primary value to the out-of-school context.

6.6.2 Recommendations for policy and practice

In this section we would like to elaborate on recommendations for policy and practice. First, we suggest clear principles for the future design and development of programs aimed at students at risk, and second we suggest how characteristics of the special programs can be used and transferred to strengthen regular school program contexts.

Based on our findings, we would like to describe design principles for program development that we consider to be important for effective and sustainable programs for students at risk. First, we focus on the program, that must include:

- A clear described vision; for example, based on the ideal that sports can be used as a vehicle for learning.
- Learner-centered approaches, expressed, for example, by personal learning goals and individual coaching.
- A clear definition of the program goals, the support offered and the target group (what can be expected). Keep in mind that the program is part of education and not social care; therefore, focus on school-related problems.
- Interesting learning activities tailored to the target group of students.
- An out-of-school context, for example, a sports stadium.

Second, we want to address principles for teachers' approaches to and attitudes towards working with students in the programs:

- Create relationships with students that are based on equality:
    - Respect students' choices.
    - Share real and personal experiences and feelings.
    - Express real emotions.
    - Use humor.
    - Ask students what they want, listen to students and do not judge.
    - Do not tell students what to do and do not command them.
- Create a non-threatening learning environment:
    - Use self-disparaging humor.
    - Give control to students.
    - Create peer support:
        - Guide the dynamic process by intense individual and group coaching.
        - Give opportunities to learn from peers.
- Enhance your own perceived well-being:
    - Give space to your emotions and students' emotions.
    - Determine your own role in students' success.
    - Share your difficulties with students.

Third, we would like to advise the managers who direct the program development and the staff working in the programs:

- Prioritize resources aimed for students at risk.
- Make clear the policy on how to invest the resources and be transparent to all stakeholders about your investments.
- Take time, patience and effort to embed the programs in the school organization.
- Engage all stakeholders in evaluation and improvement of the programs.
- Create relationships between stakeholders on purpose, smooth the cooperation with:
    - The regular (SVE) school.
    - Community and care organizations.
    - Top sports organization.
- Give autonomy to your staff and trust them in their work.

Suggestions for the regular school context

Despite the differences compared to regular school contexts, such as the high teacher-student ratio and the focus on social and emotional learning, the present research yields valuable information that can be used to strengthen educational contexts in a broader way.

In the first place, we would like to address the strategy that was used by teachers to build positive relationships with students. On the one hand, teachers were friendly, open, and humorous, and had an non-controlling approach towards students. On the other hand, they managed the group dynamic process by confronting students firmly about inappropriate behavior, and they directed and managed the group dynamic process in order to create a safe social classroom climate. Both tasks call for excellent pedagogical skills that exceed the skills of teaching a subject matter. We suggest that in teacher training programs, pedagogical strategies regarding a positive classroom atmosphere and building relationships with students should be a main theme, which is not currently the case, as far as we know. We would like to add here that that enhancing pedagogical skills to create a positive classroom atmosphere also contributes to teachers perceived well-being and job satisfaction, which is interesting considering the problem of teacher burnout.

Second, at SVE schools, a diploma is based on student achievement at a certain academic level. Yet for students, academic learning may not be experienced as relevant at some point in their school career, possibly because they are frustrated by personal problems or experiences of anxiety and failure. Knowing this, we suggest that practitioners, such as teachers, school

managers and policy makers, should search for opportunities in education to connect learning as much as possible directly to students' personal lives and experiences. For example, this is the case in narrative pedagogies or learner-centered approaches. This paradigm shift may evoke a better perceived match between students' personal and school life, and enhance the perceived relevance of school.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Data collection instrument for chapter 2 and 4 : Semi structured interview with teachers

A.1 Inleiding (elk interview)

Inhoud	Aandachtspunten
1. Voorstellen van onderzoeker	• Naam en achtergrond onderzoeker • Voorstellen van de deelnemers komt later aan de orde.
2. Kort uitleggen wat er onderzocht wordt.	• Aanleiding • Doel • Mogelijkheden geven tot stellen van vragen
3. Toestemming deelnemers voor datagebruik	• Gesprek wordt opgenomen voor uitwerking • Antwoorden zijn anoniem en worden gebruikt als aanvulling op de ingevulde vragenlijst. • Benadruk vrijwillige deelname • Docenten mogen vragen weigeren te beantwoorden en op elk moment het interview stoppen. • Vraag expliciet toestemming!

A.2. Persoonlijke informatie (alleen eerste interview met de docent)

Inhoud	Aandachtspunten
1. Algemene gegevens	• Naam • Geslacht • Leeftijd
2. Achtergrond	• Hoe kom je in het programma terecht • Welke opleiding heb je gevolgd • Vanuit welke motieven/interesse werk je in dit programma
3. Werkervaring	• Werkervaring algemeen • Werkervaring in het onderwijs/mbo • Werkervaring bij PfS

	• Wat is je ervaring met het lesgeven aan de doelgroep
4. School	• Naam van de instelling • Afdeling • Samenwerkingen met andere partijen • Team samenstelling met wie werk je samen

A.3 Het programma

Inhoud	Aandachtspunten
1. Inhoud van het programma	• Doelen • Leeractiviteiten • Leerdoelen van studenten • Rol van sport binnen het programma • Samenhang tussen de onderdelen • Tijd • Toetsing
2. De groep	• Instroom en uitstroom procedures • Aanmeldingen en samenwerkingen met het ROC • Uitstroom en nazorg • Het samenstellen van de groepen

3. De begeleiding	• Visie
	• Begeleidingsactiviteiten
	  ○ Groepsbegeleiding
	  ○ Individuele begeleiding
	  ○ Peer coaching
	• Rol van de docent

4. Leeromgeving	• Rol van de sportomgeving • Samenwerking met de topsport organisatie • Visie
5. Praktische ervaringen met het programma	• Mening van docenten over het programma • Voldoet het programma aan het ideaal plaatje • Knelpunten in de uitvoering • Verbeterpunten en succesfactoren • Verwachtte effecten bij studenten • Aansluiting van het programma aan op de behoeften van de studenten

A.4. Persoonlijke reflectie op de afgelopen 10 weken

Inhoud	Aandachtspunten
1. Het uitgevoerde programma	• Opvallende zaken leeractiviteiten • Succesnummers • Aanpassingen

2. De groep	• Groepssamenstelling
	• Doelen van de studenten
	• Opvallende studenten
	• Groepsdynamische proces
	  o Samenwerking peers
	  o Sfeer
	  o Interventies

3. De begeleiding	• Reflectie op de eigen rol
	  o Wat heeft de docent beziggehouden
	  o Wat ging goed
	  o Wat ging minder goed
	• Welke effecten heeft de docent gezien bij studenten
	• Persoonlijke bijdrage voor de studenten
	• Relatie met de studenten

4. Samenwerking	• Met collega's • Met externe partijen • Met het ROC

5. Persoonlijke gevoelens en emoties	• Ben je tevreden over de afgelopen 10 weken?
	  o Hoe komt dat?
	• Wat waren kritische momenten voor jou persoonlijk?
	  o Kun je beschrijven hoe die ontstonden?
	  o Wat was de aanleiding?
	  o Hoe ben je daarmee omgegaan?
	• Wat waren moeilijke momenten voor jou persoonlijk?
	  o Hoe ontstonden die?
	  o Hoe heb je dat aangepakt?
	• Heb je het gevoel dat je succes hebt gehad?

	○ Waardoor komt dat? ○ Welke aandeel heb je daar zelf in gehad? • Op welke momenten heb je vreugde/ tevredenheid/blijheid gevoeld? ○ Hoe ontstond dat moment ○ Hoe lang duurde het? ○ Wat heeft dat opgeleverd? • Welke moment blijf jou het meeste bij? ○ Waarom dat moment? ○ Welke gevoel heb je daaraan over gehouden? • Wat was een succes moment? ○ Hoe is dat moment ontstaan? ○ Wat maakte het precies tot een succes? ○ Welke gevoel had je daarbij?

A.5. Afsluiten van het interview

Inhoud	Aandachtspunten
6. Afronden van het interview	• Gelegenheid geven tot ○ Aanvullingen ○ Vragen • Bedankt voor het interview en de tijd
7. Uitleg vervolg procedure	• Interview verbatim uitgewerkt • Teruggekoppeld in de landelijke Pfs dagen • Over tien weken neemt de onderzoeker contact op voor het vervolg interview (behalve bij het laatste interview)

Appendix B

Codeboek chapter 2: Program characteristics

De docent	Eigenschappen van de docent	Karakter
		Vaardigheden
		Kennis
		Scholing
	De docent aan het werk	Handeling van docenten
		Samenwerking
	Visie van de docent	Deelnemers
		Zijn eigen rol
		Onderwijs
		Doelen van het programma
De student	De groep studenten	Functie van de groep
		Samenstelling van de groep
		Eigenschappen van de groep
		De doelgroep
	Omgeving waarin de student zich bevindt	Plaats van het programma
		Sfeer en leerklimaat
		Prive omgeving van de student
	Voorbeelden van deelnemers	
	Onderwijs in relatie met de deelnemende student	
Het programma	Doelen van het programma	Algemene doelen
		Individuele doelen
	Inhoud van het programma	Voorbeelden van concrete invulling
		Gesprekken
		Tijd
		Samenhang of overzicht van het programma
Toetsing	Afronding	Afrondingsmoment
		Diploma
	Effecten van het programma	
	Rol van toetsing	
In- en uitstroom	Instroom	Type deelnemers
		Proces van instromen
		Plaats waar deelnemers vandaan komen
	Uitstroom	Plaats van uitstromen
		Uitstroomproces
	Aantallen	

Appendix C

Data collection instrument for chapter 2 and 5.

Document collection was done during research period, that lasted 18 months. To keep oversight all provided documents were organized and labeled using the following scheme.

School A

Number		Date	Document type	Provided by	Short summary
1					
2					
….					

School B

Number	Date	Document type	Provided by	Short summary
1				
2				
….				

School C

Number	Date	Document type	Provided by	Short summary
1				
2				
….				

School D

Number	Date	Document type	Provided by	Short summary
1				
2				
….				

Applying to all schools

Number	Date	Document type	Provided by	Short summary
1				
2				
….				

Appendix D

Data collection chapter 3: Questionnaire for students' engagement

Gedragsmatige betrokkenheid

1. Ik houd me altijd aan de regels tijdens de les.
2. Ik klets vaak door de les heen. (T)
3. Ik kom vaak te laat in de les. (T)
4. Ik neem actief deel aan de les.
5. Ik doe vaak andere dingen tijdens de les. (T)
6. Ik let op tijdens de les op school
7. Ik denk eraan om te spijbelen op school. (T)
8. Ik vind het leuk om de vragen te beantwoorden die gesteld worden tijdens de les
9. Ik probeer al het werk af te krijgen dat de docent mij opgeeft
10. Ik weet wat er van me verwacht wordt op school

Emotionele betrokkenheid gerelateerd aan docent

11. De docenten behandelen mij eerlijk.
12. De docenten luisteren naar me.
13. De docenten zijn er voor mij als ik hen nodig heb.
14. De docenten zijn open en eerlijk tegen mij.
15. Ik vind het leuk om met een docent te praten
16. Ik vind de regels tijdens de lessen eerlijk
17. Ik word aangemoedigd om het goed te doen op school

Emotionele betrokkenheid gerelateerd aan les

18. Ik vind de lessen leuk
19. Ik vind de lessen saai (T)
20. Ik vind de lessen interessant
21. Ik leer veel bij de lessen
22. Ik werk hard voor school
23. Ik krijg de kans om mijn ideeën en meningen te uiten tijdens de lessen
24. Het werk behorend bij school is interessant
25. In de klas is er wederzijds respect voor elkaar

Cognitieve betrokkenheid

26. Als ik een opdracht maak ga ik na of ik begrijp wat ik aan het doen ben
27. Het meeste dat belangrijk is om te weten, leer ik op school
28. Ik vind leren leuk omdat ik beter word in iets
29. Als ik het goed doe op school komt dat doordat ik hard werk
30. Ik doe mijn best zo goed mogelijk te presteren op school
31. Als een opdracht niet lukt probeer ik het opnieuw
32. De cijfers/beoordelingen op school laten zien wat ik kan
33. School is belangrijk voor mijn toekomst

34. Ik wil mijn best te doen tijdens de les
35. Ik vind het fijn om in de les na te denken over het gekozen onderwerp
36. Ik kan de koppeling zien tussen de lessen en het dagelijks leven
37. Ik werk thuis aan opdrachten, ook als ik er geen een toets voor hoef te maken.
38. Ik praat met mensen buiten school, over wat ik daar leer

Appendix E

Data collection instrument for chapter 3 : Semi structured interview with students

E.1 Inleiding

Inhoud	Aandachtspunten
4. Voorstellen van onderzoeker	• Naam en achtergrond onderzoeker • Voorstellen van de deelnemers komt later aan de orde.
5. Kort uitleggen wat er onderzocht wordt.	• Aanleiding • Doel • Mogelijkheden geven tot stellen van vragen
6. Toestemming deelnemers voor datagebruik	• Gesprek wordt opgenomen voor uitwerking • Antwoorden zijn anoniem en worden gebruikt als aanvulling op de ingevulde vragenlijst. • Benadruk vrijwillige deelname • Studenten mogen vragen weigeren te beantwoorden en op elk moment het interview stoppen. • Informatie wordt niet met ouders gedeeld. • Informatie wordt anoniem met docenten gedeeld. • Vraag expliciet toestemming!

E. Persoonlijke informatie

Inhoud	Aandachtspunten
5. Algemene gegevens	• Naam • Geslacht • Leeftijd • Woonplaats
6. Achtergrond	• Hobby's/Werk • Gezinssituatie
7. School	• Naam van de school • Welke opleiding (en) heb je gevolgd/afgerond • Schoolloopbaan

E.3 Het programma

Inhoud	Aandachtspunten

6. Het programma	• Wat vindt de student van:
	  o Doelen
	  o Leeractiviteiten
	  o Rol van sport binnen het programma
	  o Samenhang tussen de onderdelen
	  o Tijd
	  o Toetsing

7. In en uitstroom	• Instroom en uitstroom procedures
	  o Hoe kwam de student in het programma
	  o Hoe verliep de aanmeldingen en samenwerkingen met het ROC
	  o Hoe is het vervolg geregeld

8. De begeleiding	• Wat vindt de student van:
	  o Groepsbegeleiding
	  o Individuele begeleiding
	  o Peer coaching
	  o Rol van de docent
	• Welke docent was het best en waarom
	• Welke kwaliteiten moet een docent hebben om in dit programma te werken
	• Wat maakt een docent goed of niet
	• Hoe werkten de docenten samen
	  o Waar merkte je dat aan
	  o Wat vindt je daarvan

9. Leeromgeving	• Wat vindt de student van:
	  o De sportomgeving
	  o De ruimte
	  o De sfeer en afspraken

10. Effecten	• Heeft het de student geholpen o Waarom wel/niet • Wat waren belangrijke momenten voor de student • Welke rol speelde docenten voor de student

E.4 Persoonlijke reflectie op de afgelopen 10 weken

Inhoud	Aandachtspunten
11. Algemene ervaring	• Was het een leuk programma? • Wat was het moment dat je het meeste bij blijft • Wat blijf je je herinneren? • Is het anders dan school? Waarom?

8. De groep	• Groepssamenstelling
	• Opvallende studenten
	• Hoe kijkt de student naar het groepsdynamische proces
	  o Samenwerking peers
	  o Sfeer
	  o Interventies
	• Heb je er vrienden aan overgehouden?
	• Kende je vooraf mensen?

9. De begeleiding	• Reflectie op de begeleiding van de docenten
	  o Wat deed de docent aan begeleiding
	  o Wat ging goed
	  o Wat ging minder goed
	• Hoe hebben docenten de studenten ondersteund?
	• Relatie met de studenten?

10. Effectiviteit	• Voor welke studenten werkt dit programma (niet)? • Heb je succes gehad? Hoe is dat gegaan? • Wat het een nuttig programma? • Heb je er wat van geleerd? • Wat is je volgende stap?

E.5 Afsluiten van het interview

Inhoud	Aandachtspunten

11. Afronden van het interview	• Gelegenheid geven tot
	  o Aanvullingen
	  o Vragen
	• Bedankt voor het interview en de tijd

12. Uitleg vervolg procedure	• Interview verbatim uitgewerkt • Geef de studenten de mogelijkheid om het na te lezen en te checken

Appendix F

Codebook chapter 3: Students perspective

Hoofd code	Code	Voorbeelden
Meedoen in het programma	Het proces voorafgaand aan het programma	Informatie over intakeprocedure, gevoel van de student bij de instroom en de mensen betrokken bij de instroom
	Redenen om mee doen	Visie van de student waarom hij in het programma zit en doelen van studenten
	Effecten programma	De impact die de student ervaart op zijn leven en die relatie heeft met het programma
Leeractiviteiten	Beschrijvingen van activiteiten	Voorbeelden van leeractiviteiten en de mening van de student over de leeractiviteiten
	Leerinhoud	De student zijn mening over wat hij kon leren en informatie over de doelen van leeractiviteiten
	Nut leeractiviteiten	De visie van de student over wat hij heeft geleerd en de relatie met zijn eigen leerdoelen
Peers	Beschrijving van de klasgenoten	Beschrijving van groepsgrootte en samenstelling maar ook informatie over klasgenoten
	Functie van de groep	De visie van de student op de rol die de peers spelen voor zijn leerproces, op zijn sociaal emotionele ontwikkeling of zijn gevoel
Leeromgeving	Leerklimaat	De sfeer in de klas en het gevoel van de student tijdens de lessen
	Organisatie	Organisatie aspecten die van invloed zijn op het leren van de student of zijn gevoel

Docenten	Gedrag van docenten	Beschrijving van zichtbaar docent gedrag en de mening van de student over dit gedrag
	Competenties van docenten	Beschrijving van competenties van docenten en de mening van studenten over deze competenties

Appendix G

Codebook chapter 4

G.1 Codes for perceived emotions

	Reported feelings	Code name	Description
Positive emotions	Enjoyment Pleasure Fun Enthusiasm	Happiness and joy	Feelings that express explicit positive affect and refer to happiness and joy, for example, by using the words, joyful, nice, pleasant, great
	Satisfaction Pride Appreciation	Outcome	Feelings that express positive reflection on a certain outcome
	Success Achievement	Goals	Feelings that explicitly refer to goal achievement
	Challenge Responsibility Energy Interest	Active engagement	Feelings that express an active positive attitude, for example, by using the words challenged, interesting, triggered
	Warmth Support Connection	Other people	Feelings that refer to positive contact with other people
	Vulnerability Sensitiveness	Being real	Powerful feelings that refer to being yourself
Negative emotions	Stress Tension	Pressure	Feelings that refer to puzzling or upsetting experiences
	Frustration Irritation	Anger	Feelings that refer to anger and annoying states
	Doubt Vulnerability Anxiety Loneliness	Fear	Feelings that are related to uncertainty
	Failure Dissatisfaction	Achievement	Feelings that refer to undesirable outcome

G.2 Codes for emotions related to perceptions of well-being

Concept	Description
Autonomy	The relationship between perceived emotions of teachers, their causes and the way these feelings connect to the concept of autonomy as described in SDT, referring to the ability to make authentic choices and self-determined goal-setting
Competence	The relationship between perceived emotions of teachers, their causes and the way these feelings connect to the concept of competence as described in SDT, referring to the desire to contribute to meeting relevant goals.
Relatedness	The relationship between perceived emotions of teachers, their causes and the way these feelings connect to the concept of autonomy as described in SDT, referring to the feeling of having caring and mutual relationships with other people

Appendix H

Data collection instrument for chapter 5: semi structured interviews with teachers

Geïnterviewden
-Docenten van het programma Playing for Success (PfS), voor risicojongeren in het mbo, die gedurende de implementatie van het programma (dus de uitvoerfase) leiding gegeven hebben aan een groep studenten die deelnamen aan PfS.

Interviewteam met taken
- Onderzoeker 1: inleider, gespreksleider, vragensteller, notulist.
- Onderzoeker 2: (niet bij alle interviews aanwezig): bewaker interviewschema; evaluatie antwoorden, tijdsbewaking, controle geluidsapparatuur en extra notulist.

Semi-gestructureerd oog-in-oog interview
- open vragen
- vaste beginvraag per beschrijving van de onafhankelijke variabele
- wijze van doorvragen is vrij/open

Namen deelnemers focusgroep:

1)	2)
Naam:	Naam:
Leeftijd:	Leeftijd:
Geslacht:	Geslacht:
Functie:	Functie:
Aantal jaren werkervaring:	Aan jaren werkervaring:
Periode werkzaam in PfS:	Periode werkzaam in PfS:

Naam van programma:……
Tijdstip van aanvang: …….

Informatie over het interview
- Aanwezigen kennismaken/voorstellen.

-De volgende informatie wordt gegeven: " Dit gesprek maakt deel uit van een wetenschappelijk promotieonderzoek naar verduurzaming van onderwijsprogramma's voor risicojongeren in het mbo. In dit programma wordt gewerkt met een nieuw concept waarbij geprobeerd wordt de jongeren te motiveren hun opleiding af te maken. Een belangrijk punt van dit concept is dat de jongere met zijn leervraag centraal staat. Vanuit een positieve relatie met de jongere wordt geprobeerd persoonlijke doelen te behalen gericht op sociale competenties (zoals omgaan met conflicten, feedback geven en ontvangen en communicatie)

en loopbaan competenties (zelf kennis, reflectie, oriëntatie op werk). Uit eerder verricht onderzoek naar duurzame onderwijsvernieuwing blijkt dat (1) de balans tussen nieuwe dingen uitproberen (feed forward) en bestaande activiteiten waarborgen (feed back); (2) onderwijskundig gespreid leiderschap; (3) een gezamenlijke visie en (4) contextleiderschap belangrijke inzichten zijn om tot succesvolle en langdurige innovaties te komen. In dit gesprek wordt informatie verzameld over de verduurzaming van het programma PfS aan de hand van deze vier inzichten. De inzichten worden later aan de geïnterviewde uitgelegd aan de hand van beknopte beschrijvingen".

- Soort vragen: open vragen aan de hand van de 4 inzichten (die de geïnterviewde heeft gehoord en gelezen en voor zich heeft tijdens het gesprek).

- Duur van het interview: maximaal 1,5 uur.

- Publicatie resultaten: zo spoedig mogelijk na dit gesprek schrijft de interviewer een gespreksverslag. In het kader van de betrouwbaarheid zal dit verslag gemaild worden naar de geïnterviewde, opdat zij kunnen aangeven of het verslag een volledige, correcte en nauwkeurige weergave is van hetgeen gezegd is.

- Gebruik van geluidsopname: vertrouwelijk. Het gesprek wordt opgenomen. De opname wordt alleen door de interviewer zelf gebruikt ten behoeve van het gespreksverslag.

- Anonieme verwerking in proefschrift.

Inhoud van het interview *(De tekst tussen aanhalingstekens letterlijk zeggen.)*
"Zoals ik reeds in de instructie heb genoemd, zal dit gesprek ingaan op vier belangrijke inzichten over duurzame onderwijsontwikkeling. Van elk inzicht hebben we een beknopte beschrijving gemaakt. Deze beschrijving zal ik voorafgaand aan de vragen in een paar zinnen mondeling toelichten. Vervolgens kunt u de beschrijving doorlezen. Tijdens de beantwoording van de vragen kunt u deze erbij houden. Er is ruimte voor verhelderende vragen indien er onduidelijkheden zijn over wat er met een inzicht wordt bedoeld. We behandelen de inzichten één voor één."

Hieronder de beknopte beschrijvingen van de vier inzichten met bijbehorende vragen. De interviewer geeft een heel korte mondelinge toelichting op de variabele. Vervolgens wordt de beschrijving uitgedeeld en lezen de geïnterviewden de beschrijving. Daarna worden de vragen gesteld.

(A) Balans tussen feed forward en feedback
Met de balans tussen feed forward en feedback wordt bedoeld dat er een evenwicht zou moeten zijn tussen nieuwe dingen uitproberen (feed forward) en bestaande activiteiten of resultaten waarborgen (feed back). Bij het implementeren van Playing for Success (PfS) geldt dat een nieuw concept de school in komt. Een belangrijk kenmerk van dit concept is dat de leervraag van de student de kern vormt van een individueel curriculum. Dit

curriculum heeft grotendeels sociale en emotionele doelen. Competentie ontwikkeling gericht op school of loopbaan competenties zoals keuzes maken, oriëntatie vaardigheden en zelfkennis staan centraal. Betrokkenen, zoals docenten, studenten en hun ouders, verwachten van de school dat de leeropbrengsten gewaarborgd blijven (feedback), terwijl de schoolleiding samen met docenten bezig is een nieuw onderwijsprogramma vorm te geven (feed forward). Deze feed forward flows van leren schuren langs de feedback flows, die gericht zijn op het garanderen van kwalitatief hoogwaardige resultaten. Het is belangrijk om een goede balans hierin aan te brengen, zodat beide processen elkaar versterken.

Vragen over 'Balans tussen feed forward en feedback'

A1.PfS is een nieuw concept, deze zijn jullie gaan ontwikkelen, terwijl bestaande praktijken (zoals diploma eisen van het mbo en rendement) gehandhaafd bleven. Heeft u hier hinder van ondervonden.

A2. Op welke manier is er, naar uw mening, tijdens de implementatie van PfS vorm gegeven aan innoveren, vernieuwen en verbeteren?

A3. Op welke manier is er tijdens de implementatie van PfS vorm gegeven aan feedback, momenten van evaluatie en betekenisgeving, om de resultaten te waarborgen?

(B) Onderwijskundig gespreid leiderschap

Een tweede belangrijk inzicht betreft onderwijskundig gespreid leiderschap op alle niveaus in de schoolorganisatie. Hierbij gaat het om zowel formele als informele leiders. Bij leiderschap gaat het niet alleen om de leidinggevende, maar ook de mensen waaraan leiding wordt gegeven en de situatie spelen een belangrijke rol. De mensen waaraan leiding wordt gegeven zijn, in het geval van PfS, docenten. Zij zijn geen automatisch gehoorzame volgers of mensen die reageren op rationele argumenten. Het zijn professionals die op basis van hun eigen kennis, ervaringen en opvattingen reageren op de leidinggevende, op elkaar en op de omstandigheden. Het zou helpen als leidinggevenden op verschillende niveaus in de schoolorganisatie zich hiervan bewust zijn, hier ruimte aan geven, maar tegelijkertijd helderheid in doelen geven en hieraan vasthouden.

Vragen over 'Onderwijskundig gespreid leiderschap'

B1. Op welke manier is leiderschap in uw PfS context vorm gegeven?

B2. Welke formele vormen van leiderschap ervaart u binnen uw PfS programma?

B3. Welke informele vormen onderscheidt u binnen uw PfS programma?

B4. Ervaart u dat uw leidinggevende oog heeft voor uw opvattingen en hier ruimte aangeeft, zo ja waar blijkt dat uit, zo nee waar blijkt dat uit (evt. door vragen naar concrete voorbeelden).

B5. Hoe ervaart u de manier waarop u, in uw rol als docent, leiding geeft aan anderen bijvoorbeeld studenten?

(C) Gezamenlijke visie en helderheid over doelen

Wat docenten als demotiverend of niet constructief ervaren tijdens een vernieuwingsproces is dat leidinggevenden op verschillende niveaus in de schoolorganisatie "niet met één mond spreken". Leidinggevenden in een school zouden een gezamenlijk doel moeten nastreven. Het is noodzakelijk dat leidinggevenden denken en handelen vanuit een gedeelde gezamenlijke visie. Dit geldt zowel voor de visie op het opleiden van studenten die aan PfS deelnemen als op de leerprocessen van docenten die tijdens de ontwikkeling en implementatie van PfS plaatsvinden.

"**Vragen over 'Gezamenlijke visie en helderheid over doelen'**

C1. Wat is, volgens u, de visie die bij het concept van PfS hoort ten aanzien van het opleiden van studenten?

C2. Welke onderwijskundige doelen horen daarbij?

C3. Wat is, volgens u, de visie die bij het concept van PfS hoort ten aanzien van de leerprocessen van docenten?

C4. Hoe worden binnen uw PfS programma deze visie en doelen vastgelegd?

C5. Hoe worden betrokkenen over de visie en de doelen geïnformeerd?

C6. Hoe ervaart u de gezamenlijkheid met betrekking tot de visie op opleiden van studenten? Zijn er verschillende opvattingen onder de betrokkenen of bestaat er overeenstemming. Kunt u toelichten waaraan u dit merkt?

C7. Hoe ervaart u de gezamenlijkheid met betrekking tot de visie op de leerprocessen van de docenten? Zijn er verschillende opvattingen onder de betrokkenen of bestaat er overeenstemming. Kunt toelichten waaraan u dit merkt?

(D) Contextleiderschap

Leidinggevenden verschillen in de mate waarin zij de (geschatte) innovatiecapaciteit van de docenten in hun eigen school afwegen tegen de druk uit de omgeving om te veranderen. Als antwoord op de hoge uitval binnen ROC's is het PfS in het leven geroepen. Past deze oplossing en de snelheid waarmee PfS is ontwikkeld en geïmplementeerd bij de capaciteiten van docenten? Dit is een essentiële vraag die de leidinggevende zich zou moeten stellen. Het is belangrijk dat de leidinggevende voeling houdt met de ontwikkelingen op de werkvloer en zich tegelijkertijd bewust is van wat de mogelijkheden en kansen die de omgeving biedt. Dit is wat onder contextleiderschap wordt verstaan. De leidinggevende zou een linking pin tussen het innoverende team docenten, de school met bijbehorend onderwijskundig beleid en de externe omgeving moeten zijn.

Vragen over 'Contextleiderschap'

D1. PfS maakt deel uit van een mbo context en een breder landschap van het beroepsonderwijs en het bijbehorende werkveld en richtlijnen vanuit de overheid. Op welke manier heeft u, als docent, beïnvloeding vanuit deze context ervaren met betrekking tot PfS?

D2. Heeft uw leidinggevende deze contextdruk ook ervaren? Kunt u uitleggen waaraan u dat merkt?

D3. Een belangrijke factor in de context is de financiële waarborging van PfS. Op welke manier heeft u deze context factor ervaren?
D4. Welke rol heeft uw leidinggevende hierbij gespeeld?
D5. Hoe is uw leidinggevende omgegaan met de druk vanuit de context? Kunt u een voorbeeld geven waarbij er knelpunten ontstonden, of juist een voorbeeld waarin u deze contextdruk naar tevredenheid werd gemanaged?
D6. Hoe kijkt u aan tegen de rol van uw leidinggevende, als linking pin, tussen PfS, het mbo en de externe actoren? Op welke manier blijft u geïnformeerd op al deze vlakken?

Afsluitende vragen (E)
E1. Zijn er nog punten die besproken moeten worden als het gaat om uw rol als docent in relatie met uw leidinggevende binnen PfS?

Afsluiting
De interviewer bedankt de geïnterviewde voor zijn/haar tijd. Via de mail zal het gespreksverslag naar hem/haar toekomen.

Appendix I

Data collection instrument for chapter 5: semi structured interviews with managers

Geïnterviewden
-Docenten van het programma Playing for Success (PfS), voor risicojongeren in het mbo, die gedurende de implementatie van het programma (dus de uitvoerfase) leiding gegeven hebben aan een groep studenten die deelnamen aan PfS.

Interviewteam met taken
- Onderzoeker 1: inleider, gespreksleider, vragensteller, notulist.
- Onderzoeker 2: (niet bij alle interviews aanwezig): bewaker interviewschema; evaluatie antwoorden, tijdsbewaking, controle geluidsapparatuur en extra notulist.

Semi-gestructureerd oog-in-oog interview
- open vragen
- vaste beginvraag per beschrijving van de onafhankelijke variabele
- wijze van doorvragen is vrij/open

Namen deelnemers focusgroep:

1)	2)
Naam:	Naam:
Leeftijd:	Leeftijd:
Geslacht:	Geslacht:
Functie:	Functie:
Aantal jaren werkervaring:	Aan jaren werkervaring:
Periode werkzaam in PfS:	Periode werkzaam in PfS:

Naam van programma:……
Tijdstip van aanvang: …….

Informatie over het interview
- Aanwezigen kennismaken/voorstellen.

-De volgende informatie wordt gegeven: " Dit gesprek maakt deel uit van een wetenschappelijk promotieonderzoek naar verduurzaming van onderwijsprogramma's voor risicojongeren in het mbo. In dit programma wordt gewerkt met een nieuw concept waarbij geprobeerd wordt de jongeren te motiveren hun opleiding af te maken. Een belangrijk punt van dit concept is dat de jongere met zijn leervraag centraal staat. Vanuit een positieve relatie met de jongere wordt geprobeerd persoonlijke doelen te behalen gericht op sociale competenties (zoals omgaan met conflicten, feedback geven en ontvangen en communicatie)

en loopbaan competenties (zelf kennis, reflectie, oriëntatie op werk). Uit eerder verricht onderzoek naar duurzame onderwijsvernieuwing blijkt dat (1) de balans tussen nieuwe dingen uitproberen (feed forward) en bestaande activiteiten waarborgen (feed back); (2) onderwijskundig gespreid leiderschap; (3) een gezamenlijke visie en (4) contextleiderschap belangrijke inzichten zijn om tot succesvolle en langdurige innovaties te komen. In dit gesprek wordt informatie verzameld over de verduurzaming van het programma PfS aan de hand van deze vier inzichten. De inzichten worden later aan de geïnterviewde uitgelegd aan de hand van beknopte beschrijvingen".

- Soort vragen: open vragen aan de hand van de 4 inzichten (die de geïnterviewde heeft gehoord en gelezen en voor zich heeft tijdens het gesprek).

- Duur van het interview: maximaal 1,5 uur.

- Publicatie resultaten: zo spoedig mogelijk na dit gesprek schrijft de interviewer een gespreksverslag. In het kader van de betrouwbaarheid zal dit verslag gemaild worden naar de geïnterviewde, opdat zij kunnen aangeven of het verslag een volledige, correcte en nauwkeurige weergave is van hetgeen gezegd is.

- Gebruik van geluidsopname: vertrouwelijk. Het gesprek wordt opgenomen. De opname wordt alleen door de interviewer zelf gebruikt ten behoeve van het gespreksverslag.

- Anonieme verwerking in proefschrift.

Inhoud van het interview *(De tekst tussen aanhalingstekens letterlijk zeggen.)*
"Zoals ik reeds in de instructie heb genoemd, zal dit gesprek ingaan op vier belangrijke inzichten over duurzame onderwijsontwikkeling. Van elk inzicht hebben we een beknopte beschrijving gemaakt. Deze beschrijving zal ik voorafgaand aan de vragen in een paar zinnen mondeling toelichten. Vervolgens kunt u de beschrijving doorlezen. Tijdens de beantwoording van de vragen kunt u deze erbij houden. Er is ruimte voor verhelderende vragen indien er onduidelijkheden zijn over wat er met een inzicht wordt bedoeld. We behandelen de inzichten één voor één."

Hieronder de beknopte beschrijvingen van de vier inzichten met bijbehorende vragen. De interviewer geeft een heel korte mondelinge toelichting op de variabele. Vervolgens wordt de beschrijving uitgedeeld en lezen de geïnterviewden de beschrijving. Daarna worden de vragen gesteld.

(A) Balans tussen feed forward en feedback
Met de balans tussen feed forward en feedback wordt bedoeld dat er een evenwicht zou moeten zijn tussen nieuwe dingen uitproberen (feed forward) en bestaande activiteiten of resultaten waarborgen (feed back). Bij het implementeren van Playing for Success (PfS) geldt dat een nieuw concept de school in komt. Een belangrijk kenmerk van dit concept is dat de leervraag van de student de kern vormt van een individueel curriculum. Dit

curriculum heeft grotendeels sociale en emotionele doelen. Competentie ontwikkeling gericht op school of loopbaan competenties zoals keuzes maken, oriëntatie vaardigheden en zelfkennis staan centraal. Betrokkenen, zoals docenten, studenten en hun ouders, verwachten van de school dat de leeropbrengsten gewaarborgd blijven (feedback), terwijl de schoolleiding samen met docenten bezig is een nieuw onderwijsprogramma vorm te geven (feed forward). Deze feed forward flows van leren schuren langs de feedback flows, die gericht zijn op het garanderen van kwalitatief hoogwaardige resultaten. Het is belangrijk om een goede balans hierin aan te brengen, zodat beide processen elkaar versterken.

Vragen over 'Balans tussen feed forward en feedback'

A1.PfS is een nieuw concept, deze zijn jullie gaan ontwikkelen, terwijl bestaande praktijken (zoals diploma eisen van het mbo en rendement) gehandhaafd bleven. Heeft u hier hinder van ondervonden.

A2. Op welke manier is er, naar uw mening, tijdens de implementatie van PfS vorm gegeven aan innoveren, vernieuwen en verbeteren?

A3. Op welke manier is er tijdens de implementatie van PfS vorm gegeven aan feedback, momenten van evaluatie en betekenisgeving, om de resultaten te waarborgen?

(B) Onderwijskundig gespreid leiderschap

Een tweede belangrijk inzicht betreft onderwijskundig gespreid leiderschap op alle niveaus in de schoolorganisatie. Hierbij gaat het om zowel formele als informele leiders. Bij leiderschap gaat het niet alleen om de leidinggevende, maar ook de mensen waaraan leiding wordt gegeven en de situatie spelen een belangrijke rol. De mensen waaraan leiding wordt gegeven zijn, in het geval van PfS, docenten. Zij zijn geen automatisch gehoorzame volgers of mensen die reageren op rationele argumenten. Het zijn professionals die op basis van hun eigen kennis, ervaringen en opvattingen reageren op de leidinggevende, op elkaar en op de omstandigheden. Het zou helpen als leidinggevenden op verschillende niveaus in de schoolorganisatie zich hiervan bewust zijn, hier ruimte aan geven, maar tegelijkertijd helderheid in doelen geven en hieraan vasthouden.

Vragen over 'Onderwijskundig gespreid leiderschap'

B1. Op welke manier is leiderschap in uw PfS context vorm gegeven?

B2. Welke formele vormen van leiderschap ervaart u binnen uw PfS programma?

B3. Welke informele vormen onderscheidt u binnen uw PfS programma?

B4. Ervaart u dat uw leidinggevende oog heeft voor uw opvattingen en hier ruimte aangeeft, zo ja waar blijkt dat uit, zo nee waar blijkt dat uit (evt. door vragen naar concrete voorbeelden).

B5. Hoe ervaart u de manier waarop u, in uw rol als docent, leiding geeft aan anderen bijvoorbeeld studenten?

(C) Gezamenlijke visie en helderheid over doelen

Wat docenten als demotiverend of niet constructief ervaren tijdens een vernieuwingsproces is dat leidinggevenden op verschillende niveaus in de schoolorganisatie "niet met één mond spreken". Leidinggevenden in een school zouden een gezamenlijk doel moeten nastreven. Het is noodzakelijk dat leidinggevenden denken en handelen vanuit een gedeelde gezamenlijke visie. Dit geldt zowel voor de visie op het opleiden van studenten die aan PfS deelnemen als op de leerprocessen van docenten die tijdens de ontwikkeling en implementatie van PfS plaatsvinden.

"**Vragen over 'Gezamenlijke visie en helderheid over doelen'**

C1. Wat is, volgens u, de visie die bij het concept van PfS hoort ten aanzien van het opleiden van studenten?

C2. Welke onderwijskundige doelen horen daarbij?

C3. Wat is, volgens u, de visie die bij het concept van PfS hoort ten aanzien van de leerprocessen van docenten?

C4. Hoe worden binnen uw PfS programma deze visie en doelen vastgelegd?

C5. Hoe worden betrokkenen over de visie en de doelen geïnformeerd?

C6. Hoe ervaart u de gezamenlijkheid met betrekking tot de visie op opleiden van studenten? Zijn er verschillende opvattingen onder de betrokkenen of bestaat er overeenstemming. Kunt u toelichten waaraan u dit merkt?

C7. Hoe ervaart u de gezamenlijkheid met betrekking tot de visie op de leerprocessen van de docenten? Zijn er verschillende opvattingen onder de betrokkenen of bestaat er overeenstemming. Kunt toelichten waaraan u dit merkt?

(D) Contextleiderschap

Leidinggevenden verschillen in de mate waarin zij de (geschatte) innovatiecapaciteit van de docenten in hun eigen school afwegen tegen de druk uit de omgeving om te veranderen. Als antwoord op de hoge uitval binnen ROC's is het PfS in het leven geroepen. Past deze oplossing en de snelheid waarmee PfS is ontwikkeld en geïmplementeerd bij de capaciteiten van docenten? Dit is een essentiële vraag die de leidinggevende zich zou moeten stellen. Het is belangrijk dat de leidinggevende voeling houdt met de ontwikkelingen op de werkvloer en zich tegelijkertijd bewust is van wat de mogelijkheden en kansen die de omgeving biedt. Dit is wat onder contextleiderschap wordt verstaan. De leidinggevende zou een linking pin tussen het innoverende team docenten, de school met bijbehorend onderwijskundig beleid en de externe omgeving moeten zijn.

Vragen over 'Contextleiderschap'

D1. PfS maakt deel uit van een mbo context en een breder landschap van het beroepsonderwijs en het bijbehorende werkveld en richtlijnen vanuit de overheid. Op welke manier heeft u, als docent, beïnvloeding vanuit deze context ervaren met betrekking tot PfS?

D2. Heeft uw leidinggevende deze contextdruk ook ervaren? Kunt u uitleggen waaraan u dat merkt?

D3. Een belangrijke factor in de context is de financiële waarborging van PfS. Op welke manier heeft u deze context factor ervaren?
D4. Welke rol heeft uw leidinggevende hierbij gespeeld?
D5. Hoe is uw leidinggevende omgegaan met de druk vanuit de context? Kunt u een voorbeeld geven waarbij er knelpunten ontstonden, of juist een voorbeeld waarin u deze contextdruk naar tevredenheid werd gemanaged?
D6. Hoe kijkt u aan tegen de rol van uw leidinggevende, als linking pin, tussen PfS, het mbo en de externe actoren? Op welke manier blijft u geïnformeerd op al deze vlakken?

Afsluitende vragen (E)
E1. Zijn er nog punten die besproken moeten worden als het gaat om uw rol als docent in relatie met uw leidinggevende binnen PfS?

Afsluiting
De interviewer bedankt de geïnterviewde voor zijn/haar tijd. Via de mail zal het gespreksverslag naar hem/haar toekomen.

Appendix J

Deductive codebook chapter 5

J.1 Integrated model for sustainable innovation

Hoofd code	Beschrijving
Flows of learning (A)	Balans tussen nieuwe dingen uitproberen (feed forward) en bestaande activiteiten of resultaten waarborgen (feed back). Spanningen rondom de verwachtingen van de school m.b.t. leeropbrengsten (feedback), terwijl de schoolleiding samen met docenten bezig is een nieuw onderwijsprogramma vorm te geven (feed forward).
Distributed leadership (B)	Leiderschap op alle niveaus in de schoolorganisatie. Zowel formele als informele leiders. Relatie tussen leidinggevende en de mensen waaraan leiding wordt gegeven en de situatie/omgeving. Evenwicht tussen ruimte geven voor eigenheid van personeel en tegelijkertijd vasthouden aan gestelde doelen.
Vision and goals (C)	Gezamenlijke doelen moeten nastreven. Het denken en handelen vanuit een gedeelde gezamenlijke visie. Dit geldt zowel voor de visie op het opleiden van studenten als op de leerprocessen van docenten.
Context conscious leadership (D)	De ontwikkelingen op de werkvloer en de mogelijkheden en kansen die de omgeving hiervoor biedt. De link tussen het innoverende team docenten, de school met bijbehorend onderwijskundig beleid en de externe omgeving.

J.2 Self-determination theory

Hoofdcode	Beschrijving
Competence	Het gevoel bij te dragen aan doelen, de eigen competenties en het vertrouwen daarin, de kwaliteiten van anderen. Ontwikkeling van competenties.
Relatedness	Relaties met collega's of studenten, relaties van studenten onder elkaar, contact en connectie.
Autonomy	Herkend en erkend worden, respect ervaren, de eigen inbreng, eigen mening, zelf mogen besluiten, zelf de weg kunnen kiezen, vrijheid van werken.

Summary

Building on earlier research the present study was conducted in order to expand the research-based knowledge about effective drop-out prevention by researching in depth one intervention, implemented in four programs for at-risk youth that were developed with and within four SVE schools in The Netherlands. The programs were based on a program for primary school children in the United Kingdom that was aimed at enhancing motivation for learning and inspired by the ideal that sports can be used as a vehicle for social and emotional learning and re-engaging youth. According to literature such an approach might indeed have potential. We aim to know how the programs are implemented and enacted by teachers and students, how they think and feel about the programs and what problems they face during enactment of the programs. We chose to focus in this study on program quality operationalized by the relevance, consistency, practicality, effectiveness and sustainability of the programs and why students benefit from the programs (or not).

The question that directed this study was:

According to the perceptions of managers, teachers and students, what are the effective characteristics of four programs implemented for students at risk in secondary vocational education in order to decrease the drop-out rate?

In order to answer the main research question; four sub-studies were conducted in which we chose to include different program representations. In study one, we focused upon the perceived program characteristics as they arose from teachers' practice. In study two, we investigated the students' perspective on the programs. For study three, we researched teachers' emotions and feelings and in the fourth study, we examined the long-term sustainability of the programs.

Study 1: Perceived program characteristics

For sub-study one concerning the perceived program characteristics, a qualitative research approach was chosen and data were collected using multi methods. The first research question was aimed at teachers' perceptions of effective program characteristics. The second research question addressed teachers' perceptions regarding positive learning experiences to students. Data were collected from two sources. First, interviews were conducted with teachers who worked in the programs. The aim of the interviews was to identify program characteristics based on teachers' program enactment and perceptions. In addition, documents were gathered to obtain information about the written programs including goals, pedagogical principles and

planned learning activities. Teachers perceived that for improved student engagement, which was the aim of the program, the curriculum must be tailored to students' individual needs. In addition, they asserted that social learning had to be prioritized above academic learning. In practice, teachers facilitated the development of students' competencies in different ways, by using a combination of peer group dynamics, sports activities and job orientation. Teachers believed that students' engagement and motivation depend on their relations with peers and teachers. The teacher's role was defined as being a coach of social skills, as an expert in the use of sports activities to develop students' competencies, and as a group manager, being able to create a positive peer group climate.

Teachers emphasized the indispensable contribution of positive learning experiences on students' engagement and motivation. Three important cornerstones for positive learning were mentioned: (1) equality in the relationship between student and teacher, operationalized in practice by non-directive coaching, sharing personal stories and humor; (2) positive relations between peers, operationalized by peer group coaching and peer feedback; and (3) a match between the curriculum and the students by the adaptation of learning activities, learning content and learning goals to students' individual needs, engaging students in goal-setting, attractive sports activities and on a location outside the school building.

Study 2: Students' perspective

Sub-study two addressed the students' perspective on the programs based on their experiences and was conducted with a mixed methods approach. For this study, interviews were conducted with students who participated in the programs at the four different schools. Students were interviewed immediately after they had finished the programs and were asked about their experiences In addition, students completed a questionnaire aimed at providing information about their engagement. Findings suggest that students' engagement was supported in this program especially emotional engagement. Support was reflected in relationships with peers and teachers, as students felt respected, recognized and appreciated and reported feelings of joy and fun. They also experienced enhancement of self-esteem and self-worth. Students and teachers together shared and discussed personal stories and emotions, which helped students to determine and understand effective behavior and goals. In addition, students were interested in the program because of the relevant learning goals for their personal lives, the extraordinary location and challenging sports activities. Relationships with teachers and peers were perceived as caring and respectful and, together with sports activities, evoked feelings of fun, joy and pleasure for students in this program. This helped

students to lower their resistance be more open for learning and reflection which was, according to students, conditional for autonomy and competence support. The conclusion that students' engagement in this program is supported through connection with peers and teachers is strengthened by the quantitative data that pointed at a positive change in students' engagement, especially the emotional component.

Study 3: Teachers' emotions

Sub-study three, which investigated teachers' emotions, consisted of a qualitative study based on interviews with teachers. The aim of this study was to investigate teachers' perceived emotions in their classroom practice and how emotions were related to their perceived well-being. Based on our literature study, we posed that teachers' perceived well-being was affected by their emotional experiences in their classroom practice through their perceptions of autonomy, competence and relatedness. In our results, we reported that teachers perceived mixed emotions caused by interactions with students, the students' learning process, colleagues and their program. We conclude that the following characteristics of classroom practices contribute positively to teachers' perceived well-being:

- Practices in which teacher feel free to adapt and evolve their program to meet students' needs.
- Practices in which teachers have the opportunity to support students' individual learning processes and moreover are able to determine their personal contribution to students' success and achievement.
- Practices that allow teachers to have interactions with students that are characterized by normal classroom contact, such as talks and chats, and that allow teachers to have more emotional contact through sharing personal stories and feelings with students.
- Practices in which teachers have the opportunity to work closely together with colleagues, expressed by shared program vision, goals and responsibilities.

In addition, we argue that the following classroom characteristics diminish teachers' perceived well-being:

- Practices in which teachers are hindered from optimally adapt their program to students' needs, due to organizational or financial aspects.
- Practices in which teachers do not feel capable of supporting students optimally, for example, due to their perceived lack of pedagogical skills or competences.

- Practice in which teachers experience too much emotional load due to personal involvement with students, for example, when they feel pushed beyond their own limits or worry too much about individual students.
- Practice in which teachers work alone or lack support from colleagues.

Study 4: Program sustainability

Sub-study four was a follow-up study regarding program sustainability and was conducted three years after the programs were implemented. The aim of this study was to investigate program characteristics from the perspective of sustainability for which a multi- method approach was chosen. Interviews were conducted with teachers and managers of the programs that focused upon sustainability of the programs. In addition, documents were gathered about the formal, written curriculum. For this study, we used two theoretical frameworks namely the integrated model for sustainable innovation and the self-determination theory, which were chosen because they focus, from different perspectives, upon the learning that is the heart of sustainable innovation.

For School A, teachers together with their manager shared and discussed program goals and pedagogical approaches and worked together as a team based on equality. Stakeholder expectations were managed by providing information and explaining program goals. and teachers were actively engaged in development of new practices and future development of the program. The manager was considered as a facilitator for development at the organizational level. At school A, the teachers as well as their manager experienced a lot of autonomy in their work. Yet too much autonomy was perceived by the teachers as undesirable. Teachers were convinced that they were competent to meet the program goals, which was perceived as important for the future of the program.

At School B, sense making was an important theme for the teachers and their manager. However, they did not have structural meetings to discuss the program goals and vision with all stakeholders. Expectations from stakeholders that were experienced were managed by providing information. The teachers perceived development of new practices as an important part of their job; however, this was not stimulated or directed by their manager, who took on the role of facilitator at the organizational level. The teachers and their manager perceived little connection between different levels of the innovation, which was seen as a threat for the future position of the program within the school context. Teachers perceived a lot of autonomy in their work, based on trust and expertise. The manager furthermore perceived that teachers had to develop their competences due to the innovative character of the program. The

manager also perceived himself as having too much autonomy in his job, which was interpreted as little engagement by the other stakeholders.

For School C, collective sense making was not always easy, as teachers differed in their vision regarding pedagogical approach. Relationships between the manager and the teachers were perceived as warm and open on organizational issues as well as personal issues. The role of the manager was perceived as being responsible for the connections between all stakeholders. Expectations by stakeholders were handled through explanation of program goals and communication. Transparency was seen as important for the sustainability of the program. The teachers and the manager experienced high levels of autonomy and teamwork, and respected each other's expertise. They had to account for the program at all levels of the organization, but did not experience controlling behavior by the stakeholders. According to them, autonomy was based on trust in their competence. Teachers at this school were constantly challenged to develop their competences, with support from the manager.

Conclusion

The main research question was aimed at perceived effective characteristics of programs for students at risk in secondary vocational education, which we investigated using five criteria namely, relevance, consistency, practicality, effectiveness and sustainability.

We conclude that the programs were highly relevant which was not only based on research on students' and teachers' perspective which was not only based on research on the students' and teachers' perspective. Findings provided evidence that the foundation of the programs were inspired by an ideal that was based on empirical research. Furthermore the programs were implemented keeping in mind the specific contextual conditions that are conditional for learning through sports, such as strong teachers and a social learning climate.

Based on the findings we conclude that the learner-centered approach, the high level of teachers' engagement, peer support and sports reflected program consistency, although the exact contribution of sports could not be determined because teachers and students differed in their perceptions about the role of sports for students' learning.

The practicality of the programs was strongly affected by the strategy that was chosen for program development and implementation by each of the participating schools. First, the manager and the teachers of each school described program goals. After that, the programs were implemented using a strategy that consisted of three phases, namely, try-out, evaluation and improvement. After ten weeks, the program was evaluated by teachers and students, which brought up suggestions for improvement of the program. Next the program was

adapted in view of the improvement suggestions. We conclude that, for practicality it was important to engage all stakeholders in the process of implementation, including in this case the school organization and the top sports organization.

Based on the findings for effectiveness we conclude that students who participated in the programs perceived a change in their personal emotions and feelings, and that changes in the behaviors of students were observed and reported by teachers.

Based on our research, one of the most important factors affecting program sustainability was the relationships between stakeholders within the programs. These relationships focused on shared program goals and shared expectations about program effects. Relationships were important for carrying out the developmental strategy, including the phases of try-out, evaluation and improvement. Poor connection between stakeholders and too much autonomous program enactment was perceived as a threat for the future success of the programs at all investigated schools. Yet, our research also points out the importance of teachers' autonomy and competence for a high quality program implementation. To find a proper balance between stakeholder interference and autonomy for teachers to do their jobs is an important task for managers. It is their responsibility to enable teachers, as experts, to create well-adapted programs for students and also engage the other stakeholders.

Dutch summary

Deze studie sluit aan op eerder onderzoek op het gebied van preventie van voortijdig schoolverlaten in het middelbaar beroepsonderwijs (mbo), en wil vanuit de onderwijspraktijk een bijdrage leveren aan de kennisontwikkeling van voortijdig schoolverlaten.
In deze studie werden vier onderwijsprogramma's onderzocht waarin op het microniveau van het middelbaar beroepsonderwijs interventies zijn ontwikkeld bedoeld om studenten, enerzijds (opnieuw) te motiveren voor hun opleiding, en anderzijds hun betrokkenheid met hun opleiding te vergroten. De programma's zijn geïnspireerd op het concept Playing for Success en ontwikkeld in het Verenigd Koninkrijk waarbij de sportomgeving werd ingezet om jongeren uit het basisonderwijs te onderwijzen. Het concept Playing for Success als leeromgeving voor basisschoolleerlingen had voldoende potentie om in het mbo toe te passen. Echter het is onbekend hoe deze programma's door mbo-docenten en -studenten zijn geïmplementeerd en uitgevoerd en wat hun ervaringen en percepties zijn, hoe zij denken en hoe zij zich voelen tijdens de uitvoering en verduurzaming van de programma's.
In deze studie is ervoor gekozen om te focussen op de kwaliteit van de programma's, geoperationaliseerd aan de hand van relevantie, consistentie, praktische uitvoerbaarheid, effectiviteit en duurzaam karakter van de programma's. Tegelijkertijd werd onderzocht waarom studenten van de programma's profiteren (of niet).
Het onderzoek geeft antwoord op de volgende onderzoeksvraag:

Wat zijn, volgens managers, docenten en studenten, de effectieve karakteristieken van vier programma's voor risicostudenten, die in vier mbo-instellingen zijn geïmplementeerd voor reductie van het aantal voortijdig schoolverlaters?

Om deze vraag te beantwoorden zijn vier substudies uitgevoerd. De eerste studie is gericht op de programma karakteristieken gebaseerd op de ervaringen en percepties van docenten die in de programma's werken. In de tweede studie werden percepties en ervaringen van studenten die het programma volgden onderzocht. De derde studie is gericht op de emoties van docenten en in de vierde studie is de duurzaamheid van de programma's onderzocht.

Studie 1: Percepties op programma karakteristieken

Voor de eerste studie, gericht op de percepties van docenten op programma karakteristieken werd voor een kwalitatieve onderzoeksstrategie gekozen, waarin gebruik is gemaakt van

verschillende methodes om data te verzamelen. In de eerste plaats werden interviews gehouden met docenten die in de programma's werkten. Ook werden documenten verzameld (documentanalyse) die gebruikt werden om inzicht te krijgen in het gedocumenteerde en formele programma, en inzicht gaven in de programmadoelen, pedagogische uitgangspunten en geplande leeractiviteiten. Volgens de docenten was het belangrijk dat het programma aansloot op de individuele ontwikkelingsbehoeften van studenten. Daarnaast benadrukten zij dat sociaal en emotioneel leren in het programma prioriteit had ten opzichte van academisch leren. De docenten werkten op verschillende manieren aan de ontwikkeling van hun studenten en hanteerden een combinatie van activiteiten gericht op: groepsdynamische processen, beroepsoriëntatie en sportactiviteiten. Docenten rapporteerden dat de betrokkenheid en motivatie van studenten afhing van de kwaliteit van relaties die studenten met hun peers en docenten onderhielden. Docenten definieerden hun rol als volgt: zij zijn coach op het gebied van sociaal emotionele vaardigheden, expert in het gebruiken van sport als middel voor de ontwikkeling van studenten en zijn groepsmanager voor het ontwikkelen van een positief en sociaal leerklimaat. Docenten benadrukten het onmiskenbare belang van positieve ervaringen om betrokkenheid en motivatie van studenten te verbeteren. Drie belangrijke uitgangspunten voor positieve leerervaringen werden genoemd: 1) gelijkwaardige relaties tussen docenten en studenten, dat zichtbaar werd in een niet-directieve manier van coachen, het delen van persoonlijke verhalen en het gebruik van humor; 2) positieve relaties tussen leeftijdsgenoten dat werd geoperationaliseerd door coaching en feedback van leeftijdgenoten; en 3) een match tussen het programma en de student, waarbij de leeractiviteiten werden aangepast op de behoeften van de individuele student en de student betrokken werd in het opstellen van zijn leerdoelen. Volgens docenten sloten de aantrekkelijke sportactiviteiten en de buitenschoolse topsportomgeving aan op de belevingen en interesses van de studenten.

Studie 2: Perspectieven van studenten

De tweede studie richtte zich op de perspectieven van studenten op de programma's en werd uitgevoerd met een kwalitatieve en een kwantitatieve onderzoeksstrategie. In deze studie werden interviews gehouden met studenten die meededen aan de programma's. Daarnaast werden vragenlijsten afgenomen bij de studenten met betrekking tot hun betrokkenheid.
De resultaten lieten zien dat studenten in het programma vooral ondersteuning ervaarden in hun emotionele betrokkenheid, dat zichtbaar werd in de relaties die zij met hun peers en hun docenten onderhielden. Studenten gaven aan zich gerespecteerd en gewaardeerd te voelen en

zich te herkennen in elkaars levensloop. Dit leidde tot positieve gevoelens bij studenten. Studenten kregen meer zelfvertrouwen en hierdoor ontwikkelden zij een positiever zelfbeeld. Hierdoor deelden de studenten met hun peers en docenten hun persoonlijke ervaringen en gevoelens. Dit hielp hen te begrijpen welk gedrag tot succes leidde, waarom dit zo is en hoe zij hun gedrag konden veranderen. Daarnaast waardeerden de studenten het programma, omdat de programma inhoud en de leerdoelen aansloten op hun persoonlijke leven en levensomstandigheden, de bijzondere locatie in een non-schoolse omgeving en het aanbod van uitdagende sportactiviteiten. Relaties met docenten en leeftijdsgenoten werden door de studenten ervaren als zorgzaam en respectvol. Deze relaties riepen, samen met sportactiviteiten, positieve gevoelens op bij de studenten, waardoor zij minder weerstand ervaarden en aangaven meer open te staan voor reflectie en leren. De betrokkenheid van studenten werd gestimuleerd en op basis van de kwantitatieve data werd geconstateerd dat hun emotionele betrokkenheid met school is vooruitgegaan.

Studie 3: Emoties van docenten

Voor de derde studie, waarin de emoties van docenten werd onderzocht, is voor een kwalitatieve onderzoeksstrategie gekozen, gebaseerd op interviews met docenten. Doel van deze studie was om de emoties van docenten te onderzoeken zoals die in hun onderwijspraktijk voorkomen, en hoe deze emoties zijn gerelateerd aan hun gevoel van welbevinden. Op basis van de literatuur werd verondersteld dat het welbevinden van docenten hun gevoel van autonomie, competentie en relatie zou beïnvloeden. In onze resultaten rapporteerden we dat docenten gemengde gevoelens hadden over hun werk met deze doelgroep studenten, veroorzaakt door interacties met studenten, resultaten van het leerproces van studenten, samenwerking met hun collega's waarmee het programma werd uitgevoerd. We concludeerden dat de onderwijspraktijk positief had bijgedragen aan het gevoel van welbevinden van docenten. Het ging om de volgende onderwijspraktijken:

- Onderwijspraktijken waarin docenten zich vrij voelen om hun programma aan te passen aan, en te ontwikkelen op basis van behoeften van hun studenten.
- Onderwijspraktijken waarin docenten de mogelijkheid hebben om het individuele leerproces van studenten te ondersteunen, en waarin zij tevens in staat zijn om de eigen persoonlijke bijdrage aan het succes van studenten vast te stellen.
- Onderwijspraktijken waarin docenten de mogelijkheid hebben om vanuit een gemeenschappelijke didactiek een pedagogische interactie met hun studenten op te bouwen, die leidt tot een persoonlijk emotionele binding met hen, waardoor

studenten zich vrij voelden hun gevoelens, persoonlijke verhalen en ervaringen met docenten en peers te delen.

- Onderwijspraktijken waarin docenten nauw met collega's samenwerken, een gezamenlijke onderwijsvisie ontwikkelen, onderwijsdoelen nastreven, en vanuit een gedeelde verantwoordelijkheid het onderwijsprogramma willen doorontwikkelen.

Daarnaast werd geconcludeerd dat de volgende karakteristieken van de onderwijspraktijk een negatieve invloed hadden op het gevoel van welbevinden bij docenten:

- Onderwijspraktijken waarin docenten zich gehinderd voelen in het optimaal aanpassen van het onderwijsprogramma aan de behoeften van studenten, omdat de financiële en organisatorische randvoorwaarden van de onderwijsorganisatie prioriteit hadden boven de behoeften van de studenten en de docenten.
- Onderwijspraktijken waarin docenten zich onvoldoende capabel voelden om studenten optimaal te ondersteunen; zij voelden zich niet competent en beschikten over geringe pedagogisch didactische vaardigheden.
- Onderwijspraktijken waarin docenten te veel emotionele belasting voelden door hun persoonlijke betrokkenheid bij de studenten, bijvoorbeeld als zij zich gedwongen voelden om over hun eigen grenzen heen te gaan, of overmatig begaan waren met het persoonlijk lot van een individuele student.
- Onderwijspraktijken waarin docenten solistisch werkten en/of niet of nauwelijks steun ervaarden van hun collega's.

Studie 4: Duurzaamheid van de programma's

Studie vier was een follow-up studie die drie jaar na implementatie van de programma's werd uitgevoerd met focus op een duurzame doorwerking van de programma's in de ROC-organisatie. Voor deze studie werden twee theoretische raamwerken gebruikt: (1) het 'Model voor Duurzame Onderwijs Innovatie'; en (2) de 'Zelf-Determinatie Theorie'. Beide raamwerken focussen op duurzame leerprocessen van docenten en hun managers, hetgeen in deze studie als kloppend hart werd beschouwd van een duurzame onderwijsinnovatie.
Op school A was de balans tussen het geven van feedback en feed forward belangrijk voor docenten en hun manager. Gezamenlijke betekenisgeving vond plaats door de programmadoelen en de pedagogische aanpak samen te bespreken en te bediscussiëren, gericht op verbeteracties van het programma. De verwachtingen van stakeholders werden

gemanaged door hen tijdig te informeren, en hen uitleg te geven over de programmadoelen. De visie op zowel het programma, als op de doelen waren eerder in het proces vastgesteld en werden als té sturend ervaren voor de ontwikkeling van het programma. De pedagogische verschillen in aanpak werden juist gewaardeerd en gerespecteerd, mits de programmadoelen werden behaald. De docenten en de manager werkten als een professioneel team gebaseerd op gelijkwaardigheid. Docenten werden gezien als experts in de onderwijspraktijk en werden actief betrokken bij het doorontwikkelen van de onderwijspraktijk, gericht op de toekomst van het programma. De manager werd op deze school gezien als een facilitator en mediator tussen hoger management en team. Op school A ervaarden docenten en hun manager veel autonomie en competentie in hun werk. Echter te veel doorgeschoten autonomie werd door de docenten niet wenselijk gevonden.

Op school B prioriteerden docenten en manager hun gezamenlijke betekenisgeving, maar in de praktijk werd weinig gezamenlijke betekenisgeving ervaren. Zowel de docenten als de manager hadden te maken met verwachtingen van de school, van ouders en hun studenten, gericht op academische uitkomsten. De docenten hanteerden deze verwachtingen door helderheid te geven over programmadoelen die meer sociaal emotioneel van aard waren. De manager verzette zich, omdat de verwachtingen van stakeholders de ontwikkeling van het op kennis georiënteerde programma negatief beïnvloedden. De docenten vonden het ontwikkelen en innoveren van het programma als een belangrijke teamtaak, maar werden hierin door hun teammanager niet werd ondersteund. Deze teammanager vervulde de rol van facilitator en richtte zich primair op uitvoering van het ROC-beleid. Er vonden geen structurele bijeenkomsten met stakeholders plaats, hetgeen door docenten en manager als een tekortkoming werd ervaren. De docenten en manager werden onzeker over hun baan en toekomstige positie van het vsv-programma binnen hun mbo-instelling. Op school B ervaarden docenten eveneens veel autonomie in hun werk, gebaseerd op vertrouwen en expertise. Daarnaast ervaarde de manager weinig betrokkenheid van andere stakeholders.

Op school C was gemeenschappelijke betekenisgeving een hoofdthema, dit proces werd door docenten niet altijd als gemakkelijk ervaren omdat er verschillen waren in pedagogische opvattingen. Verwachtingen van stakeholders werden gemanaged door hen te informeren over programmadoelen. Communicatie over deze doelen werd gezien als een belangrijke component voor het verduurzamen van het programma. De docent en de manager ervaarden een hoog gehalte van teamwork en respecteerden elkaars expertise. Zij waren ervan overtuigd dat binnen de mbo-instelling voldoende mogelijkheden aanwezig waren om het programma te versterken, en dat hun innovatieve ideeën opgedaan tijdens de uitvoering van het programma

toegepast konden worden binnen andere beroepsopleidingen en de reguliere schoolcontext eveneens zou versterken. Ondanks het feit dat docenten en hun teammanager voldoende autonomie ervaarden, werden zij op schoolorganisatorisch niveau steeds opnieuw geconfronteerd om aan het hoger management verantwoording af te leggen. Autonomie is volgens hen gebaseerd op onderling vertrouwen en elkaars expertise gebruiken. Docenten in deze school werden voortdurend uitgedaagd hun competenties te ontwikkelen. Relaties tussen de manager en de docent werden als warm en open ervaren, zowel op het gebied van organisatorische als op persoonlijke ontwikkeltaken. De docenten vonden dat de manager verantwoordelijk was voor het onderhouden van relaties tussen alle stakeholders.

Conclusie

De hoofdvraag van deze studie was gericht op effectieve karakteristieken van de vier onderwijsprogramma's voor risicojongeren in het mbo, gebaseerd op de perspectieven van managers, docenten en studenten werkzaam in vier mbo-instellingen. De programma's werden onderzocht op basis van vijf kwaliteitscriteria, namelijk: relevantie, consistentie, praktische uitvoerbaarheid, effectiviteit en duurzaamheid.

Gebaseerd op de resultaten werd geconcludeerd dat het programma inhoudelijk relevant is voor de studenten. Deze conclusie is niet alleen gebaseerd op de perspectieven van docenten en studenten, maar ook op de theoretische fundering van de programma's en het afgenomen empirisch onderzoek. De programma's werden geïmplementeerd in de mbo-instellingen, afgestemd op leren in een sportcontext en gebaseerd op een intensief individuele begeleiding van docenten binnen een sociaal leerklimaat afgestemd op de persoonlijke situatie van de risicostudenten.

De persoonsgerichte aanpak, de hoge mate van betrokkenheid van docenten, support van leeftijdsgenoten en sportcontext droegen bij aan een consistent onderwijsprogramma. De invloed van de sportcontext op de ontwikkeling van studenten werd per mbo-instelling verschillend ingevuld, omdat docenten en studenten vanuit verschillende perspectieven de sportcontext een plaats in het programma hadden gegeven.

We concluderen verder een hoge mate van praktische inzetbaarheid van de programma's, gebaseerd op de implementatiestrategie die door elke school verschillend werd ingezet. Deze strategie bestond uit drie fasen: uitprobeerfase, evaluatie en verbetering. De uitprobeerfase duurde tien weken, waarin het programma werd uitgevoerd met studenten. Na deze tien weken werd het programma geëvalueerd met docenten en studenten, hetgeen leidde tot verbetersuggesties voor het programma. Daarna werd het programma aangepast in lijn met

deze suggesties. We concluderen met betrekking tot de praktische uitvoerbaarheid dat het belangrijk is alle stakeholders, inclusief alle actoren van de mbo-instelling en de topsportorganisatie in dit implementatieproces te betrekken.

Voor de effectiviteit van het programma concluderen we dat studenten die deelnamen aan de programma's een verandering bij zichzelf zagen, met name in hun gevoel en emoties. Deze veranderingen in gedrag werden door in de klas waargenomen en gerapporteerd.

Ten slotte werd geconcludeerd dat de relatie tussen alle stakeholders van de innovatieve programma's één van de belangrijkste elementen is voor duurzame programma implementatie. De relaties waren belangrijk voor het creëren van gemeenschappelijke programmadoelen, en gebaseerd op overeenstemming in verwachtingen en het gezamenlijk uitvoeren van de ontwikkel- en implementatiestrategie. Geen of een slechte relatie tussen stakeholders, en te veel autonomie tijdens het uitvoeren van de programma's werd op alle onderzochte scholen gezien als een bedreiging voor een duurzame programma implementatie. Tegelijkertijd werd uit de resultaten duidelijk dat het belangrijk is docenten autonomie te geven voor de ontwikkeling van een kwalitatief goed onderwijsprogramma, gebaseerd op hun ervaring en expertise met risicostudenten. Het zorg dragen van een juiste balans tussen invloed en relatie van de stakeholders en tegelijkertijd autonomie geven aan docenten om als experts hun werk te doen was een belangrijke verantwoordelijkheid voor de managers. Belangrijk voor het ontwikkelen van een duurzaam onderwijsprogramma voor risicostudenten in een mbo-instelling!

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