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# **Theory-based evaluation of the curriculum Lgr 11**

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# Theory-based evaluation of the curriculum Lgr 11<sup>a</sup>

by

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## Abstract

This report presents and describes an evaluation project of the most recent Swedish curriculum reform, *Curriculum for the compulsory school, preschool class and the recreation centre, Lgr 11*. The purpose of the evaluation project is to generate new knowledge concerning the influences of international educational reform movements, national curriculum reforms and the implications for local teacher assessment practices. In this study we: (i) build on the framework of classical, explanatory curriculum theory by relating the societal, the programmatic and the classroom curriculum level, (ii) add a transnational perspective to the societal/ideological arena, (iii) link educational policies in the various arenas and levels by using the concept of recontextualisation, (iv) approach the question of what counts as knowledge as a struggle between basic curriculum orientations, and (v) introduce discursive institutionalism to curriculum theory as a way of including agency and change in educational institutions. The evaluation is using a mixed-methods design combining a discourse analysis of key curriculum documents, a quantitative teacher survey (n = 1 887) and a teacher interview study.

The results show that the curriculum reform of Lgr 11 involves fundamental changes in the underlying ideas and assumptions (curriculum philosophies), which can partly be explained by a dominant transnational curriculum policy discourse. Further, Lgr 11 is in line with the standards-based reform model, which presumes a unidirectional and linear application of reform intentions and the results indicate an increased instrumentality in the view of teaching as a result of prescribed knowledge requirements and increased performance pressure. Finally, the evaluation shows that there are substantiated reasons to assume that the curriculum reform of 2011 will emphasize summative evaluation in Swedish schools, despite a strong discourse advocating formative assessment.

Keywords: Education policy, education, school, schooling, teacher  
JEL-codes: I28, H75, I21

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## 1 Introduction

This report presents and describes an evaluation project of the most recent Swedish curriculum reform, *Curriculum for the compulsory school, preschool class and the recreation centre, Lgr 11*. The project, entitled *A theory-based evaluation of curriculum reform*, has been running for two years, 2013 and 2014, and has been undertaken by two researchers on a part-time basis. The project takes the form of a pilot study and is an early follow up of the Swedish curriculum reform for the compulsory school. The project also aims to revitalise an evaluation tradition within the discipline of education that allows for a contextualisation and explanation of the evaluation results.

### 1.1 Purpose and research questions

The purpose of this evaluation project is to generate new knowledge concerning the influences of international educational reform movements, national curriculum reforms and the implications for local teacher assessment practices. The project focuses on the intentions, implementation and consequences/effects of the curriculum reform for the compulsory school, Lgr 11. Lgr 11 is evaluated from a curriculum theory perspective, where curriculum can be distinguished at three levels (Lundgren 1989): (i) *the intended curriculum* – the societal/ideological level for the selection of norms and knowledge, (ii) *the enacted curriculum* – the curriculum work of teachers at the local school and (iii) *the achieved curriculum* – how the goals and content of the curriculum are assessed by teachers.

The multiplication of regulatory activities, actors, networks and constellations in the education policy sector, at both the national and transnational level, have changed the premises for national curriculum-making. The policy exchange concerns crucial questions such as schooling for social cohesion and multicultural citizenship, for a sustainable future, for enterprise and innovation and critical literacy including digital literacy. The arguments for restructuring the curriculum and including future key competencies have stressed that in order to achieve technological progress, economic growth and social wellbeing there is a need for a mix of highly specialised and generic skills (Rychen & Salganik 2003). In this context, the European Commission wants the key competencies to be made more visible in the national school curriculum (European Commission 2007). This has led to a shift from subject-specific to generic curriculum criteria and to an increased focus on learning outcomes (Sundberg & Wahlström 2012).

Of crucial significance is the issue of teaching for curriculum coherence - social goals and knowledge requirements for all students, which means balancing standardised measures for evaluating school achievement with an understanding of learning outcomes as preparation for life.

The key evaluation questions are:

- 1 The intended curriculum
  - a. Which factors and aspects of Lgr 11 accord with a transnational coordination of curriculum reforms, and which factors can be understood as being in line with national curriculum traditions and national policy?
- 2 The enacted curriculum
  - b. How is Lgr 11 understood and enacted by teachers, and what are the implications for the organisation of learning tasks and assessment practices?
  - c. Which versions of teaching (teaching practices) related to the Lgr 11 reform can be found in the teachers' statements?
- 3 The achieved curriculum
  - d. What are the decisive results of the analysis of the evaluation of Lgr 11 in terms of its construction and effects on teaching and assessment practices?

## **2 A theory-based evaluation of curriculum reform**

Theory-oriented evaluation is characterised by an explicit theory basis for the understanding of the reform that takes account of the normative values embedded in the reform, its socio-political and historical context, the processes and results of the reform and critical analyses of the social forces served by the reform (Schwandt 2003). As an evaluation methodology, the theory-based evaluation has provided an important basis for curriculum evaluation, both in Scandinavia and internationally (Haug & Schwandt 2003; Franke-Wikberg 1992). The idea is that each evaluation should be based on a theoretically informed assumption about the phenomenon to be evaluated with a view to *explaining* the findings of the evaluation rather than merely reporting results. Therefore, every evaluation needs to take a macro- or societal theoretical perspective in order to understand and explain what is going on in education and in school. The ideological and

structural conditions in society constitute the constraints for the formation and content of education and influence the activities at all levels of the school organisation, including the classroom. The pedagogical process should be understood in terms of its external and its internal prerequisites. With a point of departure in the societal aspect of education, it becomes possible to explain the relations between conditions, processes and results. In this sense, the meaning of theory is almost synonymous with explanation. Further, the theory-based evaluation aims to produce expanded and critical reflective knowledge about the phenomena being studied (Franke-Wikberg & Lundgren 1980).

After the Second World War, the United States (and the Soviet Union) looked to their systems of education to produce the workforce needed for industrial production and technical innovations. By the 1950s the prevailing evaluation of education was based on structural functionalism developed within sociology of education. The focus was on the preservation of 'human resources' and 'sorting' the students 'at the right time' in the education system so that 'everyone's talent could be utilised'. Functionalism, with its aim of promoting effective policy for equality and efficiency in the expanding national compulsory school system by addressing problems that could be tackled by means of research, remained dominant in the 1950s not only in the US but also in France, Germany and Scandinavia. In Sweden, for example, the evaluation of education was directed toward the effects of ability grouping and the right time for differentiating students in different specialisations within the school system. During the 1960s and 1970s the theory of structural functionalism was heavily criticised for being too technical and too 'apolitical'. In short, it was viewed as research that served the political system and in this respect lost its critical potential. In a well-known book published in 1977, sociologists Jerome Karabel and A.H. Halsey argued that the role of the social scientist as a critical evaluator limited his or her incorporation in administration and decision making, in that 'social problems' could not only be viewed as having technical solutions, but were also open to political and ideological considerations. In a comprehensive debate in the 1960s it was argued that the macro-sociological approaches hitherto used had not been able to resolve or explain 'the perennial problem' of differential academic achievement. The promise of a 'new sociology' was instead made in an attempt to develop an interpretative approach that focused on the content of education and the internal activities of schools (Karabel &

Halsey 1977). In Sweden, the national evaluation system was also criticised in the 1970s for being too unwieldy, although at the same time there was an obvious risk of providing too little information about the state of education and schools. The main deficiency was considered to be that the evaluation was structured as a simple input-output model and focused on comparing the formulated goals relating to students' learning outcomes without taking the teaching process, content, time, groups of students and so on into consideration (see Dahllöf 1989). This is an approach that is still recognisable today, in 2015. Since the mid-1900s two main types of evaluation models have existed side by side. The first is the product- and control-oriented evaluation, which is a summative evaluation to establish whether certain objectives have been achieved. It says something about the results, but not much about how or why they have arisen. An alternative and competing model is the formative evaluation, which aims to understand and explain the results and thereby contribute to change for the better. This second alternative has mainly been associated with local evaluations and has been criticised for being too 'small-scale', 'subjective' and difficult for the national school authorities to handle. A theory-based evaluation suggests a third alternative, namely the formulation of a frame of reference for the evaluation that specifies the perspective from which the evaluation is carried out and clarifies the meaning of what has been evaluated by putting it into a context (Franke-Wikberg 1989). Theory-based evaluation was first outlined by Lundgren in an article from 1978, where he made a distinction between a research tradition in evaluation derived from schools of social psychology that could broadly be classified as a positivistic approach and a second research tradition in evaluation based on a humanistic continental school of metascience using hermeneutic methodology. The second tradition is directed toward understanding education as part of the culture in which it functions and as part of the reproduction of society. Lundgren (1978, p. 78) argues for a concept of theory that 'has as its original meaning the making of something clear, visible, and understandable'. Within this second tradition, the aim of the theory is not to predict causes or verify results as in a positivistic tradition, but rather to decode and explain specific cultural phenomena (Lundgren 1978). In this study the use of theory is in line with this second hermeneutic approach of explanation. There are thus at least three reasons for developing a theoretical frame of reference: it directs which information is important to collect, it provides a grid for interpreting the data and

it provides the stakeholders with documentation that enables them to make their own judgements about what is evaluated and the value of the result.

Drawing on this historical account of theory-based evaluation in education we have reached the following conclusions, which in turn create a platform for the present evaluation of Lgr 11. The first assumption is that education is context dependent, in that it is formed in a specific social and historical context. The curriculum is not just a ‘technical’ steering instrument, but also a device for the cultural and social reproduction of selected knowledge and values. It is nested in ideological interests that have to be taken into account when evaluating curriculum reforms. The goals of a curriculum can neither be taken for granted as a point of departure nor be a frame of reference for the evaluation. However, a theory-based evaluation can study the formation, the genesis or the historical trajectory of a reform, as well as the external and internal context of the Lgr 11 curriculum reform.

A second point of departure for this evaluation project is that it provides a critical examination of the curriculum, its intentions, its enactment and its achieved results. The chosen evaluation approach differs from more traditional implementation studies, where the object of evaluation is taken for granted and the focus is on how well it is implemented. A central aim in theory-based evaluation is to contribute new knowledge that can help us to understand and explain the object of the evaluation. It is thus based on specific theoretical assumptions that are not assigned different policy interests or policy questions. The implicit goals and unintended consequences of the curriculum reform are also in the spotlight in the evaluation.

The third point of departure, and where the evaluation project differs from more traditional summative models, is that the three components conditions, processes and results are all within the scope of the evaluation. The process of the curriculum (national as well as local) is related to the specific conditions in question. Accordingly, the result of the curriculum is related to the different processes of implementation that characterise the different municipalities, schools or teacher categories.

In short, in this theory-based evaluation we study the influence, translation and impact that transnational educational policy movements have had on Lgr 11 and its recontextualisation from a concrete curriculum text to teachers’ enactment of the curriculum when transforming its meaning in actual school practice. The outcome

measures of the evaluation are related to two key evaluation categories: (1) qualities of curriculum construction and content and (2) qualities in managing and organising curriculum in practice. However, it should be noted that at classroom level this evaluation can only indicate possible implications.

### **3 A theoretical framework**

This theory-oriented evaluation project takes its starting point in curriculum theory (Englund 2005; Lundgren 1989; Sundberg 2012; Wahlström 2009). An important perspective in the Swedish curriculum theory is the so-called *frame factor theory*, developed by Urban Dahllöf during the 1960s and the early 1970s. This theory concerns both the governing of the school system and the evaluation of the results of the system and is based on issues of school differentiation and equivalence. In short, it provided curriculum researchers with a ‘new’ way of thinking. Instead of merely thinking of school governing as an effect of educational frames (such as curriculum content, allocation of time for different subjects etc.), the frame factor theory allowed the researcher to ask questions about what kind of frames there are, which educational processes are facilitated within these frames and which processes are omitted. Basic curriculum theoretical issues thus include the selection and organisation of knowledge and what is counted as knowledge.

The aim in curriculum theory is to acquire knowledge about how goals, content and didactics are formed within educational processes and how these are embedded into society. Here, historical, social and cultural aspects are taken into consideration. In this context the term ‘theory’ is related to ‘explanation’, where the explanation is based on an interpretation of the relations between different forms of data. The meaning of theory in this research field is porous in the sense that new data can change the theory in a certain direction and also because the theory includes assumptions that are not possible to verify through direct observations. The intention of the theory is to say something about how knowledge is constituted and organised based on certain assumptions about society, education and humans. It is important in this type of research that the different theories explaining empirical data are clearly declared in research work. This declaration serves at least two purposes: to clarify the standpoint from which the research object in question is examined and to open up these assumptions for further

inquiry and critique. In the field of curriculum theory the term ‘curriculum’ is used in a broad way to include all the assumptions or the entire ‘philosophy’ permeating a certain curriculum (Lundgren 1989).

In order to make connections between what is going on in the classroom and what is going on in society, curriculum theory basically works with three different levels. The first level is about the overall societal level, where the organisation of knowledge in a society is related to its historical period, the labour market structure, the political and social forces in society etc. At this level our aim is to offer a transnational perspective that demonstrates how international educational policy flows influence and interact with national policies (Sundberg & Wahlström 2012). The second level concerns issues related to the actual governing of a national school system. At this level the issues addressed include responsibilities, decision-making, monitoring and control systems and the actual curriculum texts. It is at this second level that it becomes possible to analyse which transnational policies converge with national educational policies, which policies have been omitted from the national school system (diverging policies) and which policies are mainly related to a national context (Nordin & Sundberg 2015; Wahlström 2014b). Research questions at this level are often related to concepts of democracy, equity, equivalence, socialisation and the like. At the third level, the focus is on how a certain curriculum controls the actual educational processes in classrooms. Issues related to this level include didactic aspects of education, perspectives of knowledge as perceived and conveyed in school, the implications for certain groups within the common frames constituted by the school’s curriculum and control system and the wider consequences for citizenship education. In this evaluation study we are only able to highlight some of the possible implications for this third level by looking at how teachers express themselves in our inquiry and drawing conclusions about the possible implications for the activities taking place in the classroom. In order to emphasise that these levels of curriculum theory should not be understood as a linear top-down relation, curriculum researchers now use the concepts of discourse and the three mutually dependent arenas in which educational policy discourses are recontextualised in different yet overlapping ways.

An influential researcher in curriculum theory was the English educational scholar Basil Bernstein. He understood educational discourse, or what he termed ‘pedagogic

discourse', to consist of the rules and constraints for the discourse that create specialised skills in different subjects (instructional discourse) and their relation to each other, and moral discourse as something that creates social order, social relations and identity (regulative discourse). In the pedagogic discourse, other discourses are both appropriated and related to each other. This means that pedagogic discourse can be understood as a general principle for the circulation and ordering of instructional and moral discourses. When a discourse is taken out of its original context and moved into a pedagogic setting a transformation takes place. This transformation is explained by the ideology that is at play in every discourse and which is transformed every time the discourse moves from one site to another or from one discourse to another, i.e. from a settled ideological discourse embedded in a certain discourse to an open potential discourse. In this way, the pedagogic discourse is a principle of recontextualisation, in that it selects, reorders, relocates and refocuses other discourses in order to constitute its own pedagogic discourse, and in this transformational phase shapes arenas for recontextualisation. Bernstein (2000) distinguishes between an official recontextualising field (ORF) and a pedagogic recontextualising field (PRF).

The ORF is mainly created and dominated by the state and the organisations and authorities with which the state cooperates. In this theory-based evaluation we contribute to Bernstein's theory by including the transnational policy arena of the ORF and exploring the changing role of the state in today's globalised society. The PRF involves educational researchers and research funds, pedagogues in school, private school companies etc. Historically the PRF has shown considerable independence, although in recent decades the state has strengthened its hold on school and pedagogy and thereby attempted to weaken the PRF (Bernstein 2000). The balance between the two fields is delicate, because a thriving development of education requires some autonomy and struggle over pedagogic discourse in the PRF. If the PRF is too weak in relation to the ORF, the potential creativity and development of the recontextualising process will vanish. In this study we have differentiated the two fields into additional arenas in order to explore the recontextualising processes within the two main fields. Here, we distinguish between the transnational and national arena in the ORF and examine the recontextualisation processes between those two arenas. We also examine

the recontextualisation processes between the ORF and PRF and between the different actors included in the PRF (Figure 1).

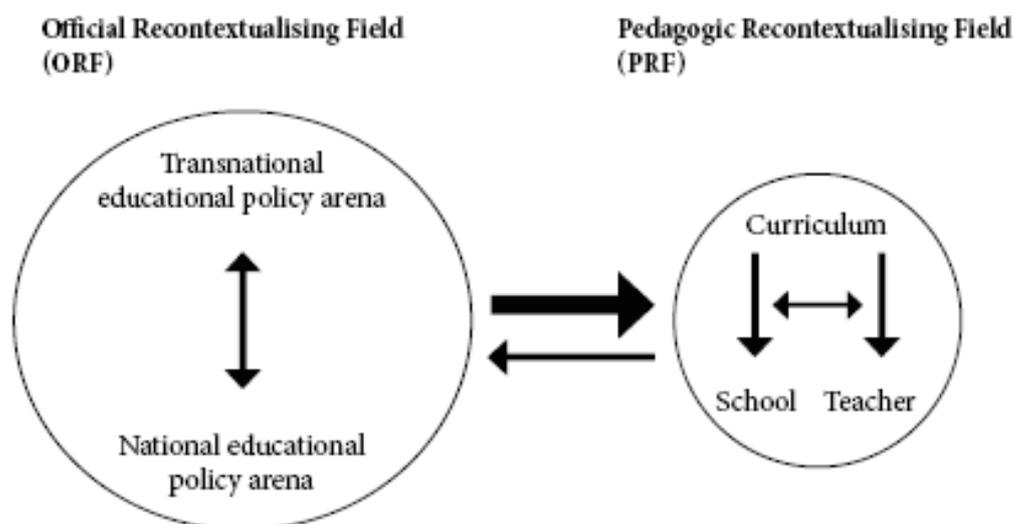


Figure 1. The two recontextualising fields in the pedagogic discourse: the official recontextualising field (ORF) and the pedagogic recontextualising field (PRF), where ORF is the dominant field. The arrows in the diagram represent the different spaces for the recontextualisation processes that are of special interest for this study.

The overall central and normative question in the pedagogic discourse, namely ‘which knowledge is most valuable?’ relates to the different rationalities of schooling, culture and society. It is possible to distinguish between four historically developed curriculum orientations: academic rationalism, social efficiency, humanism and social reconstructionism, all of which struggle for precedence in the interpretation of the task of the school (Deng & Luke 2008):

- Academic rationalism emphasises the importance of the transmission of disciplinary knowledge, both for the individual's own development and for the reproduction and development of culture.
- Social efficiency underlines the need to equip future citizens with the skills and competences necessary for economic and social productivity, both from an individual and a societal point of view.

- Humanism places the individual learner and the development of the individual's full potential at the centre. The school is a place for fostering personal development, creativity and self-actualisation.
- Social reconstructionism looks at schools and education as arenas for social reform, stresses sociocultural and critical aspects and aims to help individuals reconstruct their own analyses, standpoints and actions.

Traces of all these basic orientations can be found in the curricula, although each curriculum places specific emphasis on an aspect that is embedded in the social, historical and cultural discourses of education at a certain time in a certain society.

As education takes place in institutional settings, institutional theories are useful for understanding how institutions change. Vivien Schmidt's (2008, 2010) fourth 'new institutionalism', termed 'discursive institutionalism', has proved particularly helpful in explaining how ideas and interactive processes of discourse are the media through which actors can help to change institutions from within. Discursive institutionalism thus contributes to curriculum theory by offering a perspective of human agency and change to the different societal, programmatic and classroom arenas. The concept of discursive institutionalism has been developed within the field of political science. It takes the substantive content of ideas seriously and serves as an analytical model for how ideas are conveyed and exchanged through discourse. In the policy sphere the interactive dimension is considered in terms of a coordinative discourse, where different policy actors engage in the construction of policy ideas, and in the political sphere as a communicative discourse, where the ideas are deliberated on and legitimised. In this context, discourse indicates both the ideas represented in the discourse and the interactive processes through which ideas are conveyed. In other words, discourse is understood as representation as well as process. The representation of discourse can be articulated and processed at different levels of ideas: the philosophical, programmatic and policy level. These levels accord with the societal, programmatic and local levels outlined in curriculum theory.

When used in the context of educational ideas and policy, the coordinative discourse expresses the actor's ambitions to create and construct programmatic ideas and policies with an agreed meaning based on a common interest and understanding, for example in a political party, a national educational authority or school. The communicative

discourse is not only concerned with the ‘what’ of an idea, but also to whom, why and when the communication is made. This discourse is concerned with deliberation, argumentation and the legitimisation of ideas within and outside the educational institution, where argument is an important tool for persuading and influencing others to change or displace the meaning of a discourse. Consequently, institutions are seen as a given context maintained by ideational abilities and as contingent spaces that can be changed by actors’ thoughts, words and actions. Institutional change is considered to be unconscious, such as when people communicate and construct meaning of the institution at an everyday level, and conscious, for example when people distance themselves from the institution and critically communicate *about* the institution as an opening for deliberate action. In the study we analyse the coordinative and communicative discourses found at different institutional and ideological levels.

Briefly, in this study we: (i) build on classical curriculum theory by using the framework of different levels and the meaning of theory as explanation, (ii) add a transnational perspective to the societal/ideological arena, (iii) link educational policies in the various arenas and levels by using the concept of recontextualisation, (iv) understand the question of what counts as knowledge as a struggle between basic curriculum orientations, and (v) introduce discursive institutionalism to curriculum theory as a way of including agency and change in educational institutions.

#### **4 A mixed methods study**

The study is a mixed-methods study in which the research question is focused on the methods employed. The mixed methods approach is not simply a matter of combination, but is a way of preserving the complexity and deepening the perspective of the research questions being addressed. A characteristic of mixed methods is consequently a methodological eclecticism (Tashakkori & Teddlie 2010). In this evaluation project we have chosen to combine three different methods in order to obtain ‘different but complementary data on the same phenomenon’ (Cresswell & Clark 2007, p. 62). The main arguments and motives for the methodological design of the project are as follows:

- Complementarity: the different methods address different aspects of the knowledge object

- Completeness: the design allows for a complete and meaningful picture of the curriculum reform process
- Developmental: questions and hypotheses follow from one strand to another
- Expansion: the mixed method design is used to expand and explain the understanding arrived at in a previous strand of a study
- Compensation: the methodological design compensates for the weaknesses inherent in one approach or method
- Diversity: the design facilitates a complex picture with divergent patterns of results that can be compared and contrasted (modified from Bryman 2009, p. 103).

The mixed methods design in this project has primarily been used to enhance the strength of the explanatory inferences of the study and methods used. In the mixed methods literature it is described as an explanatory sequential design. The design is not used as a method for triangulation in order to check the validity in any strict meaning of the individual methods used, although that could have been a beneficial side effect.

#### **4.1 Explanatory Sequential Design**

The methodological design of the evaluation follows what Teddlie & Tashakkori (2009) call an explanatory sequential design, the idea being to achieve explanatory inferences when analysing findings generated by different methods. Here, the methods that are used as complementary and together can enhance, clarify and expand the range of inquiry.

In this evaluation project we have used the explanatory design in a three-step procedure, consisting of:

- 1 Curriculum policy analysis - qualitative text analysis
- 2 Quantitative analysis of teacher survey
- 3 Qualitative teacher interviews

These three steps have been combined in a sequential way, as presented above. In the first step, a qualitative text analysis of key curriculum policy documents is conducted. The results of the analysis are interpreted qualitatively in order to identify and investigate theoretically underpinned plausible hypotheses in the quantitative questionnaire. The analysis of this second study is descriptive and involves hypothesis testing. The

final study, the teachers' interview study, follows up the findings from the quantitative survey in order to deepen and broaden the output picture and to substantiate the explanatory inferences of the previous studies. The final fourth step includes a synthesis of the three methods employed.

## **4.2 The analytical procedure of the evaluation**

In the following section we describe the methodological design in more detail and relate the analysis steps to the evaluation project's research questions.

### **4.2.1 Curriculum policy text analysis**

The first part, or sub-study, consists of text analyses of Lgr 11 in relation to transnational educational policy documents, with a view to investigating *the intended curriculum* (see appendix 1). The purpose of the first sub-study is to investigate possible theoretical hypotheses due to research question 1a of the project, namely which factors and aspects of Lgr 11 are in accordance with the transnational coordination of curriculum reforms and which factors can be understood to be in line with national curriculum traditions and national policy?

In the study on educational policy at a transnational and national level, the methodological approach is qualitative text analysis centred on intertextuality. Here, our understanding of discourses is based on critical discourse analysis (CDA) as outlined by Fairclough (2010). By 'transnational' we mean discursive policy aims and agreements negotiated in intergovernmental organisations such as the OECD and EU. We frame the methodological and theoretical meaning of CDA within the more specific framework of Discursive Institutionalism (DI). Our position is that CDA contributes to DI (Schmidt 2010) with a clear perspective of language as part of power relations, while DI contributes to CDA with a clear perspective of human agency as an important part of understanding of how discourses are formed and maintained.

A basic assumption in our analysis is that the construction of the curriculum involves discourses that traverse a range of texts and sites: from the legislative and policy documents formulated by officials, through curriculum texts prepared by experts, teacher representatives and researchers, to lessons in the classroom and informal conversations between teachers and students. The dominant curriculum discourses tend to represent the social formations and power relations of their historical, cultural and political contexts.

Lgr 11 is analysed in two steps. First, the curriculum text is examined in order to identify the changing knowledge focus within the framework of the 1991 educational reform, i.e. between the earlier curriculum for compulsory education, Lpo 94, and the new reform represented by Lgr 11. The procedure for elaborating the empirical categories follows the analytical steps of content analysis: (i), by means of a close and systematic reading identifying the main knowledge categories used in the texts, (ii) comparing the discursive constructions of those categories inherent in the text (i.e. semiotic legitimisation), and (iii) analysing the shifts in the discursive justification of the knowledge categories in Lpo 94 and Lgr 11. Secondly, the curriculum construction of Lgr 11 as a whole is analysed and compared with transnational curriculum policy trends. Section 5 ('The Intended Curriculum') in the report is a summary of research findings reported in the following six papers and articles:

- Nordin, Andreas & Sundberg, Daniel (2015, submitted). Travelling concepts in national curriculum policy-making: the example of competencies. *European Educational Research Journal*
- Sundberg, Daniel & Wahlström, Ninni (2012). Standards-based curricula in a denationalised conception of education: The case of Sweden. *European Educational Research Journal*, 11(3), 342–356.
- Wahlström, Ninni (2014a). A third-wave of European education policy: Transnational and national conceptions of knowledge in Swedish curricula. Paper presented in the invited session *Curriculum Reform in the Nordic Policy Agenda: For Whom and By What?* at the 2014 AERA annual meeting, April 3 – April 7, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
- Wahlström, Ninni (2014b): The changing role of the state in a denationalized educational policy context. In Andreas Nordin & Daniel Sundberg (Eds.): *Transnational policy flows in European education: The making and governing of knowledge in the education policy field*, pp.159-182. Oxford Studies in Comparative Education, vol 42, no 1. Oxford: Symposium Books.
- Wahlström, Ninni (2014c). Equity – policy rhetoric or a matter of meaning of knowledge? Towards a framework for tracing the 'efficiency-equity' doctrine in curriculum documents. *European Educational Research Journal*, 13(6), 731–743.

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These text analyses resulted in four theoretically underpinned preliminary conclusions or hypotheses. These hypotheses then constituted the basis for the construction of a teacher survey designed to empirically test, validate and substantiate the generated hypotheses relating to research question 1a, concerning the factors and aspects of Lgr 11 that accord with a transnational coordination of curriculum reforms and which factors can be understood to be in line with national curriculum traditions and national policy.

#### **4.2.2 Quantitative analysis of teacher survey**

The second part (sub-study) is a follow-up investigation of the results from study 1. The purpose is to empirically investigate the hypotheses emerging from the curriculum policy analysis. The study consists of the collection and analysis of quantitative data relating to research question 2 - *the enacted curriculum*. The purpose of the teacher survey is also to identify statistically significant differences, outlying and anomalous results.

In the quantitative investigation, the methodological approach takes the form of a questionnaire addressed to teachers of years 6 and 9 during the autumn of 2013 and consists of questions about the teachers' enactment of Lgr 11. Drawing on Alexander (2001), the questionnaire is constructed in a framework of comparative studies based on the categories of space, student organisation, time, curriculum, routines and rules. In these categories it is possible to formulate questions relating to the different teaching activities, such as learning tasks, learning activities, teacher and student interactions and judgement, to space, such as classroom organisation, to time, such as lesson organisation, and to the kind of knowledge that is regarded as important. This framework has been applied in comparative studies to facilitate comparisons with other studies, as well as to develop and deepen certain parts of the quantitative investigation in teacher interviews.

The present study focuses on the teachers' understanding and performance of the (enacted) curriculum reform viewed from their own perspectives through their responses to the questionnaire.

#### **4.2.3 Qualitative teacher interviews**

The third part (sub-study) follows from the results from the analysis of the quantitative teacher investigation. The general purpose of the teacher interviews is to explore and explain why these results occurred (*The enacted curriculum*) by conducting an in-depth qualitative study. Specific quantitative findings needing additional explanation, such as statistical differences among teacher categories, type of municipality, subject categories, occupational experience and teaching in Years 6 or 9 are explored in depth. The specific quantitative results that are identified as needing additional explanation guide the development of the qualitative strand. More specifically, the teacher survey refines the questions for the teacher interviews so that the interviews add insights and explanations to the quantitative results.

In a final step (section 8, '*The achieved curriculum*' in the report) the results from sub-studies 1–3 are summarised, analysed and synthesised in relation to the theoretical framework for the evaluation and the overall research questions addressed.

#### **4.2.4 Data sources and materials**

The survey is in the form of a web-based questionnaire sent to 2 963 teachers of Years 6 and 9 in compulsory schools (municipal) in twenty-one Swedish municipalities. The survey was conducted during October and November 2013. The response rate was 64 % (or 1 887 respondents) with a variation ranging from 43 % to 86 %. The low response rate in some minor municipalities seems to be related to a high proportion of part-time employment teacher supply. The questionnaire consists of thirty-two questions with fixed alternative answers and includes possibilities to make personal comments (a total of 15 pages, see appendix 2).

The sample for the survey is defined as a single-stage cluster sampling. As we wanted to reach Swedish teachers in compulsory school we decided that a cluster of teachers in school years 6 and 9 would be a natural cluster for our inquiry, because the reform means that Year 6 is the first year for setting grades (instead of Year 8) and Year 9 is the year for final grades. From a cluster of the teachers responsible for Years 6 and 9 in the autumn term of 2013 we then selected 21 municipalities (out of 290 in Sweden) based on geographical aspects due to research-economic reasons. In the selection of municipalities we aimed towards heterogeneity and variation. The chosen municipalities represent six out of ten different types of municipalities according to a categorisation

made by the Swedish Association of Local Authorities and Regions (SALA<sup>1</sup>). For the analysis of the quantitative data we use descriptive statistics by using SPSS. This is combined with univariate and bivariate analyses. Additionally, some significance and correlations analyses are conducted, but due to the main purpose of exploration, description and correlation and not finding causal relations, these are primarily informative and not conclusive. A selection of dependent variables is identified in order to investigate the variation of response patterns in relation to the dependent variables. The significance of the relationships is calculated by Pearson correlation coefficients and only significant differences ( $p < 0,050$ ) are used for conclusions drawn. The internal fall-out is generally low and only in some exceptions exceeds 5 per cent, such as in the second or third part of the questionnaire (see appendix 2). The procedure of the missing value analysis did not detect any patterns of missing data.

No major general differences between regions are identified in the external *response* patterns (the south, the middle region of Sweden and the two major cities). The same goes for the classification by occupational experience. There are no significant differences between employment periods (as 0–5 years *or* > 30 years) either when groups of respondents are related to answering or not answering the different questions in the questionnaire. Some minor differences in the internal fall-out are detected if the proportion of respondents with teacher certification is contrasted with the proportion of respondents without teacher certification. The latter cohort shows a marginally larger internal fall-out. However, this group of respondents is relatively small compared to the total group (less than 10 per cent). The variation relating to the internal fall-out is more related to the specific question, rather than to groups of respondents.

In the subsequent teacher interview study significant results, outliers and group differences identified in the survey are followed up. Consequently, the survey is followed up by 18 interviews with teachers from three different types of municipalities: small (less than 20 000 inhabitants), middle-sized (20 000–200 000) and metropolitan municipalities (more than 200 000 inhabitants). The variation among the participants

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<sup>1</sup> The selection of municipalities is based on the criteria of variation in types of municipalities according to SALA and covers metropolitan municipalities, large cities

suburban municipalities to large cities, commuter municipalities, tourism and travel industry municipalities and manufacturing municipalities, see index: "<http://skl.se/tjanster/kommunerlandsting/faktakommunerochlandsting/-kommungruppsindelning.2051.html>"

In a second step the types of municipalities were reduced to three categories: small, middle-sized and metropolitan municipalities, because these categories proved to be most significant in terms of variations in response patterns.

also applies to teachers of Year 6 and 9, the length of occupational experience and the subject background of the interviewed teachers. Each interview lasted for about one hour. The participants for the interview study were purposefully selected in order to explain the quantitative results. A potential bias in the selection of informants is relevant to consider. As participation in the evaluation project was formally decided by the local authority's Director of Education (sv skolchef), the schools and principals were obliged to provide data for the investigations (teacher questionnaire as well as interviews). Due to the possibility of comparisons being made between the schools in a municipality, the selection of teachers for follow-up interviews could have unintentionally been governed by concerns about the good image of the school being presented. In view of this, there could be a bias in the selection of pro-reform teachers.

The interviews concentrate on the three areas of (i) the curriculum as a frame and as a professional tool (appendix 2, survey questions 11, 12, 13), (ii) assessment based on the curriculum (survey questions 16–20, se appendix 2), (iii) the organisation and content of the teaching after Lgr 11 (survey questions 23, 24, 25, 30, 31, 32, 33). The different conceptions of the interviewed teachers were categorised in different nodes by the use of the qualitative software program NVivo. New nodes were continuously added to the analysis until all the teachers have been included. The interviews were conducted by two independent researchers and transcribed and analysed by a third independent researcher.

#### **4.2.5 Methodological considerations**

The question of validity is central in the mixed methods approach and has recently been qualified in a number of ways. For example, Teddlie & Tashakkori (2009) have developed an integrated framework for inference quality in the field of mixed methods research. The term inference denotes the last and most important stage of the research project which answers the research questions by making interpretations. Thus, it concerns the process of interpreting and the outcome of the interpretation. Inferences are conclusions that are made on the basis of the collected qualitative and quantitative data. The quality of the study depends on its data quality (data validity, reliability, stability, credibility) and on its inference quality in terms of internal validity, credibility of the conclusions, transferability etc.

Teddlie & Tashakkori (2009) distinguish between design quality and interpretative rigour when discussing the components of mixed methods qualities. If we relate the criteria in these two general categories to the present evaluation we can conclude that the design suitability for investigating the curriculum reform is adequate. The research questions could appropriately be translated into elements of the design (sampling, data collection etc.). The design adequacy could also be considered as high. In order to understand the curriculum reform process and its effects formulated in the research questions, different methods and components are essential. However, due to time restrictions and the complexity of the research questions the implementation of the different components was accompanied by methodological concerns. Additional analysis (and especially time for analysis) would have strengthened the inference qualities further.

The aforementioned methodological concerns also include the question of interpretive rigor. We consider the interpretative consistency to be viable. However, there are methodological questions to be addressed when it comes to the magnitude of the research questions and the limited empirical data collected in the project. The conclusions from this evaluation should thus be regarded as tentative. As very few theoretical and empirical studies of Lgr 11 have been conducted, the explanation credibility of this evaluation report cannot be ensured. Other interpretations, explanations and effects could be plausible. In order to ensure rigor, the consistency between different studies is crucial. The conclusions of this evaluation report therefore need to be tested in further studies. However, with regard to the displaying of a complex picture with divergent patterns of results that can be compared and contrasted, the evaluation has met its objectives.

## **5 The intended curriculum**

In this section the results of the curriculum text analyses are presented. Here, displacements in the development of the curriculum Lgr 11 are investigated using the outlined theoretical framework. First, the transnational influences are scrutinised. The curriculum reform is then placed within the trajectory of the previous curriculum reform of Lpo 94 and the changing state control over curriculum-making. The section ends with the divergences and convergences in the Swedish case compared to transnational policy

trends, which are finally formulated as four concluding hypotheses to be empirically tested.

### **5.1 The Swedish curriculum arena – an introduction**

The Swedish curriculum arena has to a large extent been regarded as a national one. However, since the beginning of the 1990s, international organisations such as the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the European Union (EU) have increased their efforts in the international educational policy arena. Both the OECD and EU have been active in establishing lifelong learning as a guiding concept for school and education. In Sweden, we can talk about a displacement from ‘lifelong education’, exemplified by a Swedish tradition of adult education during the 1900s, to ‘lifelong learning’, comprising all purposeful learning ‘from the cradle to the grave’ (OECD 2004). The implication of this displacement is that the preschool and school are now also included in the idea of a ‘learning society’ and, furthermore, is understood as the necessary starting point for the lifelong process of developing one’s own competences. It is competences, rather than knowledge, that are placed at the centre of the lifelong learning discourse. The OECD launched the project ‘Definition and Selection of Competencies’ (DeSeCo)<sup>2</sup> and the EU formulated ‘eight key competences’<sup>3</sup> within a European framework for lifelong learning, both with the aim of including school curriculum in the member states’ lifelong learning strategies. With programmes like ‘Education and Training 2010’ and ‘Schools for the 21st Century’, it is stressed that the concept of lifelong learning constitutes the basic principle of the framework of European cooperation in education for the period up to 2020. Through the ‘open method of cooperation’ approach, the EU pursues the prioritisation of these eight specific competences in the member states’ curricula. The EU works closely with national policymakers to aid and monitor the development of national educational policies by producing evaluations and analyses and by offering arenas for the benchmarking of ‘good policy practice’ (European Commission 2012). Considering these and other transnational collaborations and influences, we think that international

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<sup>2</sup> The three broad categories in the conceptual framework of DeSeCo are: to ‘use tools interactively (e.g. language, technology), to ‘interact in heterogeneous groups’ and to ‘act autonomously’ (OECD 2001).

<sup>3</sup> The key competences within the EU framework for lifelong learning include: communication in the mother tongue, communication in foreign languages, mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology, digital competence, learning to learn, social and civic competences, sense of initiative and entrepreneurship and cultural awareness and expression (European Communities (2007).

organisations, and especially the activities of intergovernmental organisations, should be taken into account in order to analyse the societal arena for education in an adequate way (Sundberg & Wahlström 2012).

The transnational concept of competency has strongly influenced the Swedish view of teaching and learning. However, it is also important to note that transnational policy concepts like ‘competency’, ‘accountability’ and ‘lifelong learning’ are always incorporated into each country’s historical, social and cultural traditions in ways that are specific to each country. The Swedish curriculum can thus be viewed as one version of a European curriculum discourse, with its own specific national connotations. In Sweden, a technical-instrumental form of curriculum and a neo-conservative view of curriculum content (cf. Young 2008) have been brought together in a combination made possible by reference to decontextualised output measures, such as standards or pre-defined key competences. In a neo-conservative tradition, schools are responsible for transmitting predefined curriculum content to new generations. In this tradition there is a clear view within the different school subjects concerning which ‘canonical’ texts and knowledge content should be taught. The neo-conservative view is often embedded within the educational institutions themselves. This long-standing view of the task of the school has been challenged from a policy perspective, mainly based on policy texts from different policy actors and governments. In recent decades a more technical-instrumental form of curriculum has been preferred from a policy perspective. This instrumental view of curriculum content is not educational in a traditional sense. Rather, curriculum content should be guided by what is perceived as the needs of the economy. Education and knowledge thus become means to an end, rather than ends in themselves. There is also a tension between the two models (Young 2008). In Sweden, the use of concepts proposed by the EU and OECD were interpreted nationally, which led to school subjects becoming the organising idea in Lgr 11, albeit still using the transnational concept of ‘competences’. This means that the Swedish interpretation of the competence and skills discourse is not altogether representative of a more general development within the EU, where a cross-curricular approach to basic skills and subjects prevails (Nordin & Sundberg 2015).

## **5.2 The displacement from Lpo 94 to Lgr 11**

A new objective and result oriented management system for Swedish schools was implemented in 1991 as a consequence of a longstanding national discussion of how the state could better control its national authorities through budget processes emphasising results instead of resources. The New Public Management (NPM) model that emerged in Great Britain was also launched by OECD as a way of making the public sector more efficient (Wahlström 2009). The 1991 Education Reform refers to the reforms that are kept together by being linked to a new control system for school, management by objectives and results that were implemented as a governing system for the school. The reform can be divided into two steps. In a first step the argument was the reform and ‘simplification’ of the established government grants system. This first step involved the expert investigation of Du Rietz, Lundgren & Wennås (1987), the official report on school governing (Official Report 1988: 20) and the Government Bill on school governing (Bill 1988/89: 4). In the second step the state grants system ceased to govern the organisation of the school. Following this, government grants were paid as a total sum to the municipalities. Now, schools’ activities were governed by the objectives of the curriculum and by state responsibility for teacher education. This second step involved the Government Bill on municipal responsibility for teaching staff (Bill 1989/90: 41), the Government Bill on the responsibility for compulsory schooling (Bill 1990/91: 18), the Government Bill on freedom of choice and independent schools (Bill 1991/92: 95) and the Official Report on the new curriculum for the compulsory school (Official Report 1992: 94). When the state no longer regulated the school system by rules for state grants, the concept of equal education changed from an understanding of equivalence as equal resources to the right to goal achievement.

Following the official report on the new curriculum for the compulsory school, management by objectives and results became the model that more explicitly shaped the curriculum of 1994 for compulsory education (Lpo 94). According to the report, this governing model has three distinct requirements for curriculum design. First, the curriculum needs to provide a clear set of values from which the school’s norms and actions can be formed. Second, objectives must be designed to indicate what the school should strive towards in a way that facilitates the design of school based work plans. Third, the curriculum has to specify the objectives as indicators for evaluation, assessment and grading (Official Report 1992: 94). The concept of knowledge was

given a central position in the official report (Official Report 1992:94) and the Government Bill (Bill 1992/93:220) that preceded Lpo 94, with the aim of widening the concept of knowledge to include a multi-dimensional understanding of different aspects of the concept. In these preparatory works, as in Lpo 94, knowledge was discussed in terms of ‘facts’, ‘conversance’, ‘understanding’ and ‘skills’. The definitions of the objectives were differentiated between ‘objectives to achieve’ and ‘aspirational objectives’. The first type of objectives stipulated what students should achieve, whereas aspirational objectives mapped out the direction for a never-ending learning process. Every subject and its specific syllabus aimed to reflect the overarching objectives definitions of the curriculum. Through a decentralised objectives and result-guided model, teachers and students were ascribed significant responsibility for the organisation of the pedagogical practice. This management by objectives allowed for the selection of different content. As the objectives were only set at Year 5 and Year 9, teachers and students at the local level were relatively free to decide how the teaching content should be organised. This led to Lpo 94 being instrumentally organised, at the same time as every individual subject was given a degree of intrinsic value (Nordin & Sundberg 2015). In this sense, Lpo 94 can be viewed as a hybrid between a standards-based curriculum and a competence-based pedagogic model, in that it focuses on results in terms of certain goals to achieve and a competence-based view of knowledge, thereby leaving room for teachers and students to decide on curriculum content and teaching practices.

In the last decades of the 20th century, when Lpo 94 was developed, the complex knowledge concept of competences became more important internationally, especially in policy circles. Bernstein (2000) distinguishes between two educational models: a competency model and a performance model. The formation of the concept of competences has primarily evolved outside school. When the concept of competence was recontextualised to a specific pedagogic practice, it was based on an assumption of ‘in-built’ aspects of democracy, creativity and self-regulation. The focus was on the individual and on educational micro processes in terms of ‘learning’. This approach to competences led to a pedagogical model based on competences as being intrinsically creative and acquired through informal interactions in potentially productive social practices (Bernstein 2000). With regard to aspects of space, time, evaluation, control

and autonomy, Lpo 94 has a weak classification of space and time. In a competence model control refers to teachers as facilitators and students as self-regulating, which means that the teacher's autonomy is high and the assessment of students' results is implicit and process-oriented. Overall, Lpo 94 can be characterised in accordance with a pedagogical competence model. The knowledge concept of competence is also relevant for the other basic pedagogical model, the performance model.

Compared to the competence model, in the performance model macro processes are made more transparent and visible. In this model, predetermined and specific texts, skills and outcomes are in focus (Bernstein 2000). The reform towards a new curriculum gained momentum after the change of government in 2006 and sharp criticism towards schools in general for not sufficiently emphasising knowledge. The new right-wing government's education policy argued that Lpo 94 and the social-democratic educational model had severely impaired students' subject knowledge, which was in turn illustrated in decreasing results in international knowledge evaluations like PISA and TIMSS. This criticism is perhaps somewhat surprising given that a right-wing government introduced Lpo 94 during its term of office from 1991-1994. Criticism was also directed towards the parallel objectives system, which was regarded as too ambiguous and unclear for teachers, students and parents.

Therefore, in the Official Report (2007:28) that preceded curriculum Lgr 11, the objective descriptions were removed and instead specific 'knowledge requirements' were implemented for all subjects. The requirements were also differentiated according to three year intervals, Years 3, 6 and 9. By formulating the knowledge requirements at three levels, which in turn defined the requirements for the different levels in a six-point scale, it became possible to claim that the lack of clarity had been rectified by organising competencies and skills according to subjects and their particular subject knowledge. A transnational key concept, competency, came to be recontextualised together with a neo-conservative perspective on curriculum and school knowledge.

In 2011, when a new curriculum was designed for the compulsory school, preschool class and the recreation centre, subjects and subject knowledge were prioritised. Also, the syllabuses have a specific structure, in which knowledge requirement has a key role. Thus, the curriculum form represents a curriculum model in which the outcomes to a certain extent dominate in relation to content. With the new Education Act of 2010, the

previous requirement for teachers to develop a local work plan to show how the national goals would be implemented was removed. In Lgr 11 the goals were clearly formulated, which made local interpretation unnecessary. This displacement from goals and local content planning to results makes external regulations in teaching more prominent.

Instead of objectives to achieve, as in Lpo 94, Lgr11 is based on knowledge requirements. Assessments should in this sense focus on what students can actually do (meaning which knowledge and skills they can demonstrate and use in each subject). Through knowledge requirements and by using such requirements more frequently (set at Years 1–3, 4–6 and 7–9, rather than at Year 5 and 9 only), students are now more regulated in terms of what they are supposed to ‘know’. The semantic condensation between knowledge and requirements also means that the results in each subject are brought into the fore, while the central content and purpose in each syllabus is given a more subordinate role. Concurrently, the curriculum is clearer in terms of what constitutes central content and which knowledge approaches are seen as adequate. The syllabuses in Lgr11 attempt to improve clarity and provide efficiency and equivalence in the curriculum by including knowledge requirements that specify which competences and knowledge students should achieve and in a way that can be followed up by early assessment and grading. In this curriculum model there is no clear connection between the overall objectives of school in the first part of the curriculum and the individual subject syllabuses in the second part. Instead, it is claimed that these two parts of the curriculum - the overarching purpose and goals on the one hand and the syllabuses on the other - should be kept separate so that what is said in the first part of the curriculum is not repeated in the second part (Official Report 2007:28).

In Lgr 11, the pedagogic space is explicitly regulated in terms of prescribed forms of teaching. ‘The school should provide pupils with structured teaching under the teacher’s supervision, both as a whole class and on an individual basis’ (Lgr 11, p. 15). The knowledge requirements and grading criteria explicitly express what students are expected to achieve. The assessment discourse makes deviations visible and clear, and the performance of students, teachers and schools is more clearly controlled by curriculum regulations and assessment procedures than in the previous curriculum. Based on the analysis of Bernstein’s (2000) competence and performance models, Lgr11 reflects the latter model and its principles (cf. Wahlström 2014a).

The displacement from a pedagogical model of competence to a performance model leads to a weakening of the autonomy of teachers and students in favour of external regulations combined with external evaluation systems, such as school inspections, a more detailed Education Act (2010:800) and more national tests. To a certain extent, the choice of content and how the teaching is organised is regulated by the knowledge requirements of the curriculum and by national tests. It could be said that the assessment of students no longer proceeds from what they know, but rather from what they do not know in relation to what they should know.

In the context of Swedish education policy, demands for increased competency have mainly become a matter of improving subject knowledge. Although the concept of competency is commonly viewed as comprehensive and transcending traditional subjects at the transnational level, Lgr 11 tends to view competences as skills, and thus as qualities related to specific subjects. The understanding of competency has also become increasingly instrumental. The gradual shift from Lpo 94 to Lgr 11 can be understood as a shift from a fairly open and competence-oriented curriculum, where students' skills and teaching contexts were highlighted, towards a performance-oriented curriculum in which functional and instrumental values dominate (Wahlström 2014c).

### **5.3 Transnational policies – Europe as an important arena for education policy**

As educational policy has become more important in the international policy arena, studying Europeanisation has been a necessary but complex task for understanding national policy and its implications. Lawn & Grek (2012) use the term Europeanisation to bring together the different elements. For example, the term Europeanisation includes the transnational flows and networks of people and ideas that create discourses across European borders. Further, Europeanisation expresses the direct effects of EU policy, while the effects of Europeanisation can be observed in international institutions. As Dale (2009) notes, a European space can be seen as an opportunity structure created by formal and informal infrastructures for European collaborations within the European Union. In contrast, European policy is the agreed educational policy formulated in cooperation measures as 'the open method of coordination' (OMC) and in all the existing networks and conferences that take place within the frame of Europeanisation. However, it is important to remember that to a large extent it is the experts and

politicians from the member states who populate these common arenas. In other words, the member states constitute part of ‘a European educational idea’ and a partly independent interpretation of the meaning of the own nation’s educational needs. Thus, an education policy that might seem ‘hegemonic’ in a European arena takes shape in different ways in each national setting and school system. The point is not that the process of Europeanisation makes all education policy the same, but that it pervades each national educational policy in different ways.

Europeanisation has gradually been strengthened since the mid-1990s by more explicit agreements, such as the common objectives for 2010 set in Lisbon in 2000 with the signing of the ‘Lisbon Strategy’. Overall, during the 21st century a stronger focus on lifelong learning has been incorporated into Europeanisation, in combination with increased comparisons of educational data. Over the years, the field of education as a policy arena has moved from a delimited vocational training area to a distinct ‘Europe-centred’ project, the aim of which is to ‘thicken’ the discourses and institutions of Europe (Dale 2009; Lawn & Grek 2012). Three ‘waves’ can be discerned in a European education policy. The first wave can be located from the 1970s to the mid-1990s, when attempts were made to place a more coherent education policy on the European agenda, although as education was still largely viewed as a national concern and subordinate to the principle of ‘subsidiarity’, this proved difficult. The second wave in the European policy of education can be located to the year 2000, when the Lisbon Strategy is signed and when the purpose of the common education policy in Europe changes to instead become the key element in the development of the Knowledge Economy goals of Europe. The implication of the Lisbon Strategy is that European cooperation in the educational field becomes more fluid and flexible, the focus of education turns to learning, and a common interest in the evaluation of the school’s performance emerges as an important joint project to develop the school systems of the member states (Lawn & Grek 2012). From 2007 onwards a third wave of EU policy can be identified. The discourse of the third wave is characterised by a transnational interest in and monitoring of national compulsory school systems and national curricula. The main concepts in the current European education policy are ‘standards’, ‘basic skills’ and ‘transversal competences’ (Wahlström 2014a).

Voluntary comparisons of national results have made the governance of Europe more prominent. Lawn and Grek (2012, p. 99) argue that ‘governing by numbers’ should be understood as one of the central components ‘of building the new Europe of the knowledge economy’. A clear example of a more intensive acceptance of transnational governance, that is not only European but also global, is the role of the OECD and its Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). The OECD plays an indirect role in the European education space, although it is through the PISA surveys that the organisation has had an important impact on European education reforms and generated instruments for strengthening the governing of school systems by evaluations of results.

Transnational comparisons have also turned out to be both interesting and necessary for national politicians and the national governing of schools. In Sweden, transnational evaluation systems, such as PISA, have been ascribed the function of indicating the ‘current state of Sweden in the knowledge society’. In policy terms, the evaluation results have been used in a communicative discourse on the national reduction of knowledge performance, internally (in relation to previous years) as well as externally (in relation to other nations). A basic assumption behind the relevance of the international evaluations is a close connection between school performance and the labour market, in that low levels of school performance generate higher levels of unemployment. Relations between transnational and national policy levels can to a certain extent be interpreted as a displacement toward a denationalisation of Swedish curriculum context, in terms of an increase in transnational partnerships. The effects of globalisation thus take shape in national institutions, with states as active players in setting up new frameworks in order to further globalisation. The implication for state authority is not the end of the sovereignty of the state, but rather a transformation of its role in relation to private and transnational actors.

#### **5.4 The changing role of the state**

Education can be understood to have been denationalised in two different ways over the last two decades. Since 1991 the role of the state has changed in that it has lost some of its former influence over education and schooling to the transnational arena, which in some sense pursues a form of internationally coordinated educational policy, and to the private arena, which to some extent now has responsibility for school activities (Sundberg & Wahlström 2012). As noted above, the denationalised character of

education does not mean that the state has lost influence over education as a system, but rather that its role has changed. Whereas earlier curricula have essentially been based on national needs and agreements between national actors, in terms of ‘provisional consensus’ (Englund 2005), the educational policy reforms of the early 2000s have invited international and individual investigators to take a more prominent role in the shaping of curriculum. However, it is not primarily the number of actors that is of importance, but rather that a wider perspective, beyond the primarily national aspects, has led to a denationalisation of education policy and subsequently the curriculum. Currently, education policy is substantially influenced by national state interest in partnerships with international actors and other transnational factors (e.g. the establishment of a Swedish School Commission in 2015 based on the OECD’s analysis of the Swedish school system from 2014). Different types of cross-boundary networks, such as the OECD and EU, are now partly setting the agenda for Swedish education policy and its policy documents.

In contrast to earlier educational reforms, in for example the 1970s, where the political and investigative processes were influenced by more open directives, prominent consideration of various social groups and wider parliamentary representation, Lgr 11 has instead been developed by means of a one-person enquiry focused on detailed directives. Lgr 11 thus departs from a previous central idea in terms of curriculum design, which was to work towards a coordinative discourse based on consensus and common frames of reference. Instead, there is a ‘discursive turn’ towards a communicative discourse partly based on common agreements at a transnational level and partly on the political considerations of individual parties.

Thus, the changing role of the state can be described as contributing to a more coordinated discourse in a transnational arena and a more communicative discourse in a national arena (Wahlström 2014b). The comparative research on ‘travelling reforms’ is complicated. It is not about any one-sided influence from an upper level to a lower. Instead, as shown in Figure 1, the national and transnational levels mutually influence each other, in that the transnational level is populated by politicians, experts and scientists from member countries. Making comparisons in terms of a single-country study in relation to transnational policy, as in this report, is a form of contextual comparison. As reforms do not have any specific home base or nationality, but instead

take on different forms in different contexts, every case makes it possible to examine and understand the transnational character of educational policies (Steiner-Khamsi 2010). What is 'new' in 2010 is the increasing interest of the intergovernmental organisations OECD and EU to act as influential policy actors on member states national education policies. The justification for this is the rapid pace of change, global competition and the need for social cohesion. In that sense it seems important to analyse which policy concepts and arguments are domestic, coincidental and parallel, borrowed in silence, loaned or processed together with international actors to reach transnational consensus or capture the shifts in underlying assumptions in the different education policy discourses. References to international standards, such as the results of the PISA surveys, can be used to overcome severe political conflicts in the national arena by legitimising action based on 'neutral' policy opinions from elsewhere and to argue for standpoints that are in line with a political party's own convictions.

### **5.5 Curriculum as structure and equity discourse**

As already indicated, the structure of Lgr 11 is shaped by principles for a so-called standards-based curriculum. The characteristic feature of this type of curriculum is that the results and outcomes constitute the underlying principle for the curriculum's structure, with a close alignment between purpose, content, results and assessment. Didactic issues of teaching and learning are thus regulated by a consistent focus on the direct, visible consequence for education and pedagogical practice (Sundberg & Wahlström 2012).

The background to standards-based curricula is multifaceted. In terms of particular premises, models should primarily regulate the education system in order to control the education output. Here, regulation of input is of secondary importance. This principle is often related to decentralisation, where local influence is favoured, while the local arena is concurrently controlled by requirements such as the achievement of objectives and expected results. In a transnational arena, standards-based curricula are regarded as adequate solutions to the flexibility and adaptability of a knowledge-driven economy. From a broader perspective, this relates to acknowledging a global market economy where information competency and knowledge are viewed as decisive capital.

At the beginning of the 1990s, the Swedish education system underwent a crucial phase of decentralisation and, in connection with this change, the curriculum for

compulsory school was transformed to a model based on objectives and results. As a concept, this model has been passed on through Lgr 11, although here it is possible to distinguish a considerably stronger standards-based approach. The implementation of Lgr 11 (and the education system that surrounds the curriculum as a policy document) has meant that compared to earlier curricula different types of control systems have been intensified and developed. A more prominent focus on school results in a national system and at curriculum level has meant that ways of measuring knowledge have become more central in the design of pedagogical practice. In a discursive sense, what can be measured can also be organised for learning. A result of this is that the curriculum clearly states which knowledge and skills the students should have mastered at a particular point in time. Subsequently, the criteria for assessment become a central feature. Overall, a standards-based curriculum means there are clear expectations on students and their knowledge acquirement, that an assessment system that oversees their knowledge acquirement can be offered, and that this assessment is centrally regulated. It also means that the responsibility for education and student learning is decentralised to a local level, and that teachers and schools can be held responsible for deficits in student performance.

As a model for a standards-based curriculum, the performance model related to Lgr 11 means that knowledge, educational content and learning outcomes are of central importance. The boundaries between legitimate and non-legitimate knowledge in a school context are prominent, as is how teaching is expected to be framed. The importance of clear rules for assessing students' knowledge acquirement is also included in a discourse of equivalence and equity. Equity is understood as the right to reach the pre-determined knowledge goals and to be assessed in an equivalent way in relation to all other students. An all-encompassing principle is that educational practice is regulated by specific systems, and that it is future-oriented and externally valued on the basis of a standards-based structure. Performance-related curricula and syllabi reflect an instrumental relationship to knowledge. Knowledge is only loosely valued on the basis of its intrinsic value and is instead measured on the basis of its usefulness. Ultimately, there is a risk that the intrinsic value of education will be weakened and become subordinated to utility values (cf. Yates & Young 2010).

The previous curriculum for the compulsory school (Lpo 94) was characterised by a fairly open competence-based curriculum permeated by central values, whereas Lgr 11 is performance-based. Furthermore, a semantic condensation of knowledge and knowledge requirements in combination with an intensified interest in knowledge tests and the following up of results has meant that the role of instrumental values in the definition of school knowledge has been increased and the role of individual subject objectives and central content weakened. The conclusion is thus that the competence model integrating knowledge and syllabi based on fundamental values emphasises the development of the student's individual potential and the intrinsic values of education, both for the individual and for society. Equity can here also be understood in terms of the development of one's own potential, discovering different ways of living, developing one's own culture etc. Performance-based curricula seem to instead focus on the instrumental values of knowledge and education by a strong emphasis on learning outcomes, which thus weakens the intrinsic value of education related to individual values and identity. Equity is equated with having 'the same chances' in the sense of reaching predefined requirements rather than an education that meets students' individual needs and conditions (Wahlström 2014c).

## **5.6 Convergences and divergences**

Our research on the intended curriculum leads to the preliminary conclusions that the Europeanisation of the Swedish curriculum is powerful and that the design of Lgr 11 indicates that transnational tendencies (such as the emphasis of the competency concept) have been framed according to a national policy arena based on partly conflicting discourses. In other words, we can describe and understand Lgr 11 in terms of convergences and divergences at the transnational policy and national curriculum levels.

The analysis shows central convergences between the Swedish national curriculum arena and the transnational policy arena. Firstly, there is a convergence relating to a standards-based curriculum. Although the responsibility for education is still decentralised at a local level, the state's regulation of content and design has been reinforced by Lgr 11. This standardisation means an increased clarity in several respects, for example that the functioning of a school can be assessed by considering national standards, and student learning can be assessed in relation to measurable knowledge requirements.

Expressed in a different way, the importance of an institutional coordinative discourse has increased. Secondly, Sweden converges with other countries in terms of interest in evaluating Swedish school performance by establishing a school inspectorate and making national and international comparisons of students' knowledge results by means of external evaluations and control systems.

In contrast to these converging tendencies, there are also divergences. In terms of Lgr 11, the main divergence is between the competency concept that flourishes in the transnational policy arena and the interpretation of this concept in the national curriculum arena. Instead of treating competencies as generic skills, as in the EU, Lgr 11 mainly highlights skills in particular subjects. Competencies and skills thus become a question of subject-related knowledge (cf. Nordin & Sundberg 2015).

#### **5.7 Four concluding hypotheses based on the analyses of the intended curriculum field**

So far the analyses of educational policy discourses are based on authoritative policy documents and the two most recent curricula for the compulsory school in Sweden, namely Lpo 94 and Lgr 11. The analyses have been framed by the recontextualisation field in the intersection between transnational and national policy arenas and the displacement of the pedagogical discourse between curriculum Lpo 94 and Lgr 11. Based on these analyses, the following hypotheses can be formulated:

- The hypothesis of reform: Lgr 11 cannot just be considered as a modification of the previous curriculum Lpo 94. It is instead necessary to understand Lgr 11 as a separate reform, given the fundamental differences of its curriculum design with a strong focus on 'knowledge requirements'.
- The hypothesis of teachers' professional practice: Lgr 11 to some extent governs and affects the way that teachers perceive their professional task and how they exert their work in practice.
- The hypothesis of teaching repertoires: Lgr 11 implies a certain standardisation of the teaching repertoire. From Lpo 94 to Lgr 11 the dominant teaching repertoire has changed from a focus on 'the student's own work' to 'whole class teaching' (cf. 'structured teaching' in Lgr 11, p. 28-29, this volume).

- The hypothesis of assessment practices: The importance of summative evaluation is increasing in Swedish schools despite a strong discourse advocating formative assessment.

These hypotheses are examined in a questionnaire survey and in subsequent interviews with some of the informants (n = 18) included in the survey. In the following two sections, the results from the survey and the interviews are analysed and reported.

## 6 The enacted curriculum

This section presents the results of the questionnaire survey and is structured in accordance with the four hypotheses formulated above. First, some facts about the informants (independent variables) are presented and thereafter the results concerning the implementation of the reform (hypothesis one). In the next section the focus is on teachers' professional practices. This is followed by an examination of the teaching repertoires and an account of the assessment practices according to the hypotheses. Each section ends with a brief summary of findings.

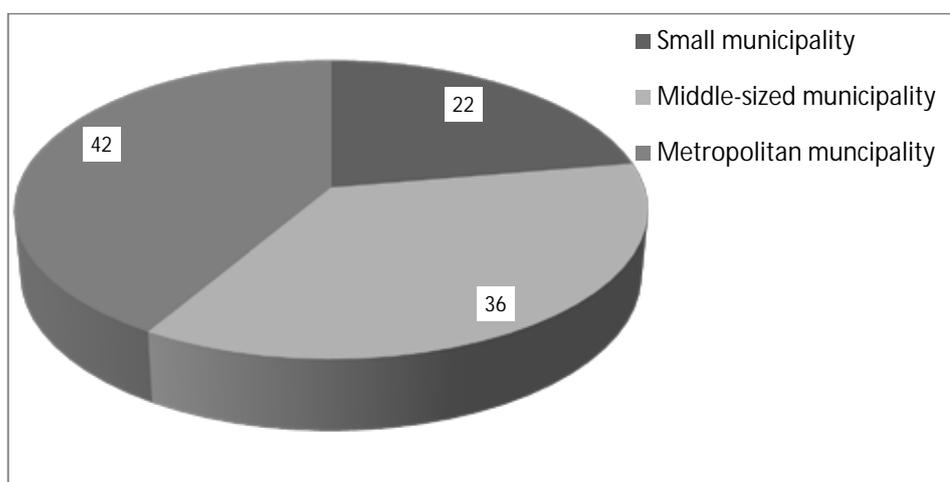


Figure 2. Percentage of teachers in relation to different types of municipalities

Figure 2 shows that 42% of the participating teachers work in municipalities belonging to the category metropolitan municipalities, 36 % of the participants are employed in middle-sized municipalities and 22 % of the informants work in smaller municipalities. In the survey, twice as many respondents teach in big city areas compared to those teaching in small municipalities.

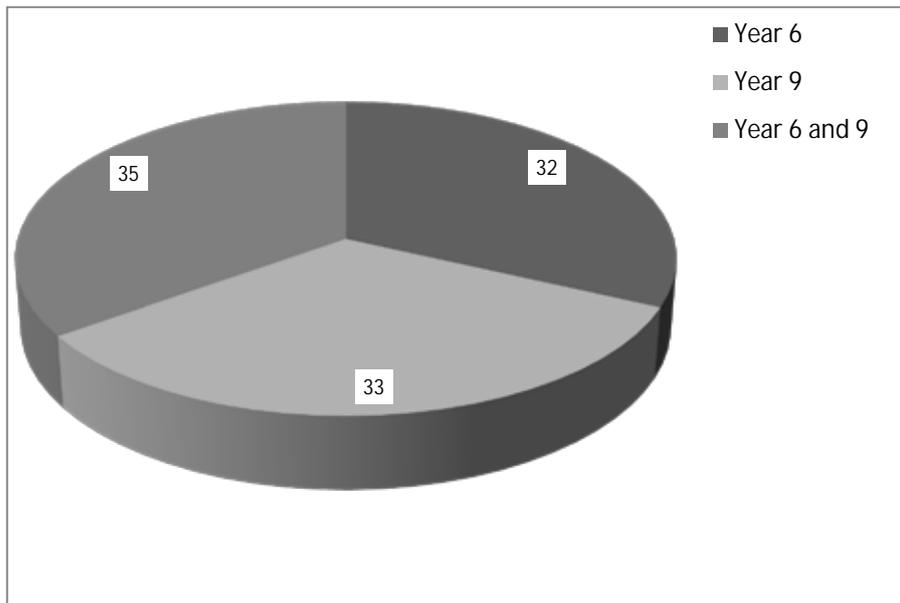


Figure 3. Percentages of teachers in relation to different school grades.

Figure 3 shows that 32 % of the informants teach Year 6, 33 % of the informants teach Year 9 and 35 % teach Years 6 and 9. This allocation of the different year levels implies that a fairly large proportion of teachers teach practical-aesthetic subjects, because teaching different age groups is quite common in those subjects.

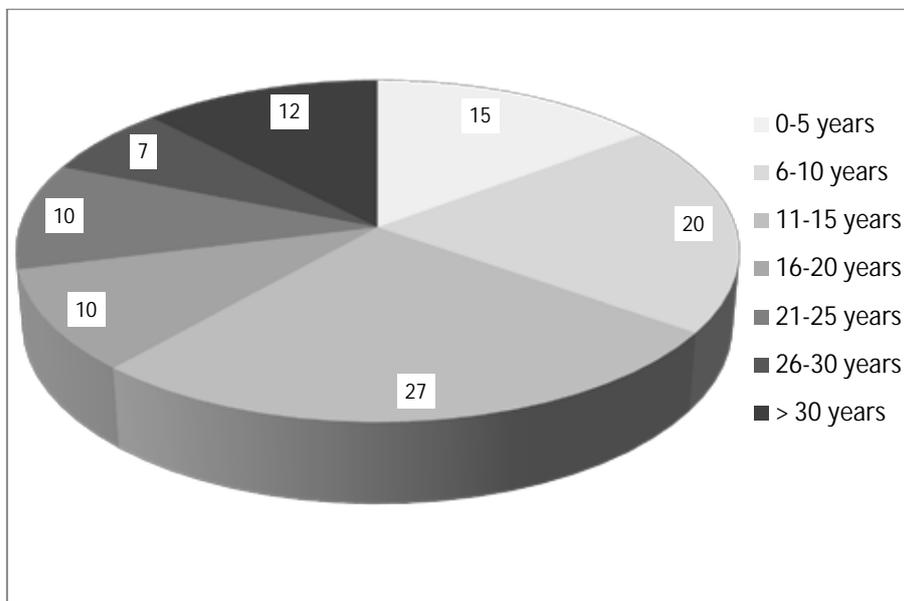


Figure 4. Percentages of teachers in relation to different years in teacher profession.

The above diagram shows how the informants are distributed in terms of number of years in the profession. Most of the informants have been teaching for 11–15 years (27 %). The second largest group of teachers have taught for 6–10 years (20 %). The groups of informants who have been teaching for 0–5 years and for more than 30 years are more or less of equal size, at 15 % and 12 % respectively.

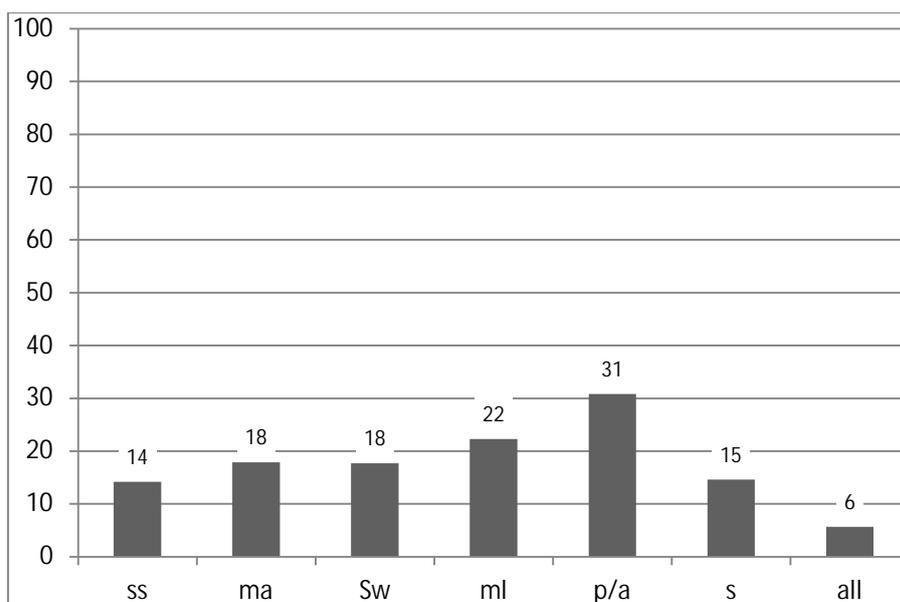


Figure 5. Percentages of teachers in relation to different school subjects.

The above graph shows the percentage of teachers teaching different subjects. The graph confirms the suggestion that that a fairly large proportion of teachers – 31 % – teach practical-aesthetic subjects (p/a). The percentage of teachers in the subjects of Swedish (Sw), mathematics (ma), modern languages (ml), social science (ss) and science (s) ranges between 14–22 %. It is plausible that the teachers who teach all subjects (6 %) teach Year 6 or are involved in small teaching groups.

The independent background variables accounted for above (i.e. type of municipality, teaching Year 6 respectively Year 9, teaching experience and teaching subject) have been the source for the correlation analyses of the variables examined, which in turn have served as a basis for the current conclusions presented in the following results section ( $p < 0,050$ ).

## 6.1 The implementation of Lgr 11

In this subsection the initial implementation processes are examined. The purpose, in exploring the hypothesis of reform, is to identify which implementation activities the teachers attended most frequently and which implementation activities they found most helpful.

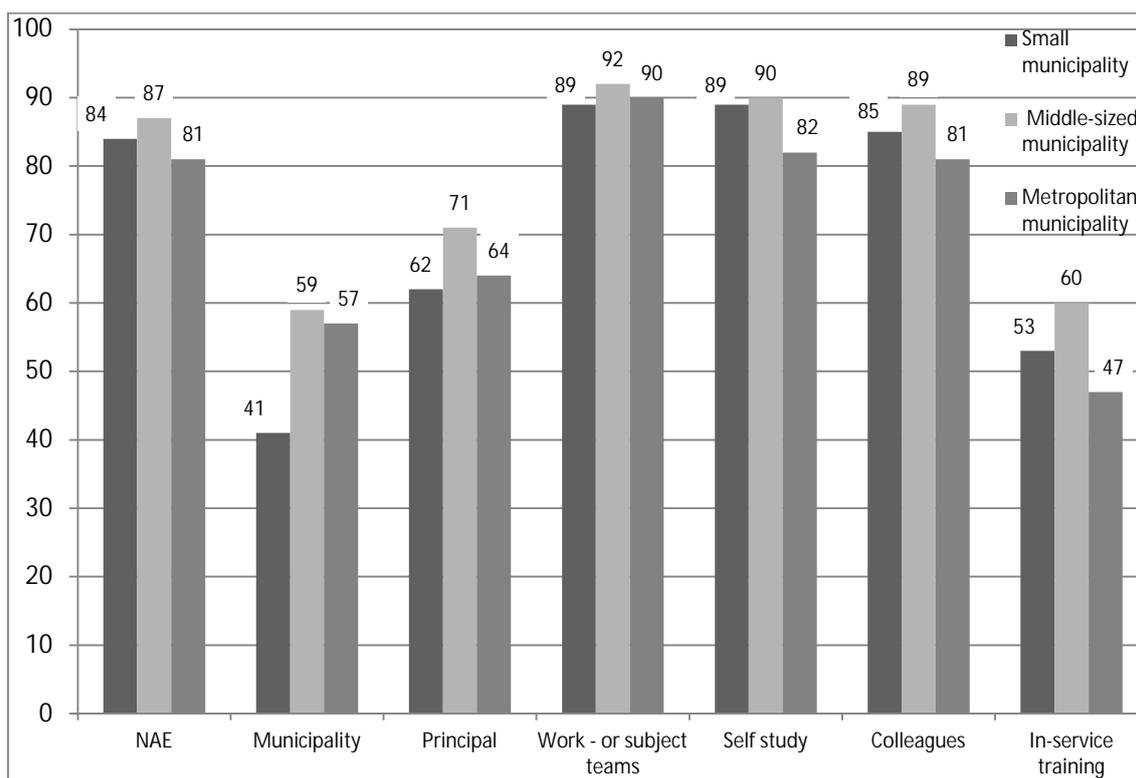


Figure 6. Implementation activities that teachers have been offered and participated in (Question 5, Appendix 2).

The most common information sources for teachers implementing the new curriculum are discussions about Lgr 11 in work teams and subject teams. Between 89–92 % of teachers receive their information from colleagues in organised teamwork. A similar percentage of teachers have informed themselves about the new curriculum, while 81–89 % of teachers discuss Lgr 11 informally with colleagues. The most important ‘external’ source of information is the Swedish National Agency for Education (NAE) and its website (81–87 %). 62–71 % of the informants report that they have taken part in information meetings arranged by the principal in their own school. 41–59 % of teachers have taken part in information meetings with invited speakers arranged by the

municipality, while a similar percentage, 47–60%, have taken part in more organised forms of in-service training.

The results show that implementation activities vary in different types of municipalities. A general trend is that teachers in small municipalities report a lower degree of participation in the different forms of organised implementation activities than the two other categories. Teachers in middle-sized municipalities are most active in the various forms of information activities. There is a surprisingly low degree of participation in municipality based activities in small municipalities (41 %) and in in-service activities in big city municipalities (47 %).

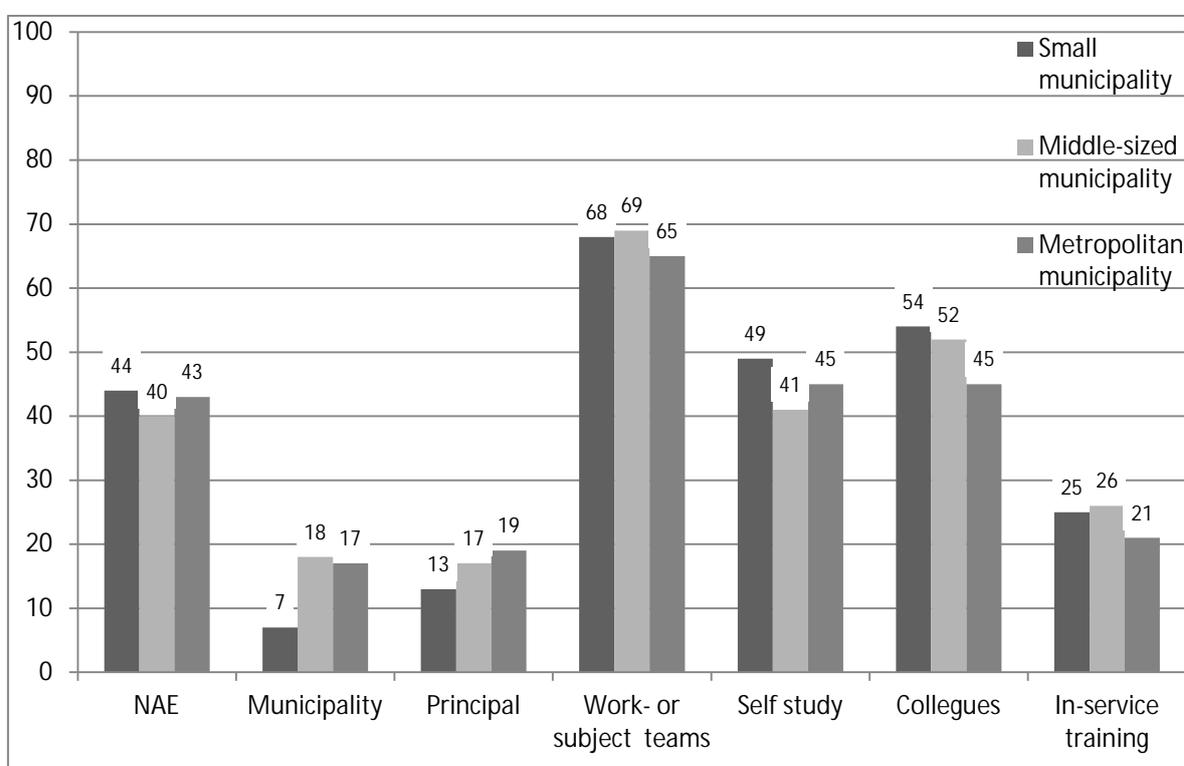


Figure 7. Implementation activities that teachers have perceived to be highly relevant in relation to their ability to teach according to Lgr 11 (Question 6, Appendix 2).

Figure 7 demonstrates that 65–69 % of teachers consider that discussions in work teams and subject teams are highly relevant implementation activities for teaching in accordance with Lgr 11. The second most relevant activity, rated by 45–54 % of teachers, is informal conversations with colleagues. 41–49 % of teachers found relevant information about Lgr 11 on their own, while 40–44 % found relevant information on the NAE website. It is notable that the competence development efforts of municipi-

palties, such as information meetings and invited speakers seem to have little relevance when it comes to contributing to teachers being able to teach according to Lgr 11. Teachers assess implementation efforts initiated by the principal or the municipality as having low relevance. In the small municipalities, only 7 % of the informants think that the activity initiated by the municipality is highly relevant, and only 13 % think that activities initiated by the principal are of high relevance. Teachers in smaller municipalities have to a greater extent put their trust in self-studies in order to familiarise themselves with the curriculum (49 %). Support from the NAE is considered significantly more relevant by the teachers (44%), although discussions in work and subject teams were valued most highly in relation to the ways of teaching according to Lgr 11 (65–69 %). In other words, colleagues were viewed as most important for interpreting, understanding and working with the curriculum.

There are thus important differences between Figure 6 and Figure 7. Whereas 59 % of the teachers in middle-sized municipalities participated in the municipality based implementation activities, only 18 % thought that these activities were relevant for teaching in accordance with Lgr 11. There are also differences in the participation in and relevance of the principal initiated activities in medium-sized municipalities, from 71 % in terms of participation and 17 % in terms of relevance to teaching. Even though the response pattern is broadly consistent between graphs 6 and 7, the actual values are generally much lower when it comes to relevance in Figure 7.

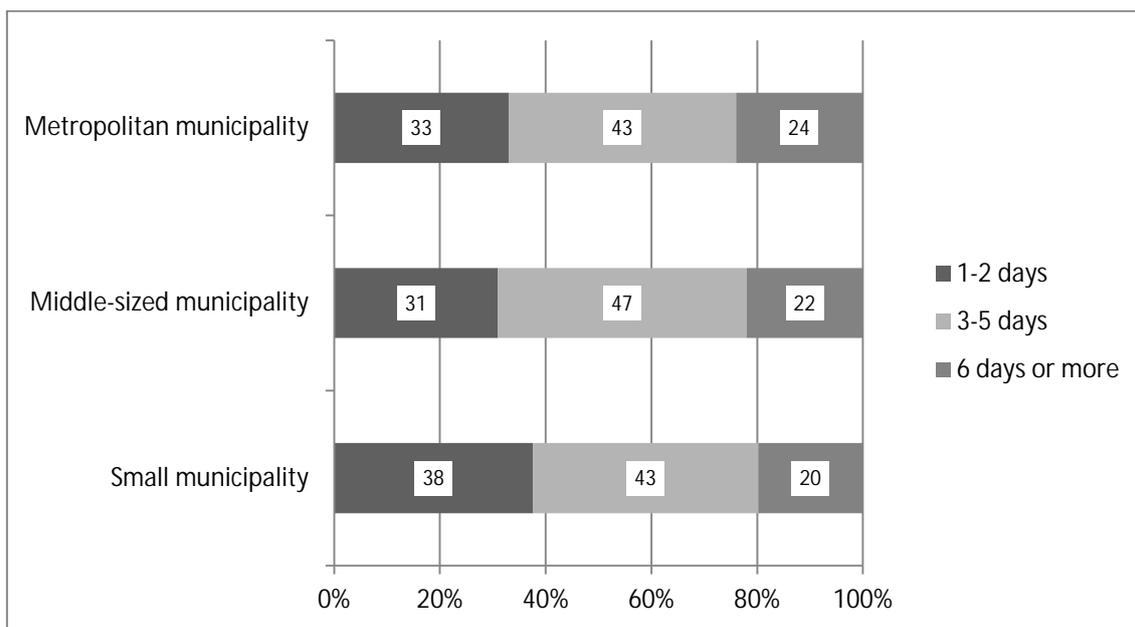


Figure 8. The number of estimated days of in-service training offered to teachers with the purpose of familiarizing themselves with Lgr 11 (Question 7, Appendix 2).

The amount of time for learning about the new curriculum varies. Most teachers were nevertheless, as Figure 8 shows, offered 3–5 days of in-service training when Lgr 11 was introduced. In this regard, there are no major differences between the different types of municipalities. Approximately 20 % of teachers have been offered 6 days or more in-service training. This applies to all three types of municipalities.

In general teachers indicate that they have come a long way in the implementation process. 35 % of the teachers say that they are working in full accordance with Lgr 11, 60 % state that they work to a fairly high degree in accordance with Lgr 11 and 5 % of the surveyed teachers indicate that they are working to a relatively small extent according to Lgr 11.

It seems clear that most teachers work in unity with their schools. When asked who ‘we’ are in connection with the implementation process, 61 % of the respondents answered ‘we’ are ‘we at our school’ (see question 9 in appendix 2). 18 % of the respondents referred to ‘we’ as ‘our work team’ and 16 % to ‘our subject team’. Only 4 % referred ‘we’ to ‘we in our municipality’. In other words, among the teachers there seems to be a clear sense of identification with their own school, which in turn is connected to the implementation of Lgr 11.

### 6.1.1 The hypothesis of reform

The teachers' responses indicate that the reform has caused major implementation work and readjustments in organising teaching and learning in line with the Lgr 11 curriculum. It seems clear that colleagues and self-studies have played an important role in the process of translating and turning the curriculum into practice. Teachers have participated in extensive implementation work, although the support for this work has varied considerably among municipalities and schools. In smaller municipalities, as well as in metropolitan municipalities, teachers have received less support from their municipality and principals in working with the new curriculum. However, these activities have been rated by the teachers as having little relevance.

### 6.2 The curriculum as a frame for the organisation of teaching

The teachers who participated in the study were asked to answer questions concerning the extent to which Lgr 11 has affected their perception of the school's mission and the kind of content that will be offered to students.

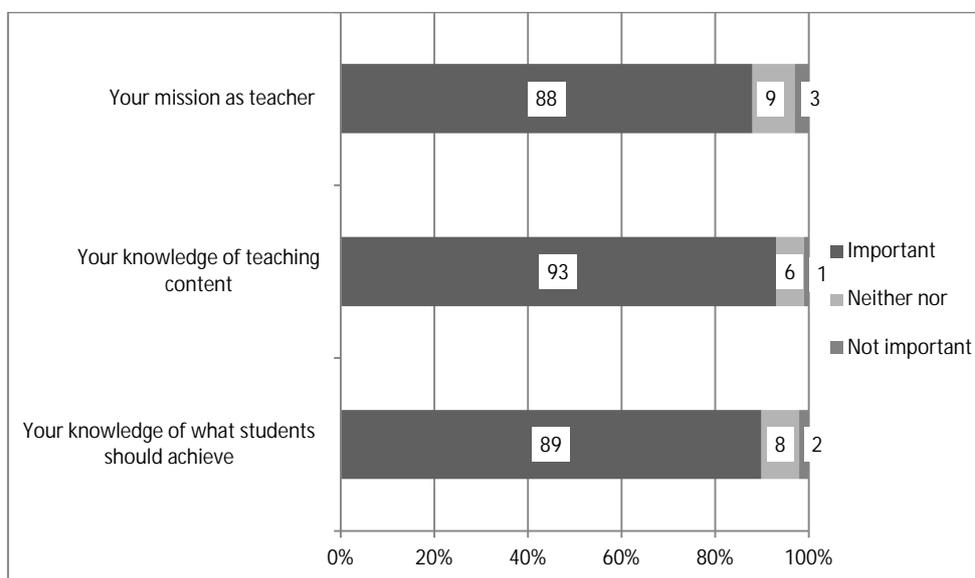


Figure 9. The importance of Lgr 11 for teachers' perceptions of their assignment, the teaching content and students' knowledge requirements in specific subjects (Question 11, Appendix 2).

In terms of the curriculum as a frame for the organisation of school activities, 88 % of the teachers regard Lgr 11 as either very important or important for their perception of

their teaching assignment. Teachers attach most weight to Lgr 11 when considering which content should be included in their teaching. 93 % think that Lgr 11 is important for deciding which content to teach. Lgr 11 is also considered to be important for determining which subject-specific knowledge students should have acquired in a specific subject and when. Overall, the graph shows that the teachers put great emphasis on the curriculum as a basis for content selection and educational decisions concerning their own teaching, not least as a guide for assessing students' knowledge.

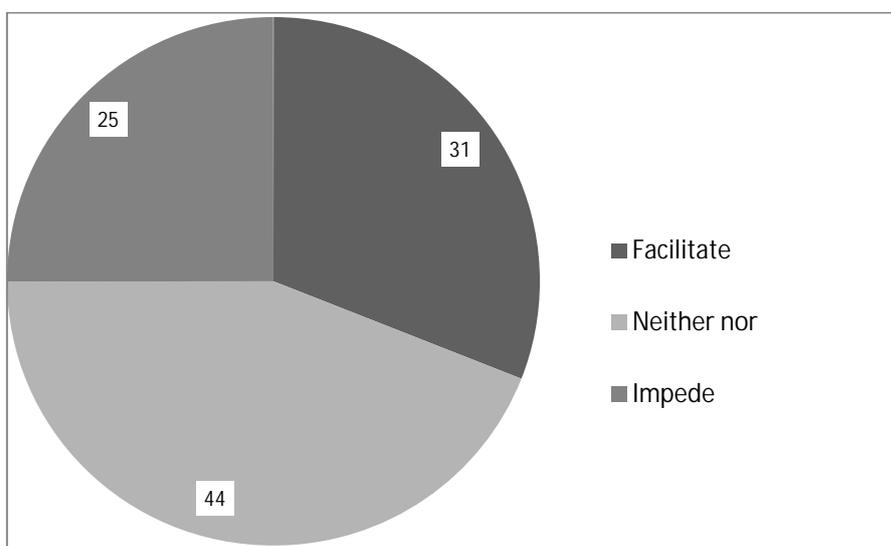


Figure 10. The extent to which Lgr 11 facilitates interdisciplinary collaboration in terms of projects or themes (Question 12, Appendix 2).

The result shown in the above diagram is not very easy to interpret. We will return to this survey question in our discussion of the results (see 8.2, p. 70). Here, in the reporting of the results, we note that 44 % of teachers think that Lgr 11 does not make it more difficult nor easier to teach in terms of themes or projects. 31 % of the informants think that Lgr 11 facilitates the organisation of teaching in projects, while 25 % consider it to impede these forms of interdisciplinary teaching.

**Comments from the informants' questionnaire:**

- *It (Lgr 11) is clear with its central content, which makes it easier for you to think about possible collaborations. It is also easier from an assessment point of view to work transversal, because the same abilities are practised in all subjects.*

- *Core content is very comprehensive in several subjects, which is perceived as stressful for many teachers; therefore one tends to be unwilling to work in an interdisciplinary way in order keep control of one's own subject.*
- *The skills that students should have in language can certainly be acquired by working with other school subject areas, but I do not know what in the curriculum would make it easier for this to happen. Themes and projects are probably more based on the individual teacher's commitment than on the curriculum.*

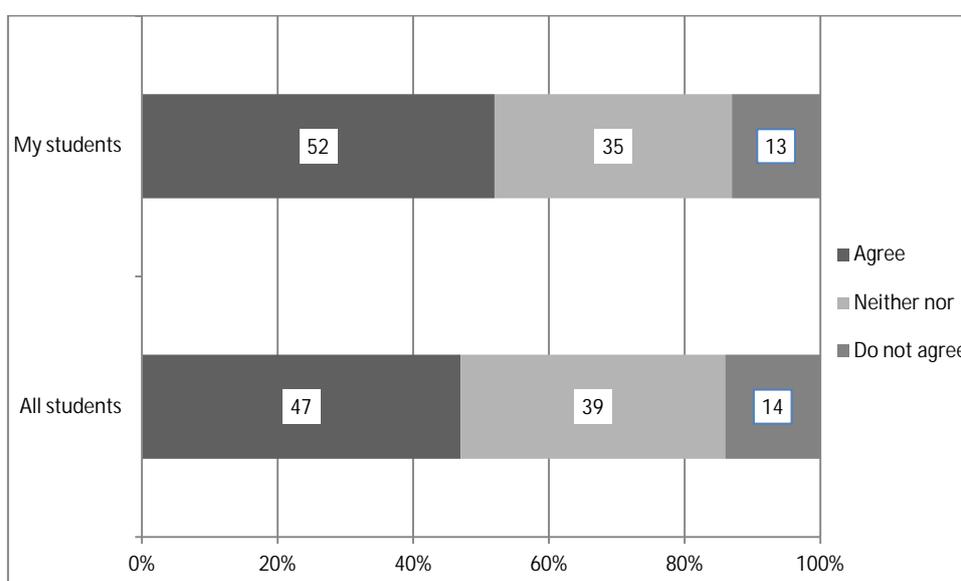


Figure 11. Teachers' perceptions of the importance of curriculum design and content in relation to student achievement (Question 20, Appendix 2).

The purpose of Lgr 11 is to create conditions for better student performance by clarifying the school's mission (Official Report 2007:28). The teachers were therefore asked if they thought that the structure and content represented in Lgr 11 would help to improve students' outcomes. 52 % of the teachers agreed with the assertion that the curriculum structure and content would contribute to improving their own students' performances, while 47 % believed that these factors would help to improve the performance of all students in Swedish schools. In contrast, a fairly large proportion of teachers, 39 %, did not believe that the curriculum structure and content would affect the student achievement.

#### **Comments from the informants' questionnaire:**

- *Pupils' knowledge will most likely increase, as Lgr 11 has tightened the governance when it comes to teaching. How this will be reflected in grade statistics is difficult to say when also the knowledge requirements have been tightened.*
- *In my view it is not the governing document that increases student achievement, but what I do with them in the classroom. I have the expertise and can supervise, guide and design learning situations that enable them to develop their knowledge results. In that sense Lgr11 does not have a major role ... some parts of it could even lead to deterioration in results.*

#### **6.2.1 The hypothesis of teachers' professional practice**

According to this study, the new curriculum seems to have had considerable impact on teachers' understanding of the teaching assignment, the teaching content and students' knowledge requirements in specific subjects. We can also note that half of the teachers are of the opinion that the structure and content of Lgr 11 contribute to improving the study results for their own students. Almost as many think that the curriculum will contribute to improving the results for all students in Sweden.

#### **6.3 Teaching forms, teaching content and evaluation of teaching**

In one part of the questionnaire questions were asked about how teachers thought Lgr 11 makes priorities in terms of different forms of teaching.

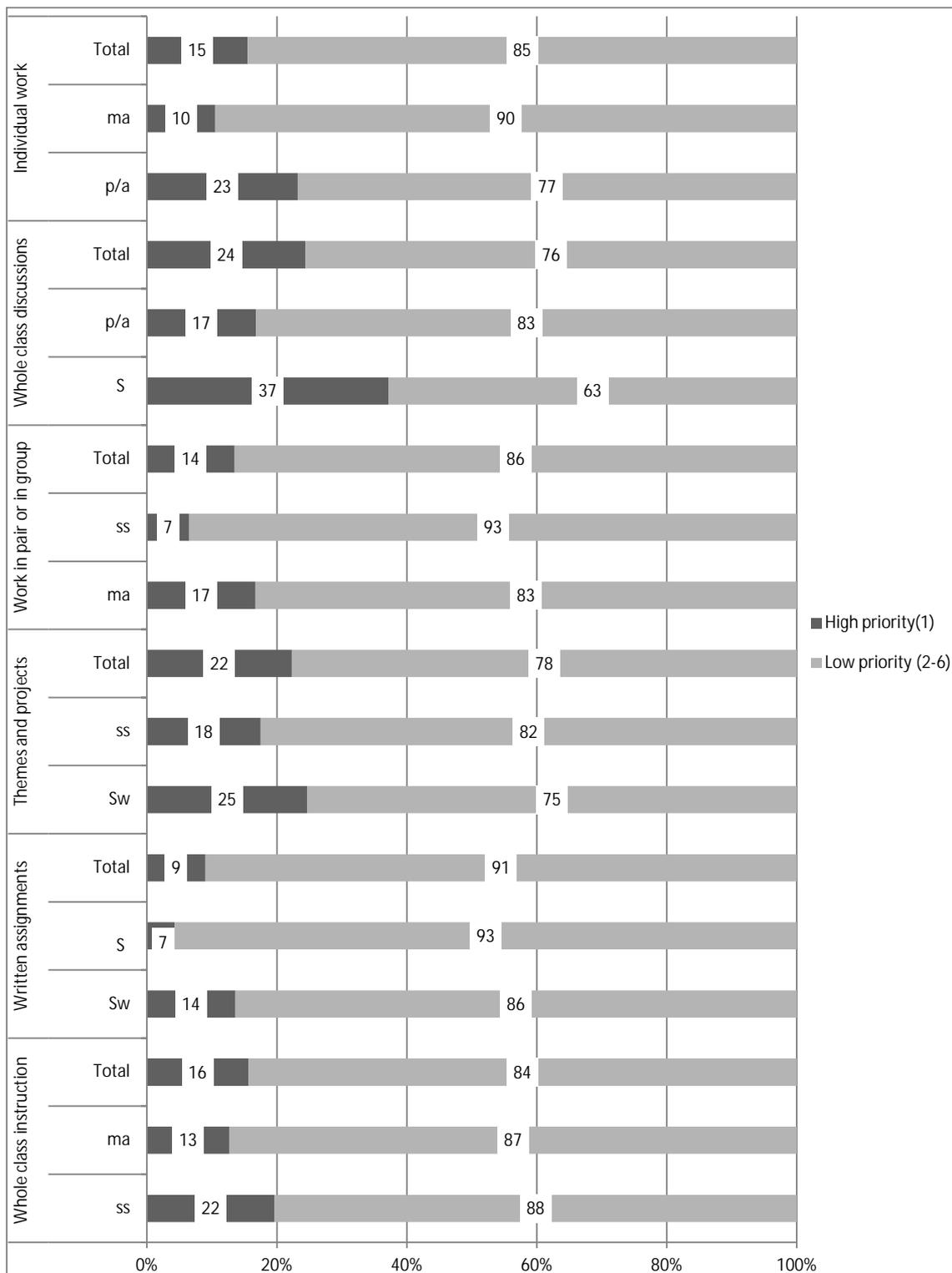


Figure 12. The degree to which different forms of teaching are consistent with the intentions in Lgr 11 (Question 23, Appendix 2).

Figure 12 illustrates the degree to which the entire survey population believes that a certain teaching method is consistent with the intentions of Lgr 11. The diagram also

illustrates the subject with the highest rate and the subject with the lowest rate when considering whether the teaching method is in accordance with the intention of Lgr 11. 24 % of all the informants think that whole class discussion is a teaching method in line with Lgr 11. Almost as many, 22 %, think that work with themes and projects is in accordance with the education discourse in Lgr 11. 25 % of the teachers of Swedish think that project work reflects the intentions of Lgr 11. However, there are major differences between teachers' teaching in different subjects in the Lgr 11 approach. While 37 % of the teachers in science believe that whole class discussions are consistent with Lgr 11, only 17 % of the teachers of practical- aesthetic subjects agree. The teaching method that teachers consider to be least in line with Lgr 11 is various forms of independently conducted written assignments. Only 9 % of the informants think that this approach is in line with Lgr 11.

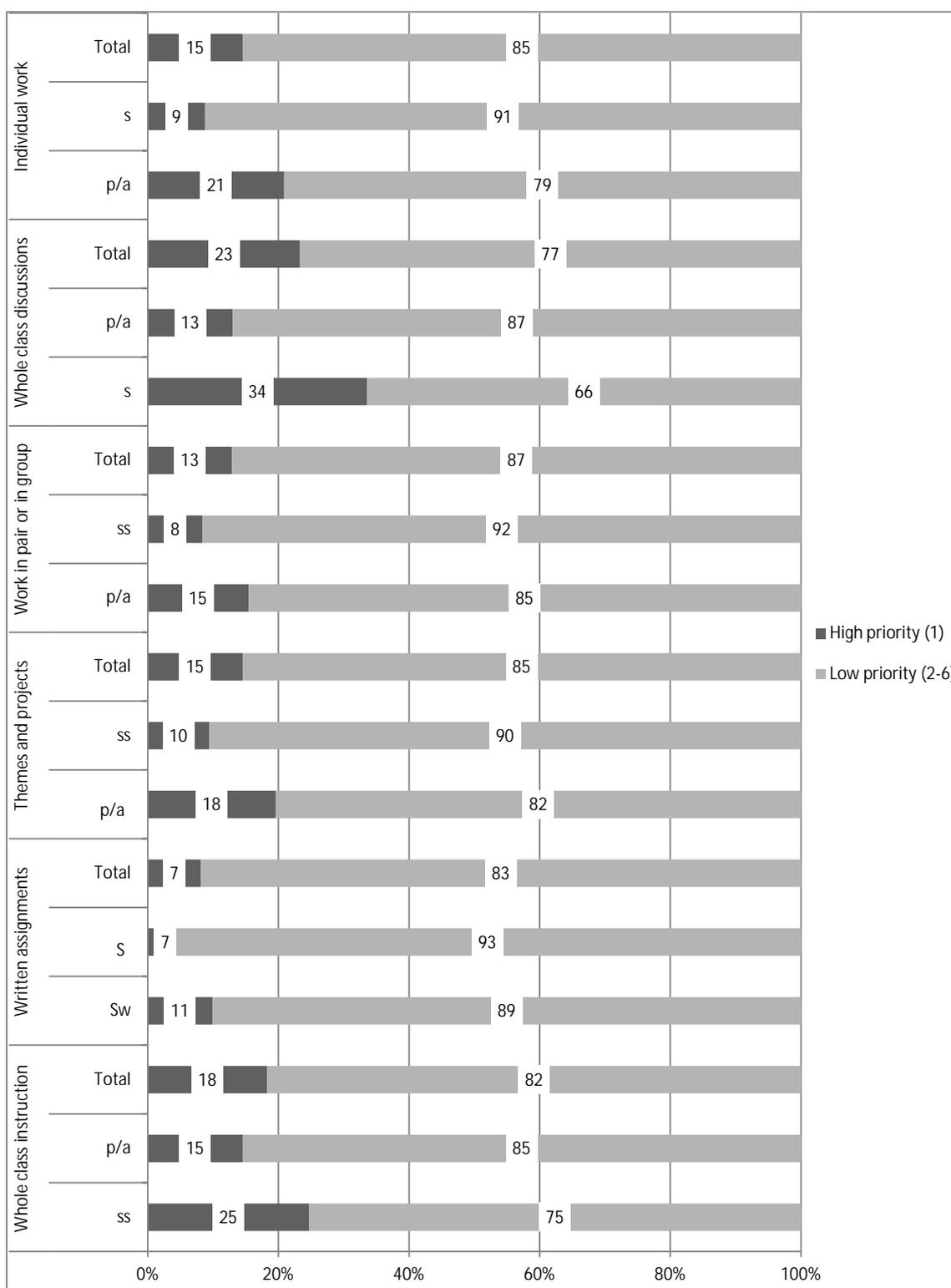


Figure 13. The degree to which different forms of instruction are consistent with the teachers' own views of knowledge and teaching practices (Question 24, Appendix 2).

With regard to the questions of whether teaching methods are consistent with Lgr 11 or whether the teaching method is consistent with the teacher's own view of knowledge

and teaching practice, the overall response pattern is the same. For example, 34 % of science teachers think that whole class discussions are in accordance with their own teaching practice ideals and their own views of knowledge, while 37 % of the same group perceive this teaching method as the preferred one in the teaching discourse in Lgr 11. The same pattern applies to the responses from social science teachers: 25 % prefer to guide their students through the selected content in whole class teaching and 22 % consider this teaching to be most in line with the intentions of Lgr 11.

However, there is one interesting difference in the response patterns shown in Figure 12 and Figure 13. Although 22 % of the teachers who answered the question think that working thematically in projects is in accordance with Lgr 11, only 15 % consider this teaching method to be in line with their own teaching preferences. With regard to social science teachers, 18 % think that the teaching method of working in projects is quite consistent with Lgr 11, but only 9 % said that they would choose this way of teaching if they had a choice.

Generally speaking, the teachers' interpretations are that Lgr 11 encourages forms of teaching that correspond with their own views of knowledge and their own teaching practices. Individual work as a form of teaching is not generally viewed as consistent with Lgr 11 (15 %), although 21 % of the teachers of practical/aesthetic subjects think that it is. The same is true for individually submitted assignments (7 %). Teachers instead argue that the curriculum prioritises group discussions in classroom settings, which is also preferred by the teachers. At the same time, teachers interpret that the curriculum recommends theme work or project work to a greater extent than they would apply in their own teaching. The reverse is true for presentations in front of the class. Teachers regard such teaching methods as slightly more favourable than is encouraged in the curriculum.

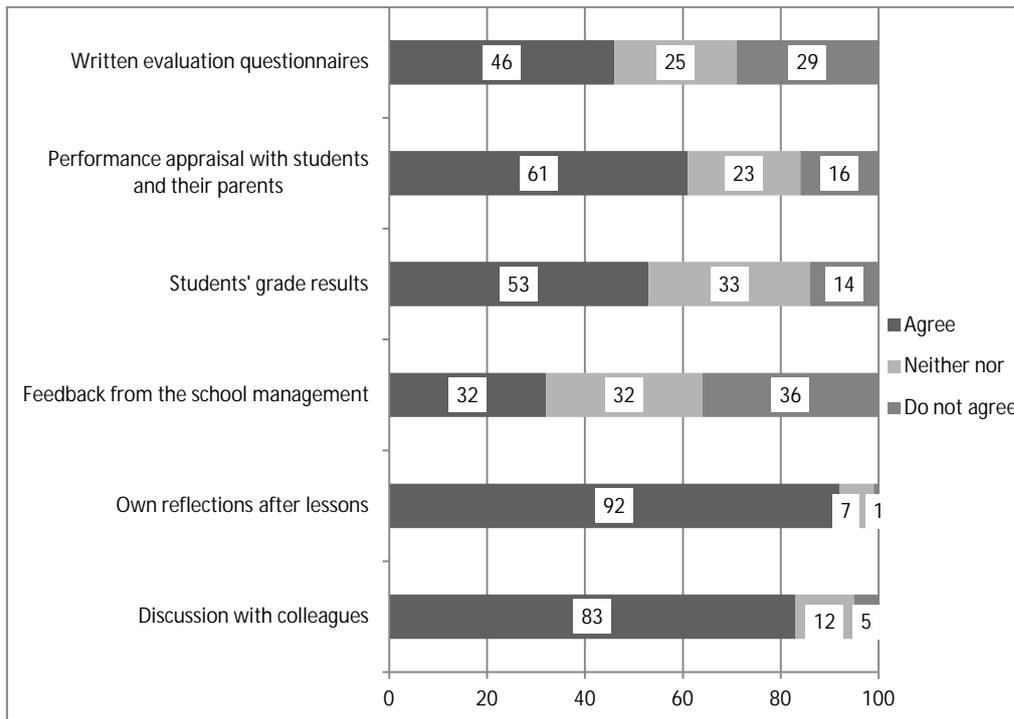


Figure 14. The most important instruments for the evaluation of the teacher's own teaching (Question 22, Appendix 2).

When it comes to teachers' evaluations of their own teaching, 92 % agree that their own reflections after a lesson are one of the most important evaluation tools. Almost as many teachers, 83 %, find that their own evaluation are discussions with colleagues are important. 83 % of the informants agree with the statement that conversations with colleagues are one of the most important aspects of their self-evaluation. Feedback from the school management gets the lowest valuation. Only 32 % of the teachers think that this form of feedback is an important aspect of the evaluation of their own teaching. However, what we cannot discern from this survey is whether this low rate depends on a lack of trust for the principal's assessment, or whether it is due to the fact that principals seldom make classroom visits to discuss the teachers' teaching. Another somewhat surprising result is that teachers do not make any strong connections between their own teaching and the students' grade results. 53 % of the teachers think that their students' grade results provide important feedback on their own teaching performance. This goes against a widespread policy discourse, which claims that the teacher is the single most important factor for students' academic achievements.

**Comments from the informant's questionnaire:**

- *Oral discussions about the working area and its execution are most important.*
- *The school leaders have probably only been in my classroom twice, while colleagues are often there and provide very positive feedback.*
- *The students' results can be a measure, but only if you compare from where they start and how far they reach by your teaching - not in relation to how high the student's grades are.*

Questions were also asked about the selection of content in teachers' curriculum practice. The questions relate to teachers' autonomy in making content choices as well as the possibilities for students to influence the content in different subjects (see Figure 15, below).

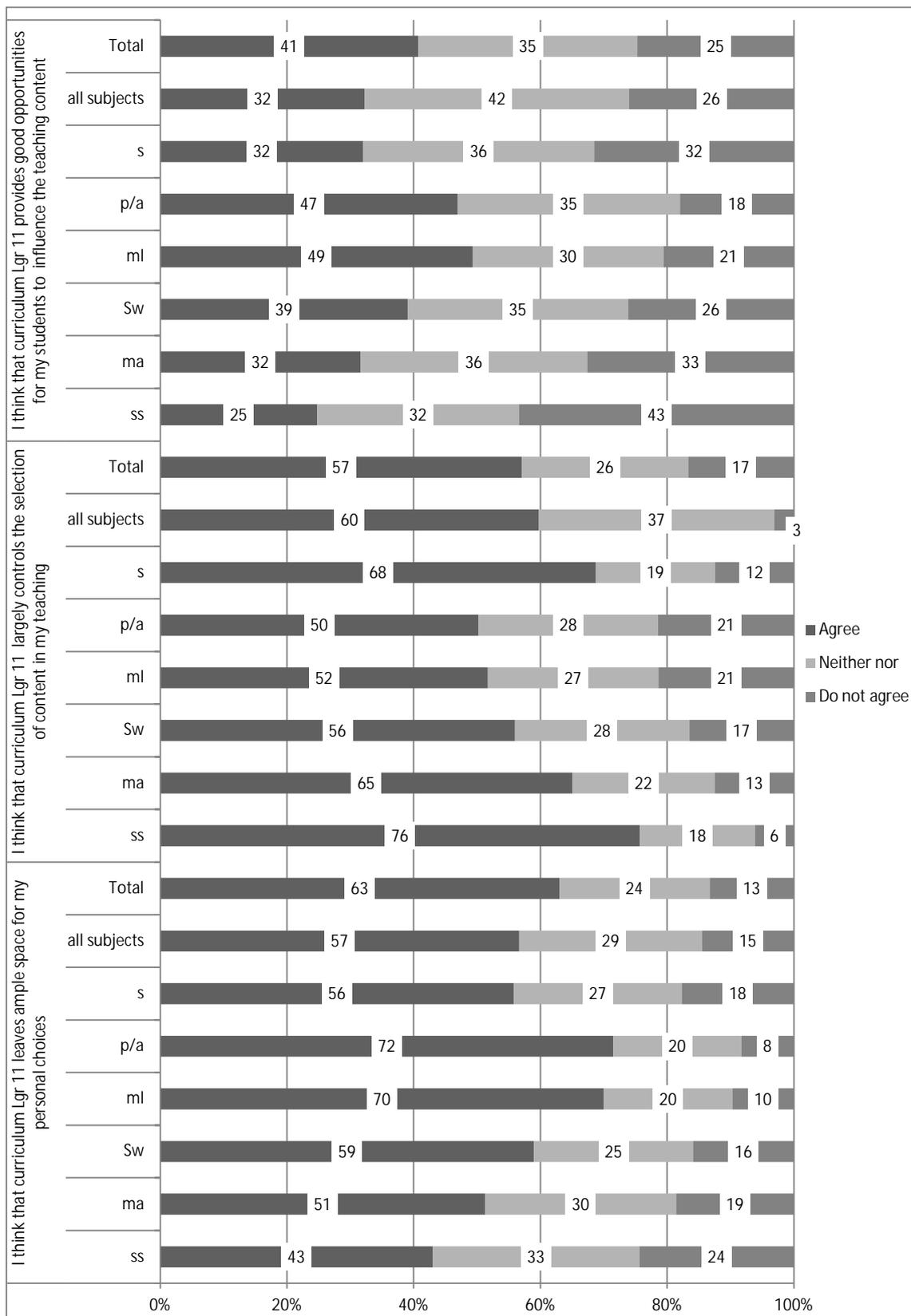


Figure 15. Curriculum Lgr 11 and the potential for selection of teaching content (Question 25, Appendix 2).

Figure 15 above illustrates that there are relatively large differences between subjects when it comes to how the level of governance of educational content is perceived in Lgr 11. Teachers of practical/aesthetic subjects (72 %) and modern languages (70 %) think that Lgr 11 leaves ample space for personal choice. However, at the same time, about 50 % of the same two groups agree with the claim that Lgr 11 largely controls the selection of content in one's teaching. In this case, the answers to the two query options are not congruent.

Social studies teachers feel most controlled by Lgr 11 in the choice of content. 76 % agree that Lgr 11 largely controls the selection of content in their teaching, and 43 % of the same group of teachers considers that they have ample opportunity to influence the content of their teaching. For the teachers in this subject the response pattern is more congruent than that in the above example. Consequently, the social science teachers also assess their students' abilities to influence the content as low.

Modern language teachers think that their students have good opportunities to influence the teaching and learning content within the frame of Lgr 11 (49 %), although overall the students are in third place (41 %) in terms of influence over the content, after the teachers (63 %) and the curriculum (57 %).

**Comments from the informants' questionnaire:**

- *Core content dictates to a very high degree which content my teaching will have.*
- *The degree of influence depends on the school subject; there are for example significant opportunities to have an influence in the subject of English.*
- *In the central content of Lgr 11 it is clearly stated what the teaching should be about. From there, it is the knowledge requirements that determine the design of my teaching. I have to plan lessons so that the students achieve the knowledge requirements. As long as I follow the core content and the knowledge requirements, I have a pretty free hand.*
- *In some subjects where the core content is not related to special knowledge material (Swedish), the pupils on the other hand have GREAT opportunities to participate and influence the content, but not in the subjects with specified, prescribed content as in Social Studies.*
- *I think that the core content provides good guidance when it comes to teaching content. I do not feel pinioned when it comes to the design of work.*

- *Teaching content (what is to be taught) can be difficult to control, while the teaching approach is easier to influence.*

### **6.3.1 The hypothesis of teaching repertoires**

There is a relatively large congruence between what are perceived as the work procedure priorities in the curriculum and the teachers' own views of knowledge. According to the teachers, whole class discussions seem most congruent with Lgr 11, and this is also the teaching method they prefer. Thus, the results can be interpreted as a general displacement in curriculum priorities from individual work as a teaching method, which is associated with the former curriculum Lpo 94, to whole class teaching. However, teachers state that the curriculum recommends theme work or project work to a greater extent than they would apply in their own teaching. 53 % of the teachers think that their students' grade results are important feedback on their own teaching performances. The most important tool for teachers to evaluate their own teaching is reflexive thinking and dialogues with colleagues.

There is evidence to suggest that the teachers perceive a stronger classification and framing in Lgr 11 when it comes to content selection and their teaching. However, there are significant differences between the different subjects. While there seems to be some movement in language and practical/aesthetic subjects towards student influence and more active participation, there appears to be a movement away from such opportunities in social studies. The overall result points towards teachers as having most influence over the teaching content, but that the curriculum also controls the content to a relatively high degree. Students, on the other hand, seem to have the least influence in this respect.

### **6.4 The curriculum and the assessment**

A major part of the teacher survey was concerned with different aspects of the curriculum and teachers' assessment practices. In the following figure teachers were asked to rate the different factors that influenced their grading and assessment.

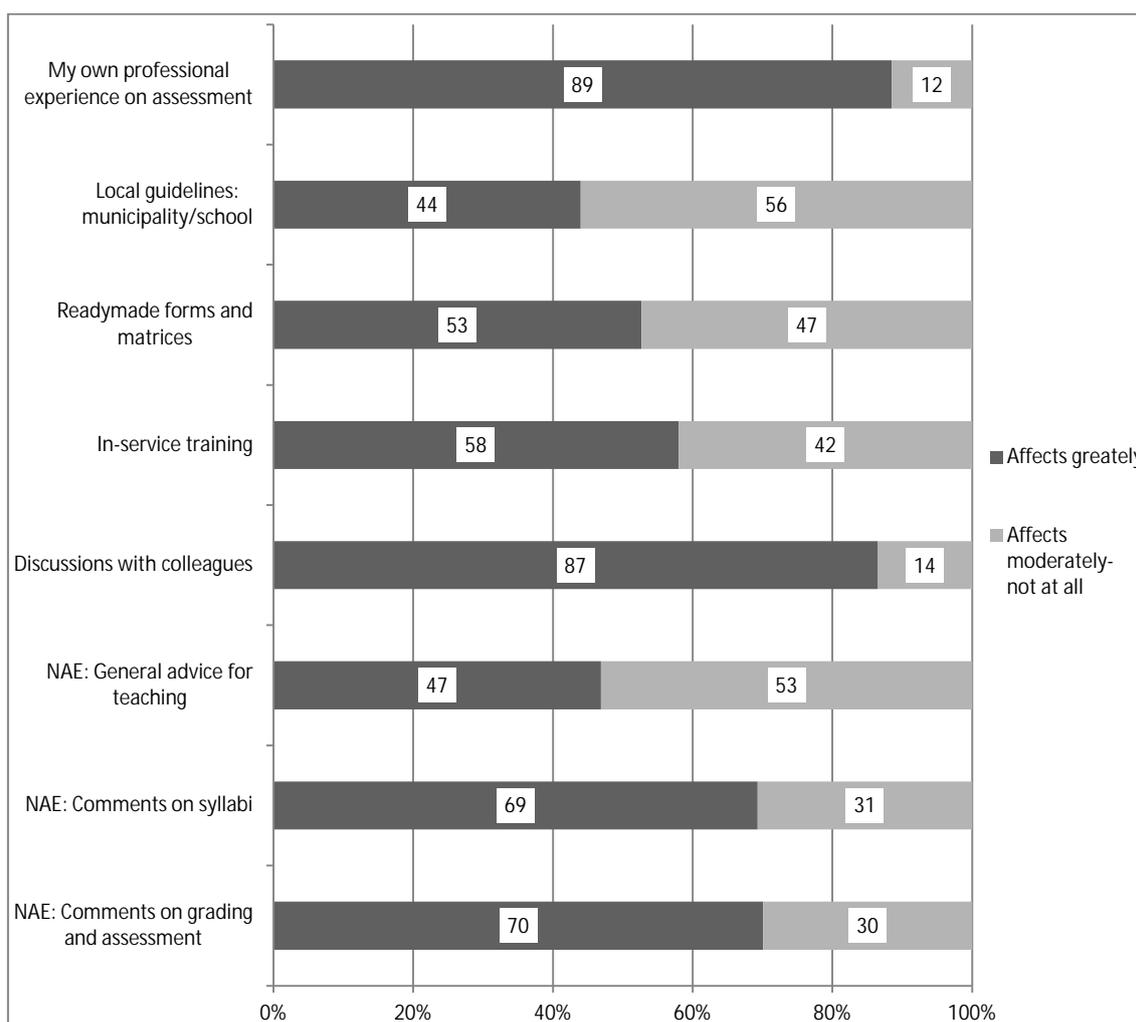


Figure 16. The degree to which a different factors affect teachers' assessment and grading of students' knowledge (Question 14, Appendix 2).

With regard to assessment and grading, Figure 16 shows that the most influential factor is the development of a teacher's professional capacity. 89 % of the teachers think that their own experience of assessing students' knowledge and skills is a highly important factor in their grading of work. The second most highly rated factor is discussion with colleagues. 87 % of teachers estimate that conversations with colleagues affect their assessment work to a large extent. The NAE enjoys high levels of trust among teachers in terms of assessment work and marking. The NAE's guidance material on grades and marking has also played a central role. 70 % of the teachers argue that these materials have affected their assessment work to a great or very great extent. Moreover, 53 % have worked with ready-made assessment tools, such as matrixes or other templates, available in schools. Least important for the teachers are guidelines developed by the

school or the municipality. Only 44 % of the teachers think that this is an important factor in the assessment work. This could either mean that no such guidelines are produced, or the guidelines that are available are not useful in the assessment work.

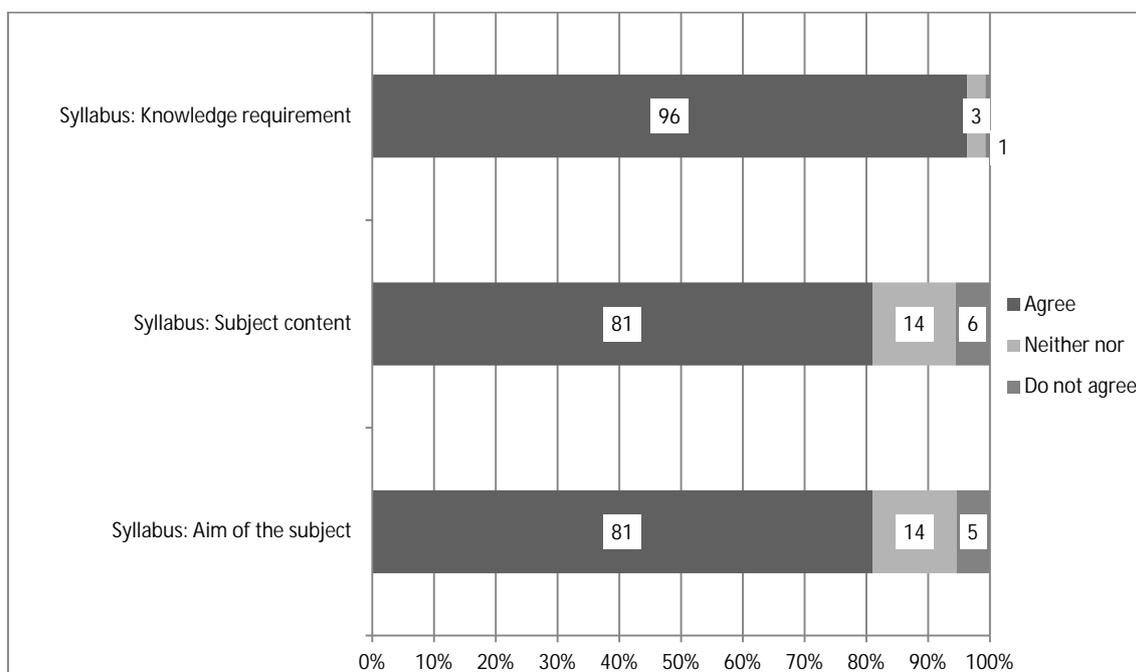


Figure 17. The significance of different parts of the curriculum when teachers set grades at the end of term (Question 15, Appendix 2).

Different areas of the curriculum are given different levels of importance when it comes to marking. Prior to assessment and grading teachers focus on interpreting the subject knowledge requirements. This applies to 96 % of teachers (see Figure 17). However, the subject aims and the subject content have had less impact on assessment processes. 81 % believe that these elements are very important or important when grading.

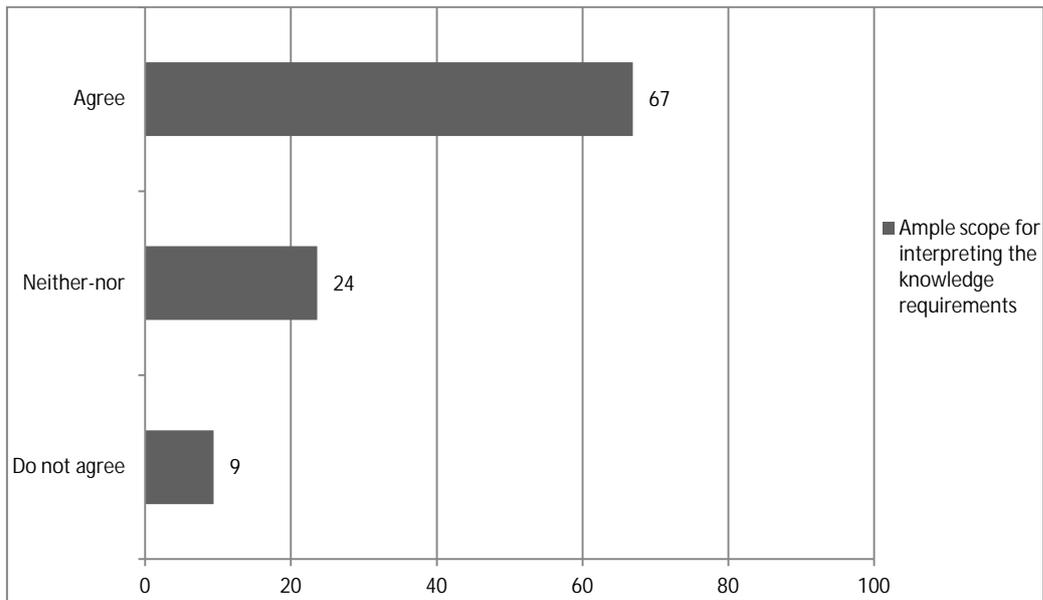


Figure 18. Scope for interpreting the curriculum knowledge requirements (Question 16, Appendix 2).

When looking specifically at knowledge requirements, 67 % of teachers in all subjects respond that there is ample space for interpreting the knowledge requirements. 24 % do not have any specific opinion on this aspect, while about 9 % disagree and think that there is little room for interpretation of the knowledge requirements.

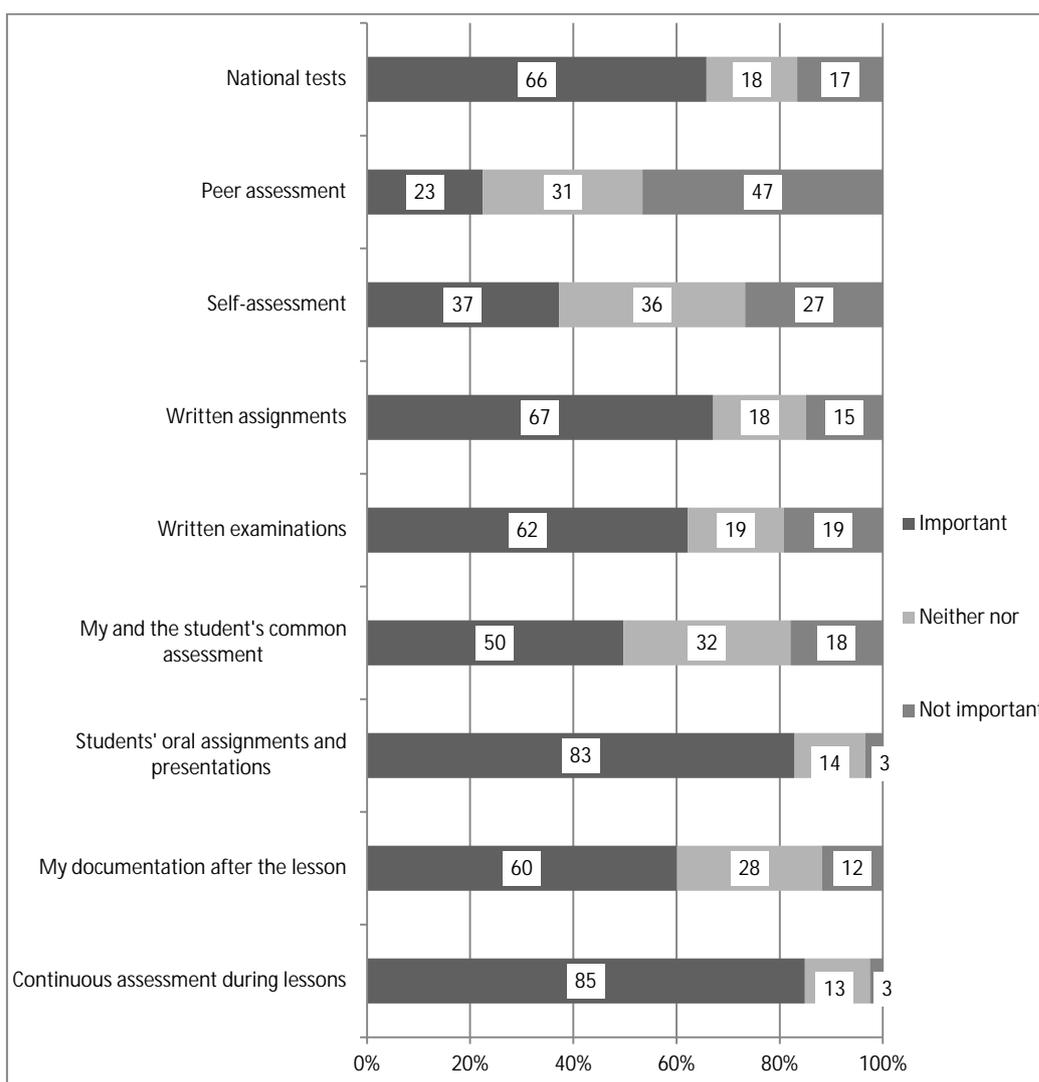


Figure 19. Teachers' evaluations of assessment instruments (Question 17, Appendix 2).

This study shows that teachers use several different assessment tools to assess and grade their students' work. The most common tools are ongoing assessment during lessons and oral tests and presentations (Figure 19). 85 % of the teachers agree that continuous assessment during lessons is an important assessment instrument, while 83 % think that the assessment of students' oral assignments and presentations is an important assessment method. In total, 62 % of the teachers think that written tests are important in their assessment work. The importance of written tests varies between subjects. These are seen as most important in maths (82 %), science studies (80 %) and social science subjects (79 %). Teachers of practical/aesthetic subjects differ significantly in that they attach less importance to such kinds of knowledge tests (34 %). In the national test

subjects, 66 % of the teachers think that national tests are important or rather important for their own assessment work. Of all the addressed teachers, 37 % think that students' self-assessment is important for the teacher's own assessment work, while 23 % think that peer assessment is an important part of the assessment of a student's knowledge achievement. It is also important to note that these forms of assessment seem to be most common for teachers teaching a range of subjects and for teachers of Swedish. 34 % of those teaching a range of subjects and 40 % of Swedish language teachers use peer assessment as an instrument for assessment. Further, 54 % of teachers teaching a range of subjects and 40 % of those teaching Swedish use students' self-assessment as an instrument for assessment. In practical/aesthetic subjects self-assessment is about as common as in other subjects (37 %), whereas the use of peer assessment is significantly less common (17 %).

According to this study, the impact of formative forms of assessment is significantly stronger than that of summative ones. The strongest impact of summative assessment in written test form is visible in mathematics (82 %) and science (80 %), whereas ongoing formative assessments are more important in Swedish and other languages, particularly in oral form, with 91 % for both subjects.

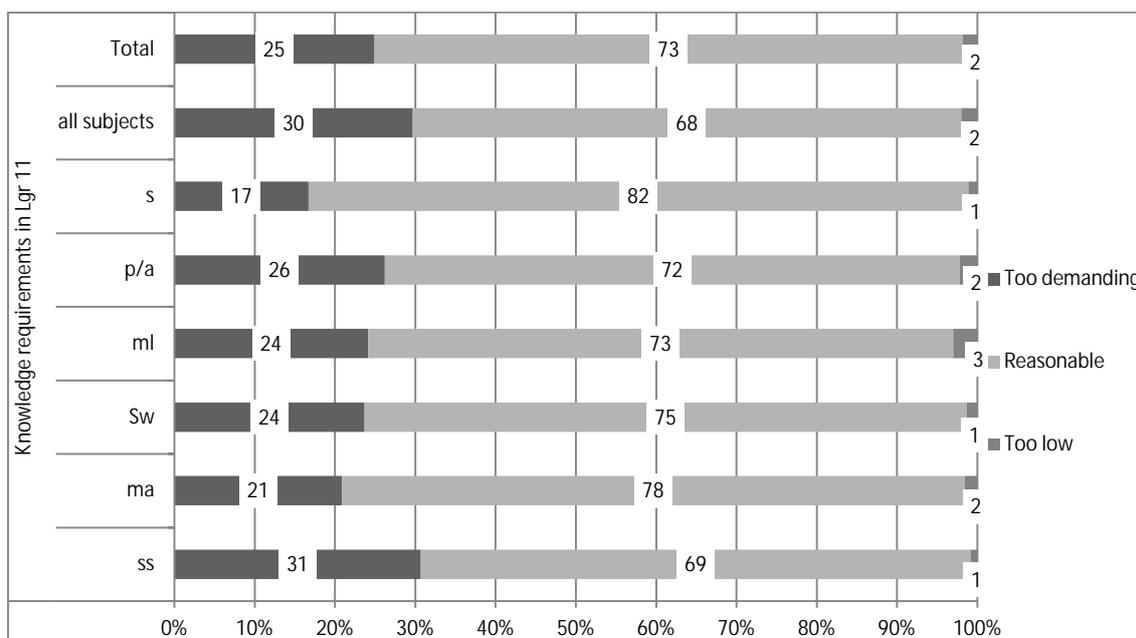


Figure 20. Teachers' views of knowledge requirements in Lgr 11 (Question 19, Appendix 2).

Most of the teachers, 73 % according to Figure 20, agree with the statement that the knowledge requirements in Lgr 11 are reasonable. Science teachers are most positive about knowledge requirements, at 82 %, while teachers of social studies are more reluctant; 69 % think that the knowledge requirements are reasonable and 31 % think that they are set too high.

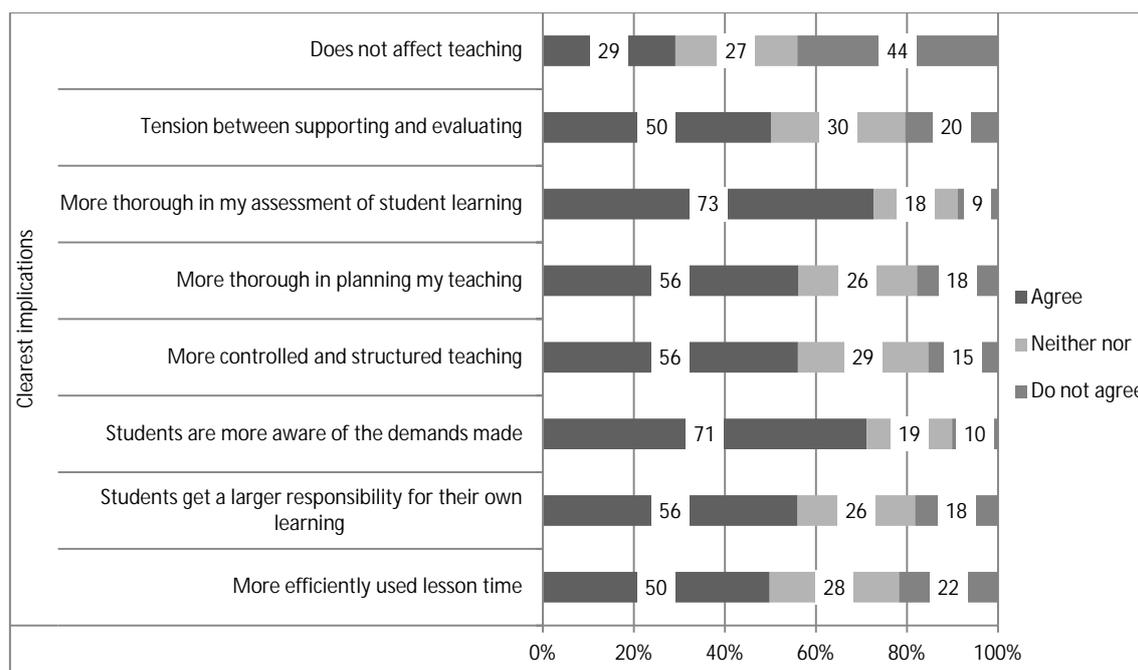


Figure 21. Impact of the introduction of grades in Year 6 according to the teachers (Question 33, Appendix 2).

It is clear that the introduction of grades in school Year 6 has had an impact on the teaching and learning at this level. Figure 21 shows that 73 % of the teachers believe that they now have to be more accurate in their evaluations of student learning. In addition, 71 % of the teachers think that the students have become more aware of the demands placed on them. 56 % of the teachers consider that students have been given greater responsibility for their own learning, and the same proportion of the teachers thinks that the teaching in Year 6 has become more controlled and structured and that they need to be more thorough in their planning. 50 % of the surveyed teachers in Year 6 experience a tension between supporting and evaluating students' learning.

**Comments from the informants' questionnaire:**

- *I mostly create the matrixes myself in my subject group and those matrixes are used, discussed, evaluated and continually reworked.*

- *We write our own local plans in which goals are made more concrete and clear to the pupils. I base my assessment and provide feedback on these, just like the pupils base their planning of their studies on these plans.*
- *Abilities and knowledge requirements are most important.*
- *Knowledge requirements are the most obvious part of the assessment, while content has a larger part in the planning.*
- *The knowledge requirements for the different grade levels are expressed in normative terms, which leave far too much room for interpretation for a fair grading.*
- *As the national test allows us to compare our students with the rest of Sweden we are very influenced by the result. Having said this, a student who does not perform as well in the national test as expected is not penalised. In general our students gain very favourable results and are accordingly upgraded. Until this point formative assessment is the rule from Year 7–9.*
- *I think continuous documentation, joint assessment together with the student and peer assessment are important for performing constructive assessment. I hope soon to have developed functional forms for these parts.*

#### **6.4.1 The hypothesis of assessment practices**

Soft governance with different guidelines, such as support material, has had a major impact on teacher assessment practices since Lgr 11. However, most important is the teacher's own experiences of assessment practices. The horizontal calibration between colleagues also plays a very important role. It is obvious that the impact of different assessment factors differs in different subjects/subject areas. The structures and principles in Lgr 11 seem to be received differently according to different assessment cultures and traditions in each subject/subject area. Knowledge requirements have had a big impact in all subject areas. Concurrently, teachers perceive that despite 'clear criteria' there is space for interpretation. The conclusion is that knowledge standards have practical consequences, although they are not completely unambiguous. An increased evaluative focus and a changing assessment practice are especially notable among teachers of Year 6.

## **7 Teacher enactment – the teacher interviews**

The teacher interview study followed from the results of the survey study. With the general purpose of exploring and explaining why these results occurred, by means of an in-depth qualitative study of how the teachers perceive the enacted curriculum, the results will be presented as identified divergences and convergences concerning the four hypotheses.

### **7.1 The hypothesis of reform**

- Given the fundamental differences of the present and past curricula, Lgr 11 cannot simply be considered as a modification of Lpo 94, but should be understood as a separate reform.

The interviewed teachers consider Lgr 11 to be different from Lpo 94 in terms of what and how the curriculum is read. Lgr 11 includes syllabi that mean that the teaching of subjects is given more emphasis while the school's fundamental values and tasks remain unchanged and only vaguely addressed. The teachers, who have been teaching since the 1990s, express the view that the general elements of the curriculum are largely unchanged. A teacher who has taught for six years says that she has read the syllabi so many times that she can recite them by heart. On the other hand, she has not read the curriculum's introductory chapter on fundamental values for the past two years and has problems discussing what the curriculum says about student participation. Several of the interviewed teachers quote verbatim from both the syllabus core content and the knowledge requirements, and all the teachers discuss them critically. In contrast, quite a few teachers express uncertainty about what is included in the curriculum's introductory chapter and how the different concepts of values and democracy should be interpreted in relation to student participation in Lgr 11. When the teachers reflect on student participation, the syllabus core content and knowledge requirements, a divergence between the different parts of the curriculum emerges based on different values and beliefs. The interviewed teachers express that the syllabi of the various subjects together with the national tests, which support both the interpretation of the core content and how students' knowledge should be assessed, are given great importance and serve as a framework for their teaching. In the interviews, a shift takes place in the teachers' reading and interpretation of the curriculum pertaining to the school's fundamental

values and tasks, which are perceived as central to Lpo 94, and students' specific subject abilities and knowledge, which are prominent in Lgr 11.

## **7.2 The hypothesis of teachers' professional practice**

- Lgr 11 governs and effects the way in which teachers perceive their professional tasks and how they carry out their work in practice.

The interviews reveal that term- and school year plans for the different subjects are common, but that there are differences between the subjects. For example, in social studies in Years 7-9 the core content is often divided into five week periods, so that the different content in each subject can be taught before the national tests in Year 9. This differs from for example Swedish and mathematics, where the interviewed teachers indicate more progressive plans and more in-depth learning in these subjects. The consequences of Lgr 11 seem to differ with the different subjects. Teachers of social studies talk about problems related to too much content, which limits the teacher's orchestration of the teaching and students' opportunities to participate. Teachers of Swedish and mathematics indicate that they can still influence the teaching design, but that Lgr 11 has a controlling function. The main control is local pedagogical plans, in which the knowledge requirements for the different subjects are laid out. Teachers of all subjects use matrixes of various kinds when planning their teaching and for the assessment of students' knowledge and abilities. According to the interviewed teachers, the fact that teaching is often defined in relation to knowledge assessment is a sign of increased control. At the same time, teachers think that this increased control also creates clarity, in that their teaching is legitimised on the basis of the curriculum and the teaching subject content is focused. On the other hand, the interviewed teachers express a conflict between school governance and professionalism. All the teachers are agreed that the need for equivalence also limits their autonomy. In short, the majority of the interviewed teachers accept the curriculum, even though it limits and controls their teaching more than Lpo 94. Those teachers who are critical are also positive about Lgr 11, but argue that the control of education has gone a step too far when poor performing students are stigmatised for their shortcomings and failures.

### 7.3 The hypothesis of teaching repertoires

- There is a certain standardisation in the teaching repertoire. From Lpo 94 to Lgr 11 there has been a displacement in the dominating teaching repertoire from 'the student's own work' to whole class instruction.

The interviews illustrate changes in the teaching repertoire, which can be described as a shift from 'the student's own work' towards teacher-led instruction. Most teachers say that they teach in the same way as before, which suggests that the teaching repertoire has not changed as a result of Lgr 11. However, a more instrumental view of teaching emerges in the interviews as a result of increased formal planning in local pedagogical plans. This has led to teaching being described as a template consisting of the core content, knowledge requirements and assessment stages. The interviewed teachers tell us that students often ask what they will be assessed on, and what they have to do to get a certain grade. The teachers perceive this approach as strategic and instrumental. According to them, parents also support this result-oriented approach by asking on which grounds their child has received a certain grade. The skills and abilities the students themselves want to learn and develop are thus not given the same priority. Teachers reinforce this approach by emphasising the national tests, what will be assessed and focusing on the knowledge areas that will be tested. When certain subjects are perceived as more central, and students are more focused on performance and assessment, the individual student's personal interests and knowledge development are placed in the background. Teaching methods that highlight students' self-regulation are often limited, both by a lack of time in relation to the syllabus and by students' strategic behaviour in relation to grades. There is thus a risk that students' personal interests and inquisitiveness will be ignored.

Although a shift can be observed from 'the student's own work' in the interviews with the teachers, it is not altogether clear that whole class instruction is the new dominant teaching repertoire. Teachers perceive that Lgr 11 contributes positively to education by its focus on the teaching content. Teachers (especially of Year 9) also say that it is good that students have a greater focus on grades, because many are motivated by grades. Knowledge requirements include abilities such as different levels of reasoning. The teachers describe that the qualitative differences in students' abilities are identifiable in relation to the content, and that these skills can be learned. Teachers,

particularly of Swedish and foreign languages, but also some mathematics social studies teachers value peer assessment. Here, the same teaching repertoire as that used in earlier periods is common and includes teacher-led activities mixed with individual and group work. A central role for the teachers is to encourage and challenge students by defining and exemplifying the abilities and skills that they are to learn and develop.

#### **7.4 The hypothesis of assessment practices**

- The importance of summative evaluation is increasing in Swedish schools, despite a strong discourse advocating formative assessment.

Although the knowledge requirements of Lgr 11 tend to favour formative assessment and include work with peer assessment and a multidisciplinary approach, the assessment provided in school should mainly be characterised as summative. According to the interviewed teachers, summative assessment increases in Swedish schools as a result of the national tests in Years 6 and 9, and of how the tests have been given a normative function in the grading process. In the previous curriculum, Lpo 94, national tests were held in Year 5 and had a formative function. This meant that knowledge gaps could be identified and teachers could work to redress them in Year 6, before students proceeded to Years 7–9. When national tests were instead conducted in Year 6, and tested knowledge acquired in Year 4–6, the tests had a summative function. The interviews reveal that teachers in Year 6 are predominantly critical of the grading process. This is primarily because in Year 6 grades are considered to have a stigmatising effect on low achieving students, and teachers generally think that the disadvantages with grades outweigh the positive effects. Teachers perceive the tests as guiding the grades and also how the core content and knowledge requirements for Year 4–6 should be interpreted.

The national tests in Year 9 also have a strong summative function in Lgr 11. Even though all the interviewed teachers think that the national tests are well-developed instruments for assessment in relation to the syllabus core content and knowledge requirements, they also consider the tests to control the grading system. Several teachers indicate that the grade obtained in the national test influences a student's final grade. Now that national tests are being conducted in more subjects than before, the summative assessment has gained in importance. The interviews indicate that the

national tests become normative ratings for classes and students. Several teachers are highly critical of being questioned about whether they change a student's grades in relation to the national test result. This means that the formative function the tests could have as well-developed instruments for the subjects tested is hindered.

## **8 The achieved curriculum**

The achieved curriculum refers to the outcomes of the curriculum process. The results of the evaluation study are not conclusive in this respect, because the evaluation only relates to the first three years of the implementation process. In analysing the recontextualisation of the reform in the nexus between the Official Recontextualising Field (ORF) and the Pedagogic Recontextualising Field (PRF), this section provides a synthesis of the three sub-studies that have been presented. The results of the quantitative teacher survey and the subsequent qualitative teacher interviews have been integrated in order to substantiate the empirical foundations for the interpretation and explanation of the results. The explanations concern the four hypotheses generated by the initial text analysis of the curriculum policy documents.

### **8.1 The general displacements between Lpo 94 and Lgr 11: the hypothesis of reform**

The first hypothesis concerns the actual changes in the construction of the curriculum and its implications for Lpo 94 and Lgr 11. The text analysis concludes that it is plausible that the two curricula differ and can even be considered as separate reforms, rather than regarding the latter as a modification of the former. However, the Lgr 11 reform was launched as an adjustment of Lpo 94, and as a policy solution to the problems created by Lpo 94. According to the curriculum makers, the general part of the curriculum and the underlying view (or philosophy of) knowledge were the same. However, the result of the curriculum text analysis of the focus of the two curricula on knowledge ('which knowledge is of most value?') clearly points to major inherent and underlying shifts in the discourse of curriculum. The result of the evaluation demonstrates a gradual relocation and reconfiguration of the discourse into the pedagogic recontextualising field.

The examination of the recontextualisation process shows that the Lgr 11 reform involves changing conceptions of education and is part of a major ideological shift in

Swedish education policymaking. Whereas the curriculum discourse of Lpo 94 was centred on knowledge conceptions that included the school's wider civic and cultivation mission, (e.g. Official Report 1992:94), the conception of the pre- investigation for the Lgr 11 reform (e.g. Official report 2007:28) was centred on qualification and the effectiveness of the education system. Using the typology of curriculum ideologies, there is a clear displacement from a humanist (emphasising personal development, creativity and self-actualisation) and in some respects social reconstructionist (emphasising sociocultural and political aspects of the curriculum) perspective in Lpo 94 towards an academic rationalism (emphasising the importance of the transmission of subject knowledge) and social efficiency (emphasising skills and competencies for social and economic productivity). This evaluation thus concludes that the curriculum reform of Lgr 11 involves fundamental changes in the underlying ideas and assumptions (curriculum philosophies), which can partly be explained by the dominant transnational curriculum policy discourses. This means that Lgr 11 cannot be considered as a mere modification of Lpo 94, but is instead a separate reform.

## **8.2 The teacher enactment of the new curriculum: the hypothesis of teachers' professional practices**

The hypothesis derived from the curriculum text analysis suggests that Lgr 11 governs and affects the ways in which teachers perceive their professional task and how they carry out their work in practice. This may sound obvious, but previous research and evaluation have demonstrated that the official curriculum does not predict how, and the extent to which the curriculum is implemented in practice.

The result of this evaluation shows that the launching of Lgr 11 is in line with the standards-based reform model, which presumes a unidirectional and linear application of reform intentions. This increased central control is double-edged. On the one hand, teachers perceive that increased control also creates clarity in their mission, in that their teaching is legitimised on the basis of the curriculum and the teaching subject content is focused (which was a major reason for the reform). On the other hand, the teachers express a conflict between governance and professionalism. In curriculum policy texts, Swedish teachers are mainly positioned (and perceived) as curriculum implementers and to a lesser extent as curriculum developers.

The results suggest that soft governing by means of guidelines, recommendations and support material has had a significant impact on teachers' curricula and teaching practices. The tightening up of different parts of the curriculum (for example to strengthen the alignment between the different subject content to be taught and the assessment criteria) has been part of a coordinative discourse about *how* to do the curriculum. But although the new Swedish curriculum represents recentralised governance, the majority of the teachers (61 %) refer to their own school as the main implementation actor. The horizontal discourse among teachers plays a major role in the enactment of the curriculum. However, this enactment is strongly focused on technical questions about the 'how' and 'when', and to a lesser degree on pedagogical questions about 'what' and 'why' in relation to the curriculum. The results can be interpreted and explained by a strengthened coordinative discourse in the reform process.

The results indicate that major curriculum work is done by teachers incorporating standards into their practices. This work is mainly framed within a coordinative discourse that focuses on 'doing it right'. Assessment plays a definitional and foregrounding role in the curriculum enactment among teachers after Lgr 11. Low rates of influence from local guidelines (44 %) for example indicate a pendulum shift from a decentralised curriculum evaluation towards strengthened external accountability in Lgr 11.

Teachers have participated in extensive implementation work, although the support for this has varied considerably among municipalities and schools. In smaller municipalities and metropolitan municipalities, teachers have received less support from their municipality and principals in their work with the new curriculum, although the teachers have also rated these activities as having low relevance. This evaluation concludes that the curriculum reform of Lgr 11 has contributed to a strengthened coordination between the different elements of the curriculum and the different levels and actors involved. In this sense it has had a major effect, although this has been unevenly spread between the different municipalities, subjects and teacher categories. The results also point to a restricted epistemic agency among teachers as an unintended side effect of the reform, which can be explained by the weakened communicative discourse of the 'what' and 'why' questions of the curriculum.

### **8.3 The curriculum and the teaching: the hypothesis of teaching repertoires**

The third hypothesis to emerge from the curriculum text analysis and be empirically examined in the teacher survey and the interviews with the teachers is that the curriculum displacements involve a certain standardisation of the teaching repertoire.

Due to the Swedish curriculum development there is reason to assume that a displacement has taken place in the dominating teaching repertoire from 'the student's own work' in Lpo 94, to whole class instruction in Lgr 11. A number of questions have been asked in order to investigate this assumption.

First, the results show that the Lgr 11 plays a major role for teachers in their work. Two thirds of the teachers regard Lgr 11 as very important or important for their perception of their mission as a teacher. Teachers attach most weight to Lgr 11 when considering which knowledge requirements should be achieved (96 %) and which knowledge content should be included in their teaching (81 %). There is evidence to suggest that the new curriculum has become increasingly operational and that this in turn could be explained by the shift towards a standards- and result-oriented curriculum.

According to this study, in the first three years of operation the new curriculum does not seem to have had any particular impact on the organisational framework of schools and on teaching in general (although there could be a 'lag effect' at play here). However, there are some interesting and notable exceptions, which we point to in this section. General changes can be detected at a content level. The new curriculum is mainly perceived by the teachers as a content reform towards a clearer and more prescribed curriculum, especially due to the new 'knowledge requirements' element. Surprisingly, many respondents regard the new knowledge requirements as reasonable (73 %), and there are no major differences between new and experienced teachers here. However, there are notable differences between teachers in the different subject categories. Only 17 % of the science teachers think the standards are too high, compared with 31 % of the social studies teachers and 26 % of the practical/aesthetical teachers, who also point to the problems of an overloaded core content to be taught. The latter suggests that standardisation has a different price in different subjects. In transnational policy, interdisciplinary collaboration in terms of projects or themes has been emphasised. In the text analysis of Lgr 11, this aspect seems to diverge in the recontextualisation between a transnational and national educational policy arena, in that here there seems to be hardly any evidence or suggestion of interdisciplinary

teaching. The teachers are therefore not quite sure what to believe. 44 % of the teachers thought that Lgr 11 did not make it more difficult or easier to teach in terms of themes or projects. 31 % of the informants think that Lgr 11 facilitates the organising of teaching in projects, while 25 % consider that Lgr 11 impedes these forms of interdisciplinary teaching. It could be that teachers still interpret Lgr 11 in a way that is more in accordance with Lpo94.

There are also major differences between the approaches of teachers of different subjects in Lgr 11. If we consider teaching methods and teaching forms, the results display a heterogeneous picture. Although 37 % of science teachers believe that whole class discussions are consistent with Lgr 11, only 16 % of the teachers of practical-aesthetic subjects agree. Most of the teachers consider that various forms of independently conducted written assignments are least in line with Lgr 11; only 9 % of the informants think that this approach is in line with Lgr 11. Although it is possible to observe a shift from 'the student's own work' in the teachers' responses and the interviews, it is not entirely clear that the new dominant teaching repertoire is whole class instruction, since answers differ to a relatively high degree between subjects.

In terms of the curriculum and the teaching repertoire, the general pattern and tendency is for a stronger classification and framing in Lgr 11. However, as has been accounted for, there are significant differences between the different subjects. While there seems to be some movement in practical/aesthetic subjects towards more student influence and active participation, there also appears to be a movement away from this in social studies. When it comes to teaching in Year 6, the results indicate major general effects in terms of changes in the teaching frames and forms, the introduction of grades and the standardisation of knowledge requirements, all of which affect the different subjects and teacher categories (i.e. 44 % of new and experienced teachers report changes in their teaching).

The general findings in this study illuminate the tendencies and effects inherent in a standardised teaching. The results indicate an increased instrumentality in the view of teaching as a result of formal planning and local pedagogical plans. This has led to teaching being described as based on a template consisting of the core content, knowledge requirements and assessment stages. The interviewed teachers report that students often ask what will be assessed and what they have to do for a certain grade

(‘climbing the matrixes’). This approach is perceived by teachers as a strategic and instrumental approach to learning. Although not intended, this suggests potential conflicts between the external governance and internal practices of Lgr 11. The evaluation thus concludes that the curriculum reform of Lgr 11 has led to an increased standardised teaching repertoire, although there are differences between the different school subjects. The changes can be interpreted and explained by a general shift in the underlying curriculum orientation of the new curriculum that emphasises the transmission of disciplinary knowledge (academic rationalism) and efficiency in its delivery.

#### **8.4 The changing assessment: the hypothesis of assessment practices**

The fourth and final hypothesis from the curriculum policy analysis is related to the changing practices of assessment. There are substantiated reasons to assume that the new curriculum reform of 2011 will accentuate the importance of summative evaluation in Swedish schools, despite a strong discourse advocating formative assessment. This thesis has been explored and examined empirically from a number of different aspects and variables.

The result of this study shows that teachers use several different assessment tools to assess and grade their students’ work. General guidance material on grades and marking as well as more specific guidance material have played a central role. Two thirds of the teachers interviewed argue that these materials have affected their assessment work to a large or very large extent. The factors that the teachers of Swedish consider to have had the most influence on their assessment practice are guidelines from the National Agency for Education (70 %), discussions with colleagues (86 %) and their own professional experience (88 %). The results indicate mixed forms of formative and summative assessment, the important role of national tests (66 % highly influencing) and the minor role of self/peer assessment (37/22 %).

The most important tools for assessment are teachers’ ongoing assessments during lessons (81 %) and oral tests and presentations (80 %). Also, summative forms of assessment have gained in importance. For example, it is notable that approximately half of the teachers in all the municipalities have worked with ready-made assessment tools, such as matrixes or other templates. However, the impact of different summative assessment forms differs in different subjects/subject areas, as the structures and

principles in Lgr 11 seem to be received differently according to the different assessment cultures and traditions in each subject/subject area.

The horizontal calibration between colleagues (in working units or subject units) plays a continually important role in constituting the assessment practices. Concurrently, teachers perceive that despite the 'clear criteria' formulated in the knowledge requirements there is space for interpretation. This is particularly the case among new teachers, where knowledge requirements, rather than purpose and central content, constitute the foundation for assessments. Teachers who have been teaching for more than 10 years place more emphasis on the purpose of the subject and central content than teachers who have been teaching for less than 10 years. Moreover, it should be noted that teachers with longer experience place rather less emphasis on knowledge requirements than younger teachers.

The results of this evaluation provide clear indications of an increased tendency towards a more evaluative focus and increased performance pressure on teachers' teaching in Year 6. 71 % of the teachers state that students are more aware of knowledge requirements, and 73 % say that there has been an increased evaluative focus in their teaching due to the introduction of grades in Year 6. For teachers of Year 6 there is clear evidence of an increased summative evaluation focus in their emerging assessment practices.

When it comes to teachers of Year 9, it can be concluded that in Lgr 11 national tests have a strong summative function. Even though teachers support the national tests as well-developed instruments for assessment in relation to the syllabus core content and knowledge requirements, the national tests also have a highly controlling function for the grading system and thus for teachers' assessment practices. As national tests are being conducted in more subjects than previously, the summative assessment has gained in importance. The teachers' responses and interviews indicate that the national tests are increasingly becoming normative ratings for classes and pupils rather than formative tools for enhancing their students' learning.

The overall results of this evaluation demonstrate a field of tension in the displacement between Lpo 94 and Lgr 11 with regard to educating for wider long-term civic and democratic goals in a policy landscape in which pressure for raising the students' achievements is steadily increasing. The evaluation demonstrates that the shift from a

competence model to a performativity model reinforces this field of tension. The conclusion is that introducing standards-based and results-driven curricula have far-reaching consequences for education at large, including assessment practices. It is therefore crucial to explore this relation further.

## **9 Conclusions**

This theory-based evaluation of Lgr 11 was set up in order to answer some initial yet crucial questions about the formation and enactment of the new curriculum and to provide results about its construction and effects on teaching and assessment practices. In this final section we draw some general conclusions about what the evaluation has shown.

The curriculum reform was launched as a modification of the former curriculum, Lpo 94. This assumption was based on a number of premises, including the curriculum as a closed system. This technical and rationalistic view of curriculum reforms is problematic in a number of ways, as the evaluation has demonstrated. The multiplication of regulatory actors and activities and constellations in the education policy sector, at both the national and transnational level, has radically challenged the premises for curriculum-making.

Along with the approach of a theory-based evaluation of curricula reforms, the pedagogical process has to be understood both from its external and internal prerequisites.

The process of the curriculum (national as well as local) is related to the specific context and conditions. Accordingly, the enactment of the curriculum is related to the different processes of implementation that for example characterise different municipalities and schools or teacher categories. While the reform of Lgr 11 has been an attempt to close the gap between the official recontextualising field (ORF) and the pedagogic recontextualising field (PRF) and to tighten the alignment of the curriculum elements of selection, organisation and assessment (curriculum coherence), the results of this evaluation show a significant contextual variation among municipalities, schools and teacher categories. The evaluation concludes that the curriculum reform must be considered in relation to the changing conditions for teachers' professional practices. The role of the teachers in curriculum-making is crucial and needs to be addressed and scrutinised further.

Additionally, the results of this evaluation demonstrate a clear tension between ‘distinct goals and knowledge requirements’ (Official Report 2007:28) formulated in policy and ‘the doing’ of curriculum in terms of teachers’ deliberations on and judgments of their classroom work. Although unintentional, the increasingly prescribed curriculum, with its emphasis on central content and specified knowledge requirements, contributes to formalism and instrumentalism when applied in concrete learning activities. In relation to the rise of transnational standards-based performance systems, the results point to a decreasing space for communicative discourses and epistemic agency where teachers can act as co-constructors of curricula and take responsibility for their teaching decisions. Instead, the teacher’s role as an executor of the official policy on curriculum discourse dominates teachers’ actions. This is a problematic result of teachers’ enactment of the curriculum if it is related to teachers’ professional practices. The results indicate a restricted professional and epistemic agency that emphasises the ‘how’ aspect of teaching and is grounded in predefined assessment criteria.

As a result, teachers’ communications and judgements are directed towards their own colleagues and local school organisation, thereby delimiting the wider professional and communicative discourse, the transparency of the arguments and the potential for institutional change. The result confirms that teachers’ space for acting as autonomous professional and moral agents in public deliberation is narrowed due to the increasing pressure of transnational standardisation and accountability. The tendencies of prevented professionalism and development of professional judgement within communities of professional learning in regulated systems of performance need to be addressed in further studies.

The results of this evaluation point to different implicit versions of teaching, i.e. a narrowed or knowledge downgraded curriculum idea versus a wide, inclusive and future oriented view of teachers’ curricula work. While standards-based curriculum reforms focus on teaching as transmission and education as a process of instructing children to absorb, replicate and apply basic information and skills (academic rationalism), several dilemmas need to be addressed. One central curriculum controversy in the case of Lgr 11 is the implicitly promoted conception of teaching as a technique that is relatively neutral in its stance on society, knowledge and the child. The important issue is instead the efficiency of teaching, regardless of values, which means that imperatives like

structure, the economic use of time and space, graduated tasks and assessment take precedence over democracy, autonomy and development.

### **9.1 Some final remarks on curriculum research and evaluation**

An overall aim with this evaluation project has been to integrate a transnational aspect of curriculum discourse formation into the field of curriculum theory more generally and the field of education reform evaluation more specifically. To this end, we have found the concept of recontextualisation as elaborated by Bernstein (2000) valuable. The discourse analytical approach to curriculum-making also facilitated the scrutinisation of the flow and travel of curriculum ideas between different transnational, national and local contexts and arenas. Further, the theories of Bernstein were complemented by the theory of discursive institutionalism in order to conceptualise the agency and processes of institutional enactment when evaluating the implementation effects in different contexts. Although not elaborated on to any great extent in this report, we hope that it will contribute to further theoretical and methodological developments in the field of curriculum research and theory.

A general conclusion concerning the development of theory-based evaluation methodology deriving from this evaluation project is that even though it does not entirely identify the causal effects of the studied reform it is nevertheless an appropriate approach for evaluating complex curricula reforms. This is especially true in the first problem-mapping phase. With its critical and contextual explanations it can contribute to clarifying what the important conditions for change – both external and internal – are. By connecting the different arenas and actors involved in curriculum-making and maintaining the complexity of their interactions, it can be an important supplement to the dominant and more traditional implementation approach, in that it tries to keep the dynamics of educational reform open.

In this evaluation we found good reason to employ a mixed methods approach. Due to the relatively high complexity of the research questions addressed, one single method would not have provided enough in-depth analysis or answers to the questions. The three methods could together highlight different aspects of the Lgr 11 reform and contribute to an understanding of the intentions, implementation processes and effects of the reform. At least within the Nordic field of evaluation of educational reforms, the approach is innovative. The advantage is that it allowed for divergent patterns of results

that could then be compared and contrasted with different methods and thus allow a more complex picture of the results to be displayed. Although it is crucial to conduct and relate further research and evaluations on the Lgr 11 reform in order to substantiate the explanations of the outcomes, the explanatory sequential design has provided an important knowledge base for the understanding and explanation of the reform. In further research it will be important for both the local arena for curriculum-making (the municipality) and the classroom arena (classroom communication) to be incorporated into the framework. A multi-level and long-term approach is vital for understanding the many aspects of the curriculum reform process and its intended and unintended outcomes.

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## Appendix 1.

### **Transnational policy texts included in the analysis of transnational education policies**

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## Appendix 2. The teacher questionnaire

[Efternamn], [Förnamn]  
[Adress]  
[Postnummer] [Stad]

2013-10-01

Till Lärare som undervisar i Åk 6 och/eller Åk 9 i de kommuner som ingår i projektet



”Utvärdering av *Läroplanen Lgr 11*”

### Projektet ”Utvärdering av *Läroplanen Lgr 11*” höstterminen 2013

Projektet ”Utvärdering av *Läroplanen Lgr11*” pågår under 2013 – 2014 och omfattar sammanlagt tjugotvå kommuner i Sverige. Projektet finansieras av Institutet för arbetsmarknads- och utbildningspolitisk utvärdering (IFAU).

#### Projektets syfte

Det övergripande syftet är att bidra till ny kunskap om hur den senaste läroplansreformen påverkar skolans verksamhet. I projektet undersöks på vilka olika sätt lärare uppfattar att läroplanen påverkar och styr den konkreta undervisningen och arbetet med bedömning av elevers kunskap.

Projektet rapporteras som ett totalresultat för samtliga kommuner; dessutom ges varje kommun en egen återkoppling

## Projektets genomförande

Enkätundersökningen vänder sig till samtliga lärare som under hösten 2013 undervisar i årskurs 6 och 9.

I början av 2014 kompletteras enkätundersökningen med ett antal intervjuer med lärare som har besvarat enkäten. Vi kommer alltså att återkomma till några av er under våren 2014 för att be att få göra en intervju.

Enkäten distribueras via mejl till varje enskild lärare och besvaras som webbenkät. Enkäten besvaras som regel på arbetstid och beräknas ta ca 20-30 minuter att besvara. För att undersökningen ska ge ett pålitligt resultat är det viktigt att så många som möjligt besvarar enkäten! Webbenkäten ligger öppen och kan besvaras från den **1 oktober** till den **16 oktober**.

## Etiska regler

Undersökningen är forskningsbaserad och omfattas av forskningens etiska principer: att alla uppgifter ska behandlas konfidentiellt, att uppgifterna endast får användas i forskningssyfte och att deltagande i forskningsundersökningar vilar på frivillighet.

Ansvarig för utvärderingsprojektet är Ninni Wahlström, professor i pedagogik, Örebro universitet, e-mail: [ninni.wahlstrom@oru.se](mailto:ninni.wahlstrom@oru.se). Tel: 070/ 541 41 20, i samarbete med docent Daniel Sundberg, Linnéuniversitetet (Växjö/Kalmar), e-mail: [daniel.sundberg@lnu.se](mailto:daniel.sundberg@lnu.se)

Med förhoppning om ett gott samarbete!

*Ninni Wahlström*

*Daniel Sundberg*

Örebro universitet

Linnéuniversitetet

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## Så här fyller du i pappersenkäten

Nedan ser du hur du markerar ett svarsalternativ, och hur du avmarkerar ett redan gjort val.

Korrekt markerat svarsalternativ

Inkorrekt markerat svarsalternativ, krysset ska vara mitt i rutan

Inkorrekt markerat svarsalternativ, krysset är alltför kraftigt

Ångrat val, svarsalternativet räknas inte som markerat



## 1. BAKGRUND

### Jag undervisar under hösten 2013:

- I årskurs 6
- I årskurs 9
- Både i åk 6 och 9
- Jag undervisar varken år 6 eller år 9 och kommer därför inte att besvara fler frågor

### 3. Markera med högst ett kryss det alternativ som stämmer bäst. Jag undervisar huvudsakligen i följande ämne eller ämnen under hösten 2013:

- Samhällsvetenskapliga ämnen
- Matematik
- Svenska
- Språk
- Praktiskt/estetiska ämnen
- Naturvetenskapliga ämnen
- I stort sett alla ämnen

### 4. Jag har lärarexamen

- Ja
- Nej

## 5. IMPLEMENTERINGEN AV LÄROPLANEN LGR 11

### Vilka av följande aktiviteter har du deltagit i för att sätta dig in i att undervisa enligt den senaste läroplanen Lgr 11? Markera med kryss de olika alternativ som stämmer med ditt deltagande

- Skolverkets hemsida, publikationer och informationsfilmer
- Informationsmöte inom kommunen med inbjudna föreläsare
- Informationsmöte på skolan med rektor/utvecklingsledare etc.
- Diskussioner i arbetslag/ämneslag
- På egen hand studerat och satt mig in i den nya läroplanen
- Diskuterat den nya läroplanen med mina närmaste kollegor
- Deltagit i organiserade kompetensutvecklingsaktiviteter utifrån Lgr11
- Om annat, specificera



**6. Vilken eller vilka av de aktiviteter som du angett ovan bedömer du som mest relevant för att ge dig möjligheter att undervisa enligt den senaste läroplanen Lgr 11. Markera med högst 3 kryss nedan.**

- Skolverkets hemsida, publikationer och informationsfilmer
- Informationsmöte inom kommunen med inbjudna föreläsare
- Informationsmöte på skolan med rektor/utvecklingsledare etc.
- Diskussioner i arbetslag/ämneslag
- På egen hand studerat och satt mig in i den nya läroplanen
- Diskuterat den nya läroplanen med mina närmaste kollegor
- Deltagit i organiserade kompetensutvecklingsaktiviteter utifrån Lgr 11
- Om annat, specificera

**7. Hur mycket tid bedömer du att du hittills har erbjudits kompetensutveckling som har haft syftet att du ska kunna sätta dig in i att undervisa enligt läroplanen Lgr 11?**

- 1-2 dagar
- 3-5 dagar
- 6 dagar eller mer

**8. I vilken fas anser du att ni befinner er vad gäller implementeringen av Lgr 11? Markera med ett kryss det alternativ som stämmer bäst med din uppfattning**

- Vi arbetar fullt ut i enlighet med Lgr 11
- Vi arbetar i ganska hög grad i enlighet med Lgr 11
- Vi arbetar ännu i ganska liten grad i enlighet med Lgr 11
- Vi arbetar inte alls i enlighet med Lgr 11 än

**9. Med "vi" i svaret ovan menar jag i första hand**

- Vi i kommunen
- Vi på min skola
- Vi i mitt arbetslag
- Vi i min ämnesgrupp



**10. Hur bedömer du dina egna behov av kompetensutveckling inom nedanstående områden med anledning av den senaste läroplansreformen Lgr 11?**

	Mycket stort behov			Mycket litet behov		
Ämneskunskap i mina huvudämnen	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Bedömning av elevers kunskapsutveckling	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Betygsättning	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Ämnesdidaktik i mina huvudämnen	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Kunskap om digitala medier som surfplattor, mobilappar etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Undervisning av elever i behov av särskilt stöd	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Dokumentation av elevers kunskapsutveckling	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Undervisning i mångkulturella klassrum	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Att föra samtal med elever om deras kunskapsutveckling	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Kunskap om olika undervisningsformer, metoder och strategier	<input type="checkbox"/>					



## 11. LÄROPLANEN SOM RAM FÖR SKOLANS VERKSAMHET

	Mycket viktig				Inte alls viktig
Hur viktig är läroplanen Lgr 11 för din uppfattning om ditt uppdrag som lärare?	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Hur viktig är läroplanen Lgr 11 för din uppfattning om vilket kunskapsinnehåll som ska ingå i den undervisning som du ansvarar för?	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Hur viktig är läroplanen för din uppfattning om vilka kunskaper som eleverna ska ha tillägnat sig i ett visst ämne och årskurs?	<input type="checkbox"/>				

## 12. I vilken grad anser du att läroplanen Lgr 11 underlättar för ämnesövergripande samarbete i form av projekt eller teman?

- Underlättar mycket
- 
- 
- 
- Underlättar inte alls

## 13. Hur ser du på läromedlens roll i relation till kursplanerna i Lgr 11? Markera i vilken grad som läromedlen har fått en viktigare roll när läroplanen nu också anger ett visst

- Läromedlen har blivit viktigare
- 
- 
- 
- Läromedlens roll påverkas inte alls av Lgr 11



## 14. BEDÖMNING OCH BETYGSSÄTTNING

**I vilken grad påverkar följande faktorer ditt sätt att arbeta med bedömning av elevernas kunskapsutveckling och betygssättning?**

	Påverkar i hög grad				Påverkar inte alls
Skolverkets kommentarsmaterial för betyg och bedömning	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Skolverkets kommentarsmaterial till kursplaner i ämnet	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Skolverkets allmänna råd för planering och genomförande av undervisning	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Diskussioner med kollegor	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Kompetensutveckling som jag deltagit i	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Färdiga material i form av t.ex. matriser/rutiner/bedömningsnivåer som finns att tillgå på skolan	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Riktlinjer för bedömning som tagits fram på min skola/i min kommun	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Den erfarenhet av bedömning som jag utvecklat i min yrkesroll	<input type="checkbox"/>				



**15. När du tänker på ditt konkreta arbete med att du ska sätta betyg i slutet av höstterminen 2013 och i slutet av våren 2014 - vilken betydelse får då kursplanens olika delar?**

	Instämmer helt			Instämmer inte alls		
Jag lägger stor vikt vid att tolka ämnets syfte när jag bedömer elevers kunskapsutveckling och sätter betyg	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Jag lägger stor vikt vid att tolka ämnets innehåll när jag bedömer elevers kunskapsutveckling och sätter betyg	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Jag lägger stor vikt vid att tolka ämnets kunskapskrav när jag bedömer elevers kunskapsutveckling och sätter betyg	<input type="checkbox"/>					

**16. Hur ser du på ditt och dina kollegors tolkningsutrymme i relation till kursplanernas kunskapskrav i olika ämnen?**

	Instämmer helt			Instämmer inte alls		
Jag tycker det finns ett stort stort tolkningsutrymme för kunskapskraven i de olika ämnena som jag undervisar och sätter betyg i	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Jag tycker att kunskapskraven i kursplanerna är väldigt entydiga och i stort sett bara går att tolka på ett sätt	<input type="checkbox"/>					



**17. Efter införandet av läroplanen Lgr 11: Hur bedömer du vanligen dina elevers kunskaper i de ämnen som du betraktar som dina huvudämnen?**

	Mycket viktig bedömning-sgrund				Helt oviktig bedömning-sgrund	
Fortlöpande under lektionstid	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Utifrån dokumentation som jag gör efter lektionen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Utifrån elevers muntliga uppgifter och redovisningar	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Utifrån min och elevens gemensamma bedömning	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Utifrån skriftliga kunskapsprov	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Utifrån skriftliga inlämningsuppgifter	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Med hjälp av elevers självbedömning	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Med hjälp av kamratbedömning	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Utifrån nationella prov (om de förekommer i ämnet)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**18. I vilken grad stämmer följande påståenden in på din uppfattning när det gäller kunskapskravens funktion i Lgr 11?**

	Instämmer helt				Instämmer inte alls	
Jag tycker att kunskapskraven/betygskraven i Lgr 11 fungerar som tydliga mål för elevens lärande	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Jag tycker att kunskapskraven/betygskraven i Lgr 11 fungerar som tydliga mål för min bedömning och betygssättning	<input type="checkbox"/>					

**19. Jag uppfattar att kunskapskraven i Lgr 11 generellt sett är**

För höga    Rimliga    För låga

**20. Hur ser du på betydelsen av läroplanens utformning och innehåll för elevernas resultat?**

	Instämmer helt			Instämmer inte alls		
Läroplanens (Lgr 11) struktur och innehåll kommer att bidra till att förbättra resultaten för mina elever	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Läroplanens (Lgr 11) struktur och innehåll kommer att bidra till att förbättra resultaten för svenska elever i stort	<input type="checkbox"/>					

**21. Hur skulle du vilja beskriva de bedömningsformer som du använder sedan Lgr 11 infördes? Markera med ett kryss.**

- Huvudsakligen som summativa i form av, betyg, skriftliga resultat och andra former av lägesbedömningar av elevers prestationer
- Huvudsakliga som formativa i form av, personlig återkoppling till eleven angående elevens fortsatta arbete för att nå kunskapskraven
- Till ungefär lika delar formativa och summativa bedömningsformer

**22. UTVÄRDERING AV DEN EGNA UNDERVISNINGEN**

**Vilka av följande faktorer anser du som lärare utgör de viktigaste instrumenten för utvärdering av din egna undervisning?**

	Instämmer helt			Instämmer inte alls		
Skriftliga enkäter som jag ber mina elever besvara	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Utvecklingssamtal med enskild enskild elev och vårdnadshavare	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Elevernas betygsresultat	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Återkoppling från skolledningen	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Egna reflektioner efter genomförda undervisningsmoment	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Utbyte och samtal med kollegor	<input type="checkbox"/>					

### 23. UNDERVISNINGSFORMER

Markera i vilken grad som du anser att följande undervisningsformer står i överensstämmelse med de prioriteringar som görs i Lgr 11 angående undervisningens utformning. Rangordna de fem alternativen i en skala från 1 till 6 där värdet 1 utgör det högsta värdet.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Enskilt arbete	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Gemensamma klassrumsdiskussioner	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Arbete i par eller i grupp	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Arbete med tema eller projekt	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Olika former av självständigt utförda inlämningsuppgifter	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Genomgång i helklass	<input type="checkbox"/>					

24. Markera i vilken grad som du anser att följande undervisningsformer står i överensstämmelse med din egen kunskapssyn och egen undervisningspraktik. Rangordna de olika alternativen i skala från 1 till 6 där värdet 1 utgör det högsta värdet.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Enskilt arbete	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Gemensamma klassrumsdiskussioner	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Arbete i par eller i grupp	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Arbete med tema eller projekt	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Olika former av självständigt utförda inlämningsuppgifter	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Genomgång i helklass	<input type="checkbox"/>					



## 25. UNDERVISNINGENS INNEHÅLL

Ta ställning till följande påståenden angående hur du väljer innehåll för din undervisning.

	Instämmer helt			Instämmer inte alls		
Jag anser att läroplanen Lgr 11 ger mig som lärare stora möjligheter att påverka undervisningens innehåll	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Jag anser att läroplanens Lgr 11 till stora delar styr urvalet av innehåll i min undervisning	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Jag anser att läroplanens Lgr 11 ger mina elever stora möjligheter att påverka undervisningens innehåll	<input type="checkbox"/>					

## 26.

	Instämmer helt			Instämmer inte alls		
Som lärare betraktar jag i första hand elevernas texter och andra arbeten som ett underlag för bedömning	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Som lärare betraktar jag i första hand elevernas texter och andra arbeten som ett tillfälligt uttryck för elevens kunskapsprocess	<input type="checkbox"/>					



## 27. UNDERVISNINGENS ORGANISERING

### Undervisningens fysiska plats

	Instämmer helt				Instämmer inte alls	
Som lärare föredrar jag att ha mina elever i ett och samma klassrum så att jag har kontroll över de aktiviteter som pågår	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Som lärare tycker jag att det är viktigt att mina elever har möjligheter att använda bibliotek, datasal, grupprum etc. under lektionerna	<input type="checkbox"/>					

### 28. I klassrummet/klassrummen som jag undervisar i är bord/bänkar oftast möblerade så att eleverna sitter....

- Två och två
- I u-form med borden utmed klassrummets tre väggar
- I sammanhållna rader tvärs över klassrummet
- En och en
- I mindre grupperingar med ca 3-6 elever i varje grupp

### 29. I min undervisning omfattar ett genomsnittligt undervisningspass ('lektion'):

- 30-45 min
- 45-60 min
- 60-90 min
- 90min -



### 30. Tidsfokus i undervisningen

Ta ställning till följande påståenden angående ditt tidsfokus i undervisningen.

	Instämmer helt				Instämmer inte alls			
Som lärare har jag till största del mitt tidsfokus riktat framåt, mot vad eleverna ska kunna, till exempel till nästa prov/utvecklingssamtal/nationella prov/betygsättning etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>							
Som lärare har jag till största delen mitt tidsfokus riktat på vad som händer i undervisningen här och nu på just den här lektionen	<input type="checkbox"/>							

### 31. Fördelningen av tid

Hur fördelar du vanligen din tid i relation till varje enskilt undervisningstillfälle om du tänker dig en 'genomsnittslektion'? Rangordna följande sex påståenden i den ordning som passar bäst där värdet 1 står för bäst överensstämmelse och värdet 6 det som stämmer sämst.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Jag lägger den största delen av min tid på förberedelse och planering inför lektionen	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Jag lägger den största delen av min tid på efterarbete i form av bearbetning/rättning av elevarbeten	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Jag lägger den största delen av min tid på efterarbete i form av dokumentation av elevers insatser och prestationer under lektionen	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Jag lägger den största delen av min tid efter lektionen på att reflektera över hur jag genomförde min undervisning	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Jag lägger ungefär lika mycket tid på för- som efterarbete av en lektion	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Jag lägger primärt inte min tid på för- och efterarbete till enskilda lektioner, utan på faktiskt genomförande av undervisningen	<input type="checkbox"/>					

**32. Hur har tidsanvändningen förändrats efter implementeringen av Lgr 11? Markera det alternativ som stämmer bäst för dig.**

- Tidsanvändningen har inte förändrats nämnvärt
- Tidsanvändningen har förändrats så att jag nu ägnar mer tid åt undervisning
- Tidsanvändningen har förändrats så att jag nu ägnar mer tid åt för- och efterarbete
- Tidsanvändningen har förändrats så att jag nu har större frihet att disponera tiden själv

### 33. Konsekvenser av betyg i åk 6

Vilka blir enligt din uppfattning de tydligaste konsekvenserna för undervisningen i årskurs 6 sedan betygssättning införts för åk 6?

	Instämmer helt				Instämmer inte alls	
Undervisningen har blivit mer fokuserad på så sätt att lektionstiden används mer effektivt	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Eleverna får ett ökat eget ansvar för sitt eget lärande	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Eleverna är mera medvetna om vilka krav som ställs på dem	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Undervisningen har blivit mer styrd och strukturerad	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Som lärare måste jag nu vara mer noga med min planering av undervisningen	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Som lärare måste jag nu vara mer noga med min utvärdering av elevernas lärande	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Som lärare upplever jag en spänning mellan att stödja elevens lärande och utvärdera elevens lärande	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Betygssättningen påverkar inte mitt sätt att planera och genomföra undervisningen	<input type="checkbox"/>					

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