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The *MJES* is a biannual refereed international journal with a regional focus. It features educational research carried out in Mediterranean countries, as well as educational studies related to the diaspora of Mediterranean people world-wide. The journal offers a forum for theoretical debate, historical and comparative studies, research and project reports, thus facilitating dialogue in a region which has vigorous and varied educational traditions. There is a strong international dimension to this dialogue, given the profile of the Mediterranean in the configuration of the new world order, and the presence of Mediterranean peoples in Europe, North America and elsewhere. The *MJES* is of interest to scholars, researchers and practitioners in the following fields: comparative education, foundation disciplines in education, education policy analysis, Mediterranean studies, cultural and post-colonial studies, Southern European and area studies, intercultural education, peace education, and migrant studies.

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MODERN LANGUAGES AND INTERCULTURALITY IN THE PRIMARY SECTOR IN ENGLAND, GREECE, ITALY AND SPAIN

FERNANDO CEREZAL

Abstract – *This article deals with the situation, concerns and issues related to modern language teaching and learning at primary school in three Mediterranean countries (Greece, Italy and Spain) and England. It is the initial part of the work carried out in the course of a European Cooperation Project, Oxymoron (LIN-GUA Programme). Attention is given to the question of the optimal age for learning and acquiring languages, and to the education reforms which have been undertaken in each of those Mediterranean countries in relation to early modern language teaching and learning (EMLTL) and interculturality. Some conclusions and recommendations are drawn from this comparative study.*

Introduction

*I*n the last years modern language teaching and learning at an early age has become more and more common in Europe in general, and in the European Union nearly all the countries are introducing them into the education of primary school children aged 8 to 11. This is mainly due to several factors related to the political needs of European unity (the official national languages must be used on a level of equality), to socio-cultural needs stemming from a growing mobility of people all around Europe, and finally to economic factors which very much influence the use of modern European languages in a growing market. This interest in early modern language teaching and learning (EMLTL) is also increasing throughout the world. A fact to be considered is that bilingualism is the norm and monolingualism is the exception for some 60-70% of the world population, as they have acquired two or more languages informally in naturalistic settings such as the family, the community, and the religious group (Johnstone 1994:4). Siguán goes even further when he says that nowadays a monolingual person only knows English – as mother tongue – and the rest of the people are bilinguals (Siguán 1996:10).

However, though there is a clear trend towards modern languages teaching and learning, the approach does not always provide learners with the preparation for a way of thinking and behaving which takes into account the foreign as something enriching; on the contrary, linguistic competence is exclusively encouraged without much attention to interculturality.

The optimal age for modern language learning

In the history of modern language teaching and learning there is a recurrent issue – the complex question of the optimal age for second and foreign language learning. Stern suggests that there must be a specification of the learning characteristics and needs of each age group before attempting to answer the optimal age question, and concludes (1983:367):

> *"In certain respects pre-school children, young school children, older child learners, adolescents, and adults differ psychologically in their approach to second language learning. What these differences in developmental stages are is at present not fully understood. But it appears that young children respond more readily and intuitively to language 'acquisition' in social and communicative situations, while older learners can learn languages more readily by means of cognitive and academic approaches."*

There is a need, therefore, to go further than the psychological aspects and consider educational, political and philosophical ones. Then, *"it may be desirable to introduce younger children to second languages even though it is not necessarily psychologically optimal"* (Stern 1983:367). And it is here where we can find a clearer base for EMLTL, as it can be considered a privileged way of presenting intercultural issues at an age when children are more permeable to other cultures and ways of life. EMLTL may be, at the very least, a way of fostering linguistic and cultural awareness, i.e. comparing the mother tongue and the other language(s) as a means of decoding cultural and linguistic similarities and differences (Poole 1995).

Consequently, despite the fact that there is no conclusive research on the subject, one could argue that there are important reasons and some advantages for starting modern languages teaching and learning at early stages. Following Stern (1983), these can be summarised in the following manner:

- Early starters have a diminishing initial superiority in speaking and listening, but maintain a later superiority in listening.
- Young children will usually be superior in terms of ultimate attainment (*younger-is-better* in the long run).
- Early school children are more able to acquire a second language.
- Young children respond more readily and intuitively to language 'acquisition' in social and communicative situations.
- Children are more likely to develop interpersonal communicative skills.
- Young pupils have a more social and emotional permeability to a new language and culture influence, therefore they can develop a better intercultural attitude.

Linguistic and cultural variety in the European Union

The European Communities have been promoting some pilot-projects aimed at linguistically and culturally heterogeneous classes with immigrant children since the mid-seventies. This experience is reflected in the guidelines of an important document, issued on the 25th July 1977, which states the rights of the migrants of member states to receive education in their own home language. This directive questioned monolingual schools, and it signalled an innovation away from assimilationist ideas. The European Union also introduced the expression and concept of *intercultural education*, although in the beginning its meaning was reduced to the way of dealing with migrants in schools and it was not extended to the education of pupils in cultural and linguistic diversity, independently of the presence of migrant children.

In spite of these EU directives, the member states are not only largely reluctant to implement changes, but there even is a *national turn* in some countries towards hostility against foreigners and a neo-nationalism which endangers the value of those directives. Some of the effects on language policy are a tendency to consider national languages as the centre of the national identity[1], as well as to produce language-purifying legislation, and a shift towards a nationally and culturally unifying education, instead of an enrichment coming from cultural and linguistic diversity. All this does not match the value of cultural variety and multilingualism, especially that of minorities, which the EU supposedly supports.

The EU situation can be summarised in the following four theses (Allemann-Ghionda 1995:14):

1. National educational systems agree on a policy in favour of linguistic and cultural variety, yet they are reluctant to implement it.
2. If there is implementation, then there is a gap: here, intercultural education as pedagogy of 'the poor', 'the migrant children'; there, international, European, bilingual, multilingual education for 'the rich', 'the natives'.
3. A 'national turn' appears to be taking place in some countries in Western Europe. This might cause a backlash in the field of the officially stated promotion of linguistic and cultural variety in and through education.
4. Supranational authorities try to pursue a European policy of cultural variety, but each nation-state develops its own strategies.

Moreover, the declarations of nearly all the countries analysed refer vaguely to some kind of interculturality, and consequently the main focus of their reforms is on linguistic competence. The communicative competence is then restricted to a traditional notion which limits teaching and learning to linguistic aspects, subordinating the intercultural learning, as Knapp (quoted in Vogel et al. 1996) states:

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"Il ne s'agit pas de la capacité à prendre parfaitement un rôle en utilisant des moyens rhétoriques propres à la langue étrangère tel que le ferait une personne ayant cette langue comme langue maternelle, mais justement de la capacité à reconnaître et surmonter les déficits culturels lors de l'accomplissement de l'interaction. C'est pourquoi la capacité de communication interculturelle est comparable à la mission d'un ethnographe qui veut comprendre une culture étrangère en y prenant part lors de ses observations."

In the kind of world we are living today (migrations, lack of resources and their unjust distribution, and so on), there is a tendency towards parochialism, short-sightedness, lack of tolerance towards foreigners and the foreign, and even hostility is increasing in the last years. There must be a shift towards intercultural education as a means of building more far-sighted pupils who are able not only to understand and tolerate *others*, but to widen their own values and their vision of the world through reflexivity. Linguistic and cultural knowledge can be therefore a privileged means for fulfilling this aim.

EMLTL in England, Greece, Italy and Spain

The comparison of the situation in several European countries may be a valuable element if we want to develop EMLTL, although the conditions in the countries analysed are rather different. The aims of this section, therefore, are mainly three:

- to indicate and compare the conditions of early learning in these countries;
- to review the initial and in-service teacher training and education, and
- to recognise the intercultural aspects of EMLTL.

This analysis is based on the description and analyses presented by the different national partners of *Oxymoron*[2] (see bibliography).

The situation in England, Wales and Scotland

There is an increasing interest at the moment in Great Britain in the introduction of foreign languages at the primary school, though in the 60s the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) presented an influential study of the early learning of French at the age of 8 and concluded that 'younger is not necessarily better'. The new trend in the British education system is partly a result of EMLTL being implemented all over Europe.

The National Curriculum Modern Foreign Languages Report published in 1990 by the Department of Education and Science (DES; quoted by Poole 1994: 45) stated that:

> *"We firmly believe that it is now desirable to identify the steps which need to be taken to make widespread teaching of modern foreign languages in primary schools possible and we have noted the recommendation of the House of Lords' Select Committee on the European Communities Report to this effect."*

But the report did not specify any provisions for EMLTL *"not because children of this age cannot successfully learn a language but because very few teachers in primary schools are equipped to teach it"* (DES 1990; quoted by Poole 1994: 45).

In spite of the lack of provision, there were about 40 Local Education Authorities (LEA) in 1994-95 (out of 125, and 21.8% of the primary schools, from a sample in a CILT survey) which provided EMLTL in a variety of ways, and some LEAs had produced guidelines, schemes of work and materials for teachers – Cornwall, Kent, Hampshire, East and West Sussex, Richmond, Surrey, the Isle of Man, Harrow and Thameside. Many other mini-schemes and language clubs have been set up by professional or amateur enthusiasts in recent years, which means that the current trend towards EMLTL has its roots in a long tradition that never, in fact, died out (Addelman 1992).

French is by far the most widely taught European language, offered in 93.5% of the schools providing modern languages. German, Italian and Spanish are offered in less than 4% of schools in the CILT sample. Finally it can be estimated that children learning modern languages are between 5% and 7% nationally and the most common starting age is 9. In the same CILT report, 106 schools offer minority community languages (mainly Urdu, Punjabi and Gujarati), which is a percentage of 1%.

Concerning the qualification of teachers to teach modern languages, there are – according to criteria cited by CILT – 51% qualified, 46% non-qualified, and 3% foreign language assistants. Teachers receive training in Methodology (24%), Linguistic updating (11%) and Methodology and Linguistic updating (8%) (CILT Report 1995:7).

Incidentally, at the same time the Scottish 'National Pilot' was initiated in 1989 involving 12 secondary schools and 76 associated primary schools, where French, German as well as some Italian and Spanish were taught to children aged 11 and in the last year of their primary school. In addition to the national projects, there have been initiatives at local level, as in the Strathclyde Region scheme

which involved 24 secondary and 133 primary schools. The results attained in these national projects have given a basis for introducing a modern language from Primary 6 (age 10) and in some schools from Primary 4 (age 8) onwards (Johnstone 1994:11). Influenced by the Scottish Pilot, the Association for Language Learning called for the introduction of EMLTL at national level in 1992 (Poole 1994).

The situation in Great Britain, however, implies a significant difference in relation to the non-English-speaking countries of the European Union, especially because of the dominance of English as a world language. While in the rest of the European Union the choice of a foreign language is rather clear, as children, parents, employers and so on tend to demand English, this is not the case in Britain where children's motivation decreases when teaching and learning is only language-centred. Experiences at the primary school based on contrastive and intercultural content and activities usually foster pupils' motivation and parental support.

Several surveys and studies have shown parents' 'virtually unanimous' support for compulsory language teaching at primary schools. A case in point is a *Times Educational Supplement* report, which pointed out that (Dore et al. 1994):

> *"Parents wanted 90 minutes a week of teaching in French, German or Spanish, if necessary at the expense of religious education. They found similar views among industrial leaders who want primary and secondary schools to teach European languages, concentrating on oral fluency as a vital business tool (...), partially because written communication in business is more likely to be in English. Parents said that a European language would open opportunities in careers and travel for their children, especially with the increasing importance of the European Union. All children should study languages until the age of 16."*

In spite of these opinions, the Government has at present no plans to introduce foreign languages in primary schools and, as there is no national policy, no regular and adequate funding has been provided. *"The present governmental position is that primary languages are an extra, in the eyes of some an unnecessary extra, in the eyes of others an attractive decoration"* (Adelman 1992). A spokesperson of the Association for Language Learning said that *"We want the Government to put in long-term planning so it does not happen in a disorganised way"* (Dore et al. 1994).

I present here a brief account of three British cases of primary foreign languages provision (based on Hornsey and Jones 1994):

LEA-supported schemes: Kent Primary French

The 'Pilot' project attracted a majority of primary schools in the county. The top-junior teachers (Year 6) had intensive INSET at the beginning which included a brief period of language tuition in France and training in methodology. Continuing INSET provides Area meetings, a supply of updated materials, access to foreign Language Assistants and the support of the full-time co-ordinator who also monitors performance. Teachers can have their work accredited on Professional Development courses (M.A., M.Ed., Diplomas) at Christ Church College, University of Kent, where the project has a high profile and interested researchers.

Independent schools

The concepts of 'early' or 'primary' language are not applicable to preparatory schools which have foreign languages from 3 to 13, as part of the core curriculum. Parents support the teaching of a foreign language, usually French.

French Clubs

These clubs are an alternative to the lack of foreign language lessons, mainly French, and are conceived as franchises on offer at approximately £500 to individuals who like French or have an adequate experience and have premises available (one's own house can be used). The organiser receives booklets, badges, stationary, and so on, and sets up weekly sessions. Lessons cost from £1.50. Organisers receive a short intensive training and an ongoing supply of information.

It is rather difficult to draw clear conclusions in such a complex situation, but in summary it can be said that LEA provision in State Schools depends entirely on whether they select EMLT as a priority and are prepared to fund it; on the contrary, EMLT is usually an integral part of Independent Schools curricula. I want to point out too the unclear definition of aims and the variable and arbitrary teaching qualifications that teachers have, and that is why outcomes are difficult to evaluate.

EMLTL in Greece

The 1985 Education Reform Law introduced the teaching of music, physical education, art and craft, and foreign languages in the primary sector. In 1987, 123 primary schools all over Greece started foreign language teaching with teachers

transferred from the secondary sector and with two foreign languages chosen: French, 33% of the schools, and English, 67%. The initial introduction of English only in the primary state sector was followed by a rather widespread teaching of English in thousands of private schools.

Early foreign language teaching started from the 4th grade (9 year-old pupils) for 3 hours a week. A year later it was extended to the 5th grade involving 295 schools, after an evaluation of the project and followed by some 'Guidelines'. Though there was no syllabus during the first two years, when one was introduced it did not have much in common with the free textbooks and materials distributed by the ministry of education. In 1992, as a new body of teachers - primary teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) - was set up, there was no need to transfer secondary school teachers into the primary sector. 972 teachers of English were appointed in that year and it meant that the only compulsory foreign language would be English from then on. At the moment there are 2053 EFL primary teachers.

These EFL primary teachers hold a four-year university degree in English Language and Literature. Some of them have participated in a three-month pre-service teacher training course; others in seminars and work-shops on EFL methodology, and many of them will have the opportunity to participate in short 10-day INSET (in-service education and training) courses and seminars.

The general aims of the Primary EFL syllabus intend to help the development of young learners through foreign language learning, and some of these aims are rather significant because they stress aspects related to tolerance, positive attitudes towards other individuals or groups, interaction with others, international understanding and co-operation, and so on. Among the declared objectives one finds, for instance, the following: 'to develop...tolerance towards different characters of individuals, towards other social groups and ethnicities so that values and opinions of other people can be understood and appreciated for the benefit of communication and cooperation'; 'to facilitate communication and interaction among people from all over the world with different mother tongues'; 'to achieve a wider and deeper understanding of life and the way other people think'.

EMLTL, however, still encounters a considerable number of problems as it has only recently started in the state school sector in Greece. The main problems refer to the lack of sufficient teacher training, particularly in the rural areas, and to the shortage of ELT advisors. In addition, English teachers have a teaching commitment of approximately 24 to 25 hours per week in 5 to 7 schools; the number of pupils can be as high as 30 per class, and there is lack of audio-visual aids and libraries.

EMLTL in Italy

Early foreign language teaching in Italy has changed in the last ten years after the issue in 1985 of the document known as *Educational Programmes For Primary Schools*, which included a foreign language in the primary curriculum. Since then EMLTL was considered part of the linguistic and cognitive educational package, and, in particular, the aims attributed to a foreign language are as follows:

- to aid and enrich cognitive development, offering another skill for organising knowledge;
- to allow children to communicate with others through a language different from their own;
- to begin the child's process of understanding other cultures and peoples through linguistic skills (Ministry of Education 1985:27).

The last two points pay attention to cultural understanding and communication between peoples and cultures.

The Italian Ministry of Education was rather flexible as regards the choice of the language to be included in the school curriculum, but they had a clear preference for English:

> *"The choice of this or that language is not decisive. The language may be chosen, keeping in mind objective criteria of social and cultural utility, as well as the requirements of the community... Above all, the universal character of English must be taken into account, inasmuch as it offers more frequent possibilities of experience"* (ibid::27).

The 1985 Reform was considered a very important innovation, though its implementation did not happen until 1992-93, beginning with the 3rd, 4th and 5th classes. The guidelines that it followed considered the optimal age for starting a foreign language at seven (though where there was a lack of trained teachers it was possible to start at eight), the distribution of lessons should be 'in not more than three blocks of not more than one hour each'; the teacher should be one assigned to the primary school, who freely chooses to teach a foreign language, opting to carry out the function of a 'specialist' (i.e. who only teaches that subject), or a 'specialised' teacher (i.e, who teaches a foreign language as well as other subjects), and the introduction of EMLTL took place only in schools with teachers trained in courses offered by the Ministry of Education (which only meant 22.5% of pupils in 1992-93).

In addition, the Reform outlined some methodological orientations, but these were only considered as recommendations rather than as rigid prescriptions, and

it is the teacher who has to adapt them to the children's needs, rhythms and styles of learning, as well as to the demands and characteristics of the community. These orientations recommend that teachers follow the sequence *comprehension-assimilation-production*; that they give the lessons initially in *oral form*, with the written language being introduced gradually; that they introduce linguistic considerations later with not only a functional character but also that of comparison between the first and the second language; and that they use such *motivational and play activities* as posters, drawings, masks, puppets and marionettes, as well as individual and group games.

Foreign language learning is recommended to begin from the second class (7 year-olds) and the choice may be between French, English, Spanish and German. A study by the Ministry of Education highlighted the strong preference for English, a significant but much less popular preference for French, and a lower demand for Spanish and German (except in the region of Trentino Alto Adige, where, following a deeply rooted tradition of bilingualism, German has been a second language for some time).

The initial training of Italian primary teachers in a foreign language, in spite of the reform in course, has an important limitation. Teachers only study another language at secondary school and at the pre-university teacher training colleges (4 years). However, they already have a good knowledge of primary pupils and their needs, as well as an adequate methodology for the primary school, when they start their in-service foreign language training. In Italy, therefore, it has been necessary to organise in-service training courses for EMLTL teachers. Such courses have undergone several changes along the years: at the moment, there is a 500-hour training course over two years which deals with the following main areas: interpretation of the foreign language programme; putting into practice of interdisciplinary connections; organisation of teaching; methodology, teaching skills, planning aimed at research and experimentation, and development of linguistic ability.

Though the primary school teachers selected for the teaching of each of the four foreign languages had until now the choice of becoming either specialist or specialised teachers, the latter options seem to be the most popular in the Italian context, as it allows a better integration of modern languages in the school curriculum. Both kinds of teachers have 22 hours of face-to-face teaching and 2 hours of planning with colleagues.

In summary, the main problems and concerns of the Italian EMLTL are related to aspects such as the dominance of English which conditions the extension of the other modern languages; the limited availability of teachers and their uneven distribution throughout the country; and the need for further in-service training and teacher training materials. In addition, modern language teachers have to face

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the challenge of interdisciplinary planning with the school teaching team, and have to deal with the diversity of teaching methods that are employed by modern language teachers, and those used by teachers of other subjects. Finally, there is a lack of teaching materials. When these are available, they are generally quite expensive to purchase, and in addition often need to be adapted.

The situation of the Spanish Primary state sector

Foreign languages have acquired greater importance in teaching children from the age of 8 years upwards, as a result of the recent educational reform (1990). The main reasons have been social pressure and demands for language learning at a younger age, as well as indirect support coming from the field of general education.

In theory, Spanish schools should offer at least two optional languages, French and English. In reality, however, primary school children only have one foreign language available – most usually English – secondary students continue studying the same foreign language, though they can have an optional second foreign language – usually French.[3]

Though the foreign language is not considered in the first stage of Primary Education (6-7 years), the curriculum is flexible enough to allow it to be taught if desired and there is provision for it. It is considered a required subject in the second and third stages of Primary Education (8-9 and 10-11 years), which means 3 years earlier than in the old system (at 11). Today practically all the children between the ages of 8 to 12 years study a modern language, generally English. The Spanish Ministry of Education and the Autonomous Communities have defined the timetable for every area of the primary curriculum, but it is essentially advisory. However, the timetable allows for 3 hours a week in almost all the Autonomous Communities. Only communities such as Catalonia, Galicia, the Basque Country, Navarre, the Balearic Islands or Valencia -- where two languages are spoken – allow for minimum changes in certain years.

The 1990 Reform envisages learning a language as a means of communication, not simply as acquiring a signal system, but also understanding the cultural meaning that these signals carry. This explains the reason for adopting a communication-based approach which, in itself, includes different subdivisions: linguistic, pragmatic, socio-cultural and strategic competencies. Pupils should be able to *say something* to *somebody* with a *purpose,* three key elements in foreign language teaching. So, learning a language should go beyond a grammatical or functional approach, however important that might be, to language as a means of expression used by an entire culture, a way of understanding and coding reality and a means of organising interpersonal relationships.

The objectives of teaching a foreign language in the primary education should be, according to the Spanish Reform Law, to develop in the pupils abilities related to the oral and written comprehension and production, as well as abilities related to non-verbal communication (gestures, body language, and so on). Two objectives refer clearly to culturality, as for example: 'to show a positive attitude to understanding and respect towards other languages, their speakers and their culture', and 'understanding and using linguistic and non-linguistic basic conventions used by foreign language speakers in everyday situations of social interaction'.

Three areas are established in foreign language teaching by the Reform Law – oral communication, written communication and sociocultural aspects – which are integrated by concepts, procedures and activities, as well as attitudes and values. I present here the objectives of the sociocultural area, the one most related to EMLTL and interculturality.

The conceptual objectives refer to 'social and cultural aspects of interests to pupils, which are particular to the countries where the target language is spoken' and 'presence within Spain of the target language: trademarks, songs, films, etc.'. The procedural objectives are related to 'recognition of certain sociocultural aspects particular to countries where the target language is spoken', 'comparing the most relevant everyday aspects, which are particular to the countries where the foreign language is spoken, with aspects that take place every day in their own country', and 'use of realia'. The attitudes to be fostered are 'evaluation of socio-linguistic behaviour which facilitates coexistence in situations mentioned before' and 'desire to know people from other countries (correspondence with children from other countries, etc.)'.

Initial primary teacher education in Spain belongs to a first degree of university studies at Teacher Training Colleges. Since 1991 the new teacher training programmes include a special field for foreign language teachers (English or French), which qualify them to teach children from 6 to 11 at the primary school. The programme includes common subjects directed towards the prospective teachers' psycho-pedagogical, methodological and cultural education (common to the other primary studies), as well as the foreign language, phonetics, methodology, literature, and school practice.

EMLTL in Spain faces a considerable number of practical problems and the main ones - identified in the conclusions of a primary teachers' forum held in 1992 - can be summarised as follows: there is a lack of trained specialist teachers in Primary EMLTL (as teachers used to be trained for 11 to 14 year-old pupils); teachers are reluctant to change; teachers are generally not allowed to attend seminars during working hours; there is a lack of team-work, which is necessary to produce cross-curricular syllabuses. In addition, there is a lack of published

materials especially designed for Spanish pupils, or of open-ended books which allow both teachers and learners to creatively incorporate their own initiatives (e.g. tasks, project work, free practice, etc.). There is a need to develop topic-based syllabi, and task-based learning activities. Teaching would thus be based on a series of related tasks which allow children to develop their language skills in a meaningful way. Last but not lest, the primary teachers' forum noted that the educational reform had not been presented in a clear and schematic way, and the result was that many teachers felt confused.

Conclusions

The analysis and the comparison of the situation in these four European countries provide us with a better understanding of the needs and concerns in EMLTL, as well as of the relevant issues. Some general conclusions can be drawn from this comparative study.

In the first place, there is a clear tendency towards the introduction of a modern language in the primary school, in general from 8 or 9 years of age, even though there is no defining national policy, as in the case of England and Wales. However, in all the countries analysed, EMLTL is mainly subject-based instead of being embedded in the school curriculum, and in two of the countries is taught by peripatetic teachers. This reinforces subject orientation and consequently generally fails to lead to a cross-curricular approach.

Secondly, where an educational reform is being implemented, objectives related to linguistic and cultural awareness and diversity – one of the basic aspects of EMLTL – are insufficiently presented and contextualised. The main references are reduced to 'respect' and 'tolerance' and do not include interculturality, and hence there is not enough emphasis on the widening of pupils' values and vision of the world, through a reflexive approach to their own language and culture as compared and contrasted to the target language and culture. Teacher training and education on interculturality is still lacking and the content and the materials do not often present real aspects of cultural contrast and reflection, are frequently superficial, and do not propose real communicative activities and tasks.

In the third place, the countries analysed present a different approach to teacher training and education in EMLTL, but the main trend is towards a university degree. However, there are several ways of becoming an EMLTL graduate teacher: an English-studies degree (Greece), or an education degree in a foreign language (Spain). This raises important issues, given the cross-curricular nature of primary teaching.

In the fourth place, there is great tendency towards restricting EMLTL to English. This limits linguistic and cultural awareness, and consequently interculturality. In addition, some European Union countries are following a kind of ethnocentric linguistic policy that endangers the promotion of linguistic and cultural variety.

Finally, there should be a linguistic and cultural policy that recognises not only the minority languages in each European state but also those of migrant communities from outside the EU, as well as the cultures of their countries of origin.

There are also other aspects to take into account if we want to improve education systems (see *Encuentro* 1993). In the first place, staff development should be continually assessed, from initial training right through in-service training. It should favour educational research in classrooms and schools, giving a priority to collective discussion and reflection regarding both the school and other educational institutions, encouraging and promoting collaborative working groups. Secondly, it is important to carry out an evaluation of the extent to which guidelines laid down by educational reforms are actually implemented in the primary education sector. Such an evaluation would facilitate the identification of weaknesses in the educational process, particularly if the exercise involves students, parents, social institutions and other partners. Finally, there should be an important increase of expenditure on education, rather than a restriction of budgets which effectively jeopardises any reform.

Notes

[1.] This intention was clearly expressed by the British Minister K. Baker who declared that the English language 'is the essential ingredient of the Englishness of England' (quoted by C. Jones and K. Kimberley, 1991: *Intercultural Perspectives on the National Curriculum for England and Wales*, London: University of London, Institute of Education, p. 17).

[2.] Oxymoron is a European Cooperation Project (funded by by the LINGUA/SOCRATES Programme), composed of teams of researchers and teacher researchers from England, Greece, Italy and Spain. It started to work on the relationship between EMLTL and interculturality in September 1994. The analysis of the situation in those countries was the initial work carried out by the four national partners.

[3.] Only two Autonomous Communities, Canary Islands and Navarre, have already introduced, as a pilot scheme, a second foreign language to those who are presently in the 7th year (12-13 year-olds, the beginning of the secondary education). Most certainly this is due to developments in the tourist sector or in order to advance further in a subject which is only considered as optional in the secondary education system.

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GLOBAL DIMENSIONS IN THE EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION, SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM AND TEXTBOOKS OF GREEK COMPULSORY EDUCATION (GRADES 1-9)

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Abstract - *This study involves a content analysis of Greek educational legislation as well as of the social studies curriculum and textbooks in Greece. The purpose of the study is to determine if global themes and supranational elements are contained in these materials and to what degree they translate into teachable knowledge. The analysis revealed that the above dimensions are, to some degree, evident, but they have not been adequately adapted to correspond to the pronouncements of the Greek educational establishment and to the new realities of the European and international space. The global dimensions found in these materials mainly address the geophysical aspects of the globe and to a lesser degree the human, political and socio-cultural issues and problems. It is recommended that Greece, as well as other nation states, undertake an in-depth examination of their curricula and textbooks, especially in the area of social studies, so that a balanced and globalised curriculum is developed.*

Introduction

*I*t is known that the selection and dissemination of school knowledge via national curricula is used by different countries in Europe and elsewhere to maintain the ethno-cultural tradition of children and youth. This practice aims at the strengthening of their national consciousness but it may cloud their views of the international community and culture. Given the formation of the European Union and other supranational entities, it is essential that transnational and global themes pervade throughout the curricula of all countries. Transnational and global themes have been stressed by various writers throughout times since an interest in universal and global processes may be traced as far back as the Enlightenment at least.

The globalisation process took its present form following rapid changes in the world economy, which gained momentum in the 1970s (banking system, stocks, etc.), and in technology (digitalisation of societies), communications media (television, film) and so on. This process is encapsulated in the concept of 'global village' or 'global culture'. Other aspects of the globalisation process include: the

increase in the numbers of international agencies and institutions, the acceptance of a unified global time, the increasing global forms of communication, the growth of global competitions and prizes, the development of universal notions of citizenship, human rights and other developments.

This study therefore sets out to examine the extent to which the content of the educational legislation and of the social studies curriculum and textbooks at the compulsory education level (K-9) reflect and include global and international processes.

Education practices of the nation states and the need for global education

Nation states use various means, including formal education, to promote their own ethnic identity and national consciousness, in order to maintain their national character and to reinforce their ethno-cultural tradition and heritage. Thus, each nation seeks to instill in students a sense of continuity and a common destiny. This is based on the assumption that ethnic cohesion and togetherness will bring about a personal, social and national stability.

Certain studies offer evidence of the significant impact of school curricula and textbooks on the development of these national orientations. Systematic analyses of history and social studies textbooks reveal that statements and patriotic rituals about one's own country history abound, leading students to believe that their nation is superior. The *status quo* and national loyalty are promoted in these materials, while very little is devoted to analysing the role of the nation as a member of the world community (Massialas 1969, Larkins and Hawkins 1990, Patrick and Hoge 1991, Flouris and Spiridakis 1992). This emphasis of the textbooks on national rather than world development is a common practice and clearly constitutes an obstacle for understanding the diversity of cultures and for attaining a global awareness. That the textbooks in Europe reflect each country's national interest and that the curricular systems are responsible for the reproduction of ethnocentricity in Europe are propositions supported by recent research (Szabolcsi 1992; Coulby 1995).

It is known that children growing up in countries where a heavy nationalistic ethos prevails are affected by it and they begin to develop ethnocentric feelings; thus, they learn to categorise other nations and peoples based on these attitudes, describing them as good, bad, religious, peaceful, intelligent, poor, not like us, etc. (Lambert and Klineberg 1967). This condition often expresses itself as 'ethnocentrism', 'ingroup loyalty', 'mistrust of', 'hostility toward', 'outgroups', orientations that often lead to chauvinist international conflicts or even armed conflicts (Schleicher and Kozma, 1992, Flouris and Calogiannakis, 1996).

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Nations can no longer afford to offer a parochial pedagogy and exist in isolation; nor can they afford to ignore global conditions and changes, as well as problems in other parts of the world. If narrow-minded socialisation processes are applied, all nations will, sooner or later, be negatively affected.

It is also a well established reality that global interdependence has increased during the last thirty years. However, this global movement can be found only to a very limited degree in education. Global education is a complex and multifaceted concept. Some perceive it as an instructional process which seeks uniformity, massiveness and 'digitalisation of societies' in the framework of a world culture; others view it as a way to alleviate a potential disaster since it can minimise or even resolve international differences and/or conflicts in the quest for the identification of common cultural and political experiences (Robertson 1990, Smith 1990, Featherstone et al. 1995). In this view, global education seeks to provide young people with an international, intercultural and cross-cultural understanding and sensitivity (Flouris and Spiridakis 1992).

Despite the variety of views, there is considerable consensus that all countries need to promote global education since the benefits will be extended to everyone. In order for global education to be effective it ought to take into account people's national traditions, ethno-culture, stereotypes and biases. How can these obstacles be overcome?

This situation presents a dilemma facing schools. Obviously country leaders including educators must realise that appropriate allegiance to one's country need not be tied to an aversion or ignorance of other cultures; instead there should be recognition of the legitimacy of other cultures (Flouris and Spiridakis 1992).

Globalisation and education in Greece

The discussion above suggests that nation states have a conflicting role to perform. On the one hand they seek to maintain their national identity. On the other, they support global awareness and 'transnational multiculturalism' processes which may lead to cooperation, solidarity and peace. The increasing interdependence of the world, globalising events and conditions, common global problems (such as pollution, demography, and so on) create a growing need for nation states to rely heavily on the second role above. They are forced to promote – and participate in – supranational continental structures or 'cosmosystems' over and beyond their own ethno-cultures. A case in point is, of course, the European Union.

What is the situation of school practice in Greece in relation to the above problem? In other words, given the European Union structure and the growing

global culture, how does Greek educational legislation, curriculum and textbooks deal with the situation? How do they prepare Greek youth for a new social, economic and political order and an emerging sense of dual national and European identity? To what degree are international topics and concerns included in the purview of the Greek educational law (1566/85), as in social studies curriculum and textbooks? Given the fact that Greece has been an official member of the EU (former EEC) since 1981, are supranational elements and global themes to be found in Greek educational programmes, and if so, how are they presented? Are they preparing the future citizens of a United Europe?

The study explored the above questions through the following methods:

- By conducting a content analysis of the educational goals as expressed in Greek educational legislation, with particular reference to the goals of social studies subjects (Law 1566/85, Presidential Decree 583/82);
- By analysing the curriculum and the content of social studies textbooks;
- By identifying in the textbooks the incidence of three thematic categories: the global themes, the 'contacts' of Greeks with other people, and the knowledge or awareness of others.

Global elements in Greek educational legislation and in the goals for social studies subjects

Presidential Decree 583/82 and Law 1566/85 are in full force in Greece today. The first states the purpose of the school curriculum and the second presents the educational goals of primary and secondary education and mandates most of the matters involved in the operation of schools. The question here is: to what degree does PD 583/82 and Law 1566/85 reflect European and global elements or dimensions since they were enacted in the early and mid 80s when Greece was already a member (1981) of the European Community? Are supranational and universal values and/or dimensions contained in Greek educational legislation?

Analyses of the above legislation indicates that even though there are plenty of nationalistic dimensions and views, there are also sufficient international and global elements and/or values to be found in both legal documents. These include 'peace', 'interdependence', 'cooperation', 'unity among peoples and nations', and so on. For instance, PD 583 states: 'the curriculum seeks to establish the greatest possible understanding and respect of other persons who belong to different nationalities, religious and socio-cultural groups with the goal of attaining communication and cooperation with them' (PD 583/82, p. 1-2). Similar views exist in various sections of law 1566/85, such as 'respect of human values', 'humanistic actions', 'ecumenical values', 'moral values', 'a deeper

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understanding of the historical events (Greek and world)', and several other supranational elements which directly imply global values. However, the epitome of international and universal values is portrayed in another section of the same law; it is stated that schools are asked 'to develop a spirit of friendship and cooperation with all the peoples of the universe, seeking to creating a better world where justice and peace prevail' (Law 1566/85, p. 1).

Analyses of the goals of social studies subjects indicates that in the majority of them, nationalistic elements prevail. However, in almost all subjects reference is made to international dimensions and global goals. For example, in the subject 'Environmental studies' one of the goals reads: 'To know, understand and appreciate, as well as possible, the world that surrounds the students, natural and human, in its various interdependencies and dynamic nature'. One of the goals of the subject of 'social and political education' asserts that students need to 'participate responsibly in a democratic society... develop critical thinking...obtain the necessary sensitivity towards ecumenical community'. Similarly, in the subject of 'history' it is stated that students should be able 'to obtain a general view of the most important facts from world history... which played a decisive role for the destiny of the world'. Finally, one of the goals in the subject of 'geography' stresses the concept of interdependence and solidarity; it is stated: students 'should internalise the fact that the problems faced today by the world community are common to all and that these problems can be resolved by common efforts with the cooperation and mutual exchange of all people'.

It is therefore clear that while the educational goals in Greek legislation and in the majority of statements of purposes of social studies subjects stress the national tradition and ethnoculture, there are also to be found in these international and global views. Further analysis of the educational goals of the official documents of the last thirty years also shows that there exists a gradual decrease of national and religious factors in favor of cognitive and moral elements. This trend is shown in Table 1 where the educational priorities of the last thirty years are listed (Dimaras 1982, Flouris 1992).

TABLE 1: Range of Educational Goals of the Greek State in the last thirty years

1964: Religious, moral, national, cognitive, political.

1969: National, religious, moral, political, cognitive.

1975: Moral, cognitive, national, religious, political.

1976: Cognitive, moral, religious, national, political.

1985 (LAW 1566/85): Cognitive, moral, political, national, religious.

The reorganisation in the priorities accorded to educational goals perhaps marks the weakening of the nationalistic elements of Greek education which has placed emphasis in the past to the traditional values based on Hellenic humanism of classical Greece and Greek Orthodox religion. These values have been historically the purveyors of national culture and identity (Kazamias and Massialas 1965, Kazamias 1968, Massialas, Flouris, Cassotakis 1988, Massialas and Flouris 1994).

In sum, the above analysis reveals that the educational goals as depicted in legal documents and in the purposes of the subjects in question go beyond the nationalistic model of Greek citizenry; concomitantly, they do not prevent fostering international or globalistic dimensions that could potentially lead to the development of a European or world citizen. Similar national and international elements can be found in the goals of the social studies subjects of the gymnasium (Grades 7-9).

The question is: to what degree are the international and global dimensions found in Greek educational legislation and in the objectives of social studies subjects transformed into teachable knowledge? The next sections attempt to address this question.

Global dimensions in the social studies textbooks

In this section the content of social studies subjects is analysed in order to find out the extent to which they contain national or international elements and if the content is consistent with the stated educational goals.

The textbooks in Greece are controlled and disseminated by the Ministry of Education. The system of selection, and distribution of educational knowledge in schools in Greece is expressed through a single textbook per subject; this textbook, which is distributed free to all students in Greece and is published by the Ministry of Education, is written by a group of 'experts', in consultation with the Pedagogical Institute. This institute is expected to follow the content prescriptions of the curriculum for each subject.

The absence of other books or supplementary materials leads inevitably to the exclusive use of the prescribed textbooks limiting teachers' use of other sources. Thus, the 'what', 'how', and 'when' of school knowledge is primarily determined and controlled by the Minister of Education.

Method

A content analysis was attempted to establish the degree to which there is an alignment among the declarations of Greek legislation (L1566/85, PD 583/82), the

aims of social studies subjects and their substance with regard to global and international topics and issues. A quantitative analysis was applied to determine the prevalence of globalism under three major categories: the overall global themes; themes concerning contacts or interactions of Greeks with others; and themes concerning knowledge or awareness of others. Global themes were defined as problems, issues or situations of a supranational nature, which are shared by a 'family of cultures', lead to a common destiny and affect or could potentially affect one or more continents.

'Contacts with others' were considered to be all situations, transactions or affairs that Greeks have had throughout their history whether they involved conflict, war or peaceful interactions. All references made in the textbooks regarding other people of the world that Greeks did not have a direct interaction or dealings with were classified as: 'Knowledge or awareness of others'.

Analytic categories were used to examine the content of the social studies texts. In order to finalise the categories chosen for this analysis, two procedures were followed: first, the relevant bibliography was reviewed and the concepts of globality, 'contacts with others' and 'knowledge of others' were identified and examined; second, qualitative and quantitative analyses were attempted through which targeted themes were recorded and reassessed. The page was used as basic assessment unit in the content analysis. For geography the paragraph was set as an assessment unit. The reader is cautioned not to equate the number of themes with a measure of quality; this study addresses mainly the presence, not the quality, of themes regarding the three above dimensions throughout all categories.

The sample of the study was comprised of social studies textbooks, grades 1-6 (primary school level); and seven through nine grade (high school level). All textbooks were published by the Ministry of Education in Greece and included the following:

The World and Us (grades 1-4, Environmental Studies)
In the Very Old Times (grade 3, history)
In the Ancient Times (grade 4, history)
In the Byzantine Times (grade 5, history)
Social and Political Education (grade 5, civics)
Our Earth (grade 5, geography)
In the Newer (Modern) Times (grade 6, history)
Social and Political Education (grade 6, civics)
Our Earth (grade 6, geography)
History of Ancient Times (grade 7)
Home Economics (grade 7)
Geography of the Continents (grade 7)

Elements of General Geography of Greece (grade 8)
Roman and Byzantine History (grade 8)
Home Economics (grade 8)
Elements of Democratic Polity (grade 9)
Contemporary History (grade 9)
Home Economics (grade 9)
Europe (grade 9, geography)

The final three categories and their subcategories used to assess the themes, 'global', 'contacts of Greeks with others' and 'knowledge of others' were: *Nature*: Life, and Matters; *Human Beings*: Spirit, Emotion and Body; and *Society*: Economy, Social life and Culture. The above categories were modified and adapted from a conceptual framework used by Unesco (1990) which pertained to peace education, a global subject, also used in the present study.

Findings

Since the legal pronouncements (Law 1566/85, PD 583/82) made reference to 'friendship and cooperation with all the people of the world' and to 'understanding and respecting others', it was expected that the content of the social studies textbooks would be aligned with the above pronouncements. Thus, the category 'society', and especially the subcategory 'social life' (institutions, rights, myths, symbols, etc.), were expected to have most of the references. Furthermore, given the purpose of history (see teachers' edition of the textbook) where it is stated that 'history will not be taught through wars', it was assumed that the subcategory 'social life' (violence, conflict, wars), would not have a great number of references.

The content analysis revealed that, as expected, the subject that contained the largest percentage of global themes was geography. Table 2 shows that the sum total of global themes was recorded to be 81.1% of the entire content for both the fifth and sixth grade in this subject. The greatest percentage (32.7%) was concentrated in the category 'nature' and the subcategory 'life-natural environment', followed by the category 'society' and the subcategory 'social life' (institutions, rights, peace) - 7.4%. Analogous percentages appear and in the same categories and subcategories in the individual grades in the same subject. These percentages were expected in this subject since by its nature it focuses on global themes and mainly addresses geophysical aspects, such as the natural environment, climatic conditions, air, waters and soil. Lesser significance is placed on the sociocultural aspects of the globe and very little on 'artifacts and human achievements or common destiny'; thus significant global issues such as the depletion of the ozone are for the most part either excluded or underplayed.

TABLE 2: Table of categories: Global Themes

PRIMARY SCHOOL GRADES 5-6 SUBJECT: Geography (Our Earth)·			Textbook Paragraphs	Paragraphs of Global Themes	%
NATURE	LIFE	Ecosystem Natural Environments Living space-place	794	260	32,7
		Increase of co2/zone Threat of Humanity	794	31	3,9
	MATTER	Air-water-soil	794	111	13,9
		Climatic conditions	794	128	16,1
HUMAN BEINGS	SPIRIT INTELLECT	Knowledge-thought			
		New consciousness			
	EMOTIONS	Positive-friendly			
		Negative-hostile			
	BODY	Nutrition-hunger			
		Health-diseases			
SOCIETY	ECONOMY	Production-Resources	794	29	3,6
		Consumption-Trade Services			
	SOCIAL LIFE	Institutions-Rights-Peace	794	59	7,4
		Violence-conflict-wars			
	CULTURE	Artifacts, Technology	794	28	3,5
		Arts, Values, Myths, Symbols, Language			
TOTAL:			**794**	**646**	**81,1**

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In geography 'knowledge of others' received 49.4% of the total entries (see Table 3). The subcategory 'human artifacts, technology' received 12% followed by the subcategory 'climatic conditions' (9.6%) and the subcategory 'air, water, soil' (6.6%).

The second largest incidence of global themes as a percentage of the total was in the subject of 'social and political education' (28%) in the fifth and sixth grades combined. The category 'society' and subcategory 'social life' (institutions, rights, peace) received the highest percentage (25.4%). It is worth noting that despite the fact that the subject aims mainly at presenting social institutions and the issue of being a citizen of the Greek state, it devotes about one fourth of its content to global themes. As revealed in another study, a great deal of direct and indirect references exist in the content of this subject concerning the transnational theme of human rights education (Flouris 1997). There was no content dealing with the other dimensions ('contacts with' and 'knowledge of others').

The next highest record of global themes was found in the subject of history while 'contacts with others' (Table 4) received a total of 13.9% in grades three to six. This figure is divided as follows: (9.8%) deals with 'wars and conflicts' followed by 'institutions, rights, etc.' (3.6%); in the same subject it was found that a total of 7.9% constituted the global themes; of this, the largest percentage goes to the subcategory 'culture', 'human artifacts, technology' (7.1%) followed by the subcategory 'violence, wars', (0.5%). In grade six all of the percentage that was recorded as global themes (1.8%) concerned 'wars and conflicts'. Thus, the Greek youngsters become acquainted with others via wars and not through 'cooperation or friendship', as it is stated in the purpose of history and in the law 1566/85. Obviously, there is a disharmony between the written goals of this subject and its content.

Finally, the percentage of global themes in the subject of environmental studies, entitled 'we and the world', constitutes 21.8% of the total content in grades one to four; of this percentage, the greatest was concentrated in the category 'nature' and the subcategory 'natural environments', (5.8%) and 'air, water, soil' (4.2%). 'Knowledge of others' consumes only a 1.9% of the total and the content of all four grades in this subject concerning 'contacts with others' is only 1%. The analysis of this subject is of particular interest, since it shows that the bulk of its content, (about three fourths) is in 'we' and only one fourth in the 'world' categories. The 'world' is viewed mostly from a geophysical perspective. Despite the small percentages in this subject in all four grades, the few global themes which exist appear under catchy titles, such as 'we are all a chain', 'from the cave to the skyscraper', 'other children of the world', and so on.

The situation in the gymnasium (grades 7-9) is almost the same as in the lower grades. Geography was the subject that received the highest percentage of global

TABLE 3: Table of categories: Awareness of other people

PRIMARY SCHOOL
GRADES 5-6
SUBJECT: Geography (Our Earth)

			Textbook Paragraphs	Par. of awareness of other people	%
NATURE	LIFE	Ecosystem Natural Environments Living space-place	794	10	1,2
		Increase of co2/zone Threat of Humanity			
	MATTER	Air-water-soil	794	53	6,6
		Climatic conditions	794	77	9,6
HUMAN BEINGS	SPIRIT INTELLECT	Knowledge-thought	794	5	0,6
		New consciousness			
	EMOTIONS	Positive-friendly			
		Negative-hostile			
	BODY	Nutrition-hunger	794	18	2,2
		Health-diseases	794	11	1,3
SOCIETY	ECONOMY	Production-Resources	794	21	2,6
		Consumption-Trade Services	794	5	0,6
	SOCIAL LIFE	Institutions-Rights-Peace	794	40	5
		Violence-conflict-wars	794	16	2
	CULTURE	Artifacts, Technology	794	96	12
		Arts, Values, Myths, Symbols, Language	794	46	5,7
TOTAL:			**794**	**398**	**49,4**

TABLE 4: Table of categories: Contacts with other people

PRIMARY SCHOOL GRADES 3-6 SUBJECT: History			Textbook Pages	Pages of contacts with other people	%
NATURE	LIFE	Ecosystem Natural Environments Living space-place			
		Increase of co2/zone Threat of Humanity			
	MATTER	Air-water-soil			
		Climatic conditions			
HUMAN BEINGS	SPIRIT INTELLECT	Knowledge-thought			
		New consciousness			
	EMOTIONS	Positive-friendly			
		Negative-hostile			
	BODY	Nutrition-hunger			
		Health-diseases			
SOCIETY	ECONOMY	Production-Resources			
		Consumption-Trade Services			
	SOCIAL LIFE	Institutions-Rights-Peace	1043	38	3,6
		Violence-conflict-wars	1043	103	9,8
	CULTURE	Artifacts, Technology	1043	6	0,5
		Arts, Values, Myths, Symbols, Language			
TOTAL:			**1043**	**147**	**13,9**

TABLE 5: Table of categories: Awareness of other people

GYMNASIUM GRADES 7-9 SUBJECT: Geography			Textbook Paragraphs	Par. of awareness of other people	%
NATURE	LIFE	Ecosystem Natural Environments Living space-place	2295	159	6,9
		Increase of co2/zone Threat of Humanity	2295	8	0,3
	MATTER	Air-water-soil	2295	155	6,7
		Climatic conditions	2295	112	4,8
HUMAN BEINGS	SPIRIT INTELLECT	Knowledge-thought			
		New consciousness			
	EMOTIONS	Positive-friendly			
		Negative-hostile			
	BODY	Nutrition-hunger			
		Health-diseases			
SOCIETY	ECONOMY	Production-Resources	2295	69	3
		Consumption-Trade Services	2295	20	0,8
	SOCIAL LIFE	Institutions-Rights-Peace	2295	30	1,3
		Violence-conflict-wars	2295	8	0,3
	CULTURE	Artifacts, Technology	2295	11	0,4
		Arts, Values, Myths, Symbols, Language	2295	25	1
TOTAL:			**2295**	**597**	**24,5**

themes in all the social studies subjects. As Table 5 indicates, the dimension 'knowledge of others' received a total of (24.5%) for grades seven to nine. Of this the largest percentage is concentrated in the subcategory 'natural environment' (6.9%), followed by the subcategory 'air, water, soil' (6.7%) and subcategory 'climatic conditions' (4.8%).

Table 6 indicates that (15%) of the total is devoted to global themes (in grades seven to nine) most of these references (13%) deal with the subcategory 'production, resources'. Last of all comes the dimension 'global' which with a total of 6.7%, almost all of which address 'climatic conditions' (3.2%). The rest of the grades in all dimensions receive less than 4% with the exception of the ninth grade where the percentage is: 'awareness of others' (20.9%); (seventh grade geography rendered 14.2% in the global dimension and 7.2% in the subcategory 'contacts with others').

The subject that received the next highest percentage of global relevance is history. In all three gymnasium grades (7-9) the percentage distribution was: 'knowledge of others': 20.89%, 'contacts of others': 13.2%, 'global: 6.9%. It should be noted that, as in the case of elementary school, Greek students mostly get acquainted with 'others' via thr theme 'conflicts and wars' (14.9%).

The next highest percentage was recorded in the ninth grade subject of civics (20.2%) in the dimension 'global' of which a 17.8% was distributed in the subcategory 'institutions, rights, peace' and the rest (2.4%) went to the subcategory 'art, myths, symbols', (Table 7). It is interesting that one fifth of the total content of this subject, which aims at making Greek citizens, deals with global themes. There was a small percentage (2.2%) that was classified as 'knowledge of others' and dealt with 'institutions, rights, etc.'.

Lastly, the subject 'Home economics' included the least amount of content on the topics of all social studies subjects, and addressed only two dimensions: 'global' (6.8%), and 'knowledge of others' (2.7%).

In sum, the content analysis of the social studies textbooks reveals that for the most part nationalistic messages prevail but supranational dimensions are also present. The European Union is not presented adequately; in fact there are only a few pages (a total of four in the elementary school) that describe the European Union (see also Flouris 1995). The situation is similar for the gymnasium but a few more pages than in elementary school are devoted to this theme (a total of eleven pages). In addition, social studies textbooks neglect to present and elaborate sufficiently on Third World countries, the differences between the North and the South, Center and Periphery, the 'haves' and 'haves not', as well as other human themes/problems of the globe. This lack of exposure to the diverse problems of humanity may result in projecting an unreal and distorted view of the world and may lead Greek students to believe that the whole world is equitable and homogenous.

TABLE 6: Table of categories: Contacts with other people

GYMNASIUM GRADES 7-9 SUBJECT: Geography			Textbook Paragraphs	Par. of contacts with other people	%
NATURE	LIFE	Ecosystem Natural Environments Living space-place			
		Increase of co2/zone Threat of Humanity			
	MATTER	Air-water-soil			
		Climatic conditions			
HUMAN BEINGS	SPIRIT INTELLECT	Knowledge-thought			
		New consciousness			
	EMOTIONS	Positive-friendly			
		Negative-hostile			
	BODY	Nutrition-hunger			
		Health-diseases			
SOCIETY	ECONOMY	Production-Resources	2295	300	13
		Consumption-Trade Services	2295	47	2
	SOCIAL LIFE	Institutions-Rights-Peace			
		Violence-conflict-wars			
	CULTURE	Artifacts, Technology			
		Arts, Values, Myths, Symbols, Language			
TOTAL:			**2295**	**347**	**15**

In conclusion, the percentages devoted to global themes even though they are not scant, do not quite harmonise with the pronouncements of the educational law 1566/85 which made reference to a 'spirit of friendship and cooperation with all the people of the world'; neither does the presence of others correspond to the purpose of the Greek curriculum (PD. 583/82). This curriculum calls for 'a deeper understanding and appreciation of other people who belong to different national, religious, social and cultural groups...'. The exception is the subject of 'social and political education' at both levels since it includes an ample amount of global themes.

Obviously, the global/international themes in the content of the social studies subjects do not correspond to the instructional goals which state: 'problems faced by common efforts by the world community...resolved...with the cooperation and mutual exchange of all people'.

Assessing the evidence

The analysis of global themes and the way Europeans and 'others' are depicted in the school textbooks in Greece indicates that the Greek educational system has not adapted itself sufficiently to the new realities of the international scene. The nationalistic elements that .are maintained in the books seem to cultivate a moderate form of ethnocentrism since the greatest value is placed on the Greek culture while some of the other cultures are ignored. Furthermore, the ancient Hellenic tradition seems to predominate, especially in the subjects of history and environmental studies. The evidence gathered appears to reconfirm the findings of previous studies which showed that the strongest influences in the shaping of the Greek national identity and character are exerted by the ideals of classical Hellenism and the institutions and preachings of the Greek orthodox church (Kazamias and Massialas 1965, Gerasi 1981, Massialas and Flouris 1994, Flouris and Calogiannakis 1996).

The nationalistic elements that were found to be dominant in the texts researched in this study should not be judged as negative. It is known that nation states engage in such practices in their schools as overemphasing specific national features and recreating their national culture and their national superiority in order to preserve their own past and their traditional heritage. This practice is summarised as follows: There was 'little tolerance in the textbooks toward other nations and countries and the greatest problem of all was a self-centered perspective of universal history, on interpretation of others through one's own point of view' (Szabolcsi 1992: 108). Furthermore, it is claimed that if certain conditions exist, a change in the degree of ethnocentrism or ethnic consciousness

TABLE 7: Table of categories: Global Themes

GYMNASIUM GRADE 9 SUBJECT: Civics (Elements of Democratic Policy)			Textbook Pages	Pages of Global Themes	%
NATURE	LIFE	Ecosystem Natural Environments Living space-place			
		Increase of co2/zone Threat of Humanity			
	MATTER	Air-water-soil			
		Climatic conditions			
HUMAN BEINGS	SPIRIT INTELLECT	Knowledge-thought			
		New consciousness			
	EMOTIONS	Positive-friendly			
		Negative-hostile			
	BODY	Nutrition-hunger			
		Health-diseases			
SOCIETY	ECONOMY	Production-Resources			
		Consumption-Trade Services			
	SOCIAL LIFE	Institutions-Rights-Peace	246		
		Violence-conflict-wars			
	CULTURE	Artifacts, Technology			
		Arts, Values, Myths, Symbols, Language	246		

may occur. Such conditions include: fear of foreign rule, when cultural or personal identity is threatened, when socio-economic conditions become unbearable or even when technological or other abrupt developments of modernisation appear, (Schleicher 1992: 2; Illyes 1992: 53).

Ever since Greece became an independent state in 1833, all of the above conditions existed and to a certain extent some are still applicable today (fear of Turkish aggression in the Aegean, for instance). These conditions may justify the continuation of moderate ethnocentrism. More specifically Greece's long subjugation to the Turks and its dependence, after liberation, on 'foreign powers', has forced Greece to embrace ethno-cultural attitudes. Acting in this manner, Greece aimed at revamping its past, drawing up teachings from its own traditions and customs. These traditions were expected to perpetuate the Hellenic character, maintain its national identity and reclaim the Byzantine greatness (the 'great idea' movement) (Tsoukalas 1993; Chouliaras 1993).

Textbook analysis further indicates that other civilisations and cultures are either excluded or relegated to a secondary position of importance or treated superficially. It appears that Greece, like several other countries, faces a dilemma. On the one hand, Greece will continue to reinforce a national consciousness and a neo-Hellenic identity reproducing an ethno-culture which will rely on the concept of classical humanism and Greek Orthodox Christian ideals. On the other hand, Greece must cope with contemporary developments of modernity and neo-modernity including capitalism, consumerism, mass culture, new technologies, and so on which dominate the public life in Greece. These developments have perhaps caused a change in the national consciousness of Greek citizens and have created an orientation which 'is torn between the Eastern and Western cultures in a continuous quest to project a wholesome national identity' (Massialas and Flouris 1994: 4; Massialas 1995). Thus, the present analysis revealed that the disharmony that exists in several other aspects of the Greek Curriculum (see Flouris 1992, 1995) is also present at the level of tradition versus modernity and neo-modernity. More specifically, there seems to be a dichotomy between the values of *Homo Universalis* (freedom, justice, equality, etc.) and those of global culture. That is, the intentions of educational law makers in Greece, as shown by the analysis of Law 1566/85, PD 583/82, and the objectives of social studies subjects, were to go beyond the values of Hellenic humanism and Greek Orthodox Christianity. However, the curriculum developers focused on the values of traditional ethno-culture. This reflects the antithesis, in the dialectical sense of the difference that exists between school and society in Greece. The Greek school continues to be inspired by the values of Hellenic Humanism as embodied in the concept of *Homo Universalis*; on the contrary, Greek society is continuously reinforced by the values of global culture, since it is receptive to the developments

of the modernisation and post-modernisation process. Few can doubt that modern Greeks live and function as Europeans and global citizens, since they are constantly exposed to the forces of modernisation, most of which are non Greek in origin.

The critical question is: will the forces of modernity or post-modernity and of the global culture change Greek identity and develop at the expense of ecumenical values as embodied by the concept of Hellenic humanism and *Homo Universalis*?

Globalising the curriculum – a challenge to schools

Given the various difficulties that exist among the countries of the world in accommodating 'otherness' in their educational system, what ought to be done to increase global knowledge and awareness of the educational process?

To socialise the individual into becoming a global citizen, many modifications must take place both within the nations and trans-nationally. Several changes must occur amongst nations. In this respect the development of an international educational organisation is warranted. This organisation could transmit cross-cultural or intercultural values from various parts of the world (Flouris and Spiridakis 1992).

A primary goal for implementing global education programs should be to identify a set of values that will alleviate local, national and international conflicts, potential wars, parochial and ethnocentric values. A second goal is to identify appropriate means and agents through which the global and ecumenical themes, issues and problems can be promoted and imparted in school curricula around the world.

The two broad areas of concentration in global education should be the individual level and the macro level. On the individual level each nation's education programme should aim at developing self-knowledge, personal efficacy and emotional intelligence (Goleman 1995). Flexibility and adaptability will also contribute to an enhancement of a positive self-concept. Children ought to be given opportunities to develop self-respect, via affective, humanistic and pedagogical programmes and to experience their own unique value via a holistic development. Learning activities should be designed to permit individuals to develop a feeling that they are part of the global community and to feel confident and competent to influence ecological, economic, social and political decisions on a local and international levels (think and act locally and globally). Similarly, at the macro level, global education should address international and planetary problems, issues and events; the planetary content should be drawn from real situations at all levels. Children of the world should be aware that the problems

of poverty, overpopulation, environmental destruction, shortage of natural resources, intra-national and international conflicts, violence and wars eventually affect everyone. The values of *Homo Universalis*, such as democracy, social justice, brotherhood and so on, should be examined, taught and compared with the values of post-modernity and global culture.

World history, and other social studies are global key areas with great potential for developing positive citizenship that transcends nationalism and embraces the values of international understanding. As Alder and Lindhar (1981: 551) aptly state, 'The average person often considers public issues from an emotional, even a dogmatic-base. The result, often based on prejudices, can be discrimination, abuse, injustice, violence, or terror'. Instead, the authors recommend more analysis of the concepts of 'partisanship' and 'propaganda' to assist students to increase their awareness of nationalistic socialisation processes which cloud perceptions of world-wide problems.

Several, worthwhile efforts have been made since the 1950s by international organisations with the purpose of improving school textbooks, especially history and social studies books. As early as 1953, Unesco organised a conference for history teachers where nine countries participated in order to deal with national stereotypes and historical distortions as well as inadequacies. Similar activities took place in the 1950s by the Council of Europe and the George Eckert Institute which organised approximately 140 bi-national or multinational conferences for schoolbook revision (1945-1967) and attained valuable reconsiderations of national misconceptions (Riemenschneider 1981). This type of cooperation in revising and screening textbooks (including maps) aiming at reducing stereotypes and promotes a more global perspective is quite a positive step; similar efforts attempted earlier (1920s and 1930s) had failed since many European historians either refused to participate or strongly objected to the changes (Schleicher 1992: 218).

Having well balanced curricula, source materials and/or textbooks is a great step forward but the proper use of them by teachers is also a big concern for global education. Several agencies have trained teachers in detecting prejudices in textbooks and revising them, so that they are culture fair in their treatment of others. In this regard, a special mention must be made of the National Information Center on History Teaching in Belgium, which came up with a list of 120 practical tips to screen information in the textbooks. Despite the obvious improvements that have been made in the school-books around the countries of the world there is still a long road as far as the teaching of global affairs beyond national interests and politics. A rather interesting publication attempting to globalise the curriculum appeared recently in Ireland (1991); in this project a global perspective is maintained and the students 'learn to read the world, to gain knowledge of global

trends, conditions and developments at all levels – local, national, international – and to appreciate the increasing interconnectedness of all phenomena' (Hammond 1992).

The time seems to be ripe for linking the whole world together and maintaining a 'bias free' global perspective. This is revealed by the fact that the first history of Europeans is about to be written by a group of well known historians in Europe; it will be the first history of Europeans which it will promote a different approach: it will not be written in terms of ethnic historiography and it will not be a history of wars and oppositions (Vema 1995: 81). A similar effort has been undertaken by a federal educational committee in the USA, where new criteria for the teaching of world history were created; a group of historians, teachers, principals and educational organizations around the country prepared these new criteria which 'ask teachers to enlarge their views beyond Europe and ask students to go beyond recitation so they can learn from all over our planet' (Vema, 1995: B3).

The time has come for schools to move away from maintaining unchallenged existing systems and static ways of life. Students need to become good national as well as global citizens who are prepared for change, able to think reflectively, anticipate future events, and are willing to participate in the democratic processes by taking appropriate actions. The time is right for schools to foster more than one identity via multilingual, multicultural experiences which may be linked to universalism for a more promising future.

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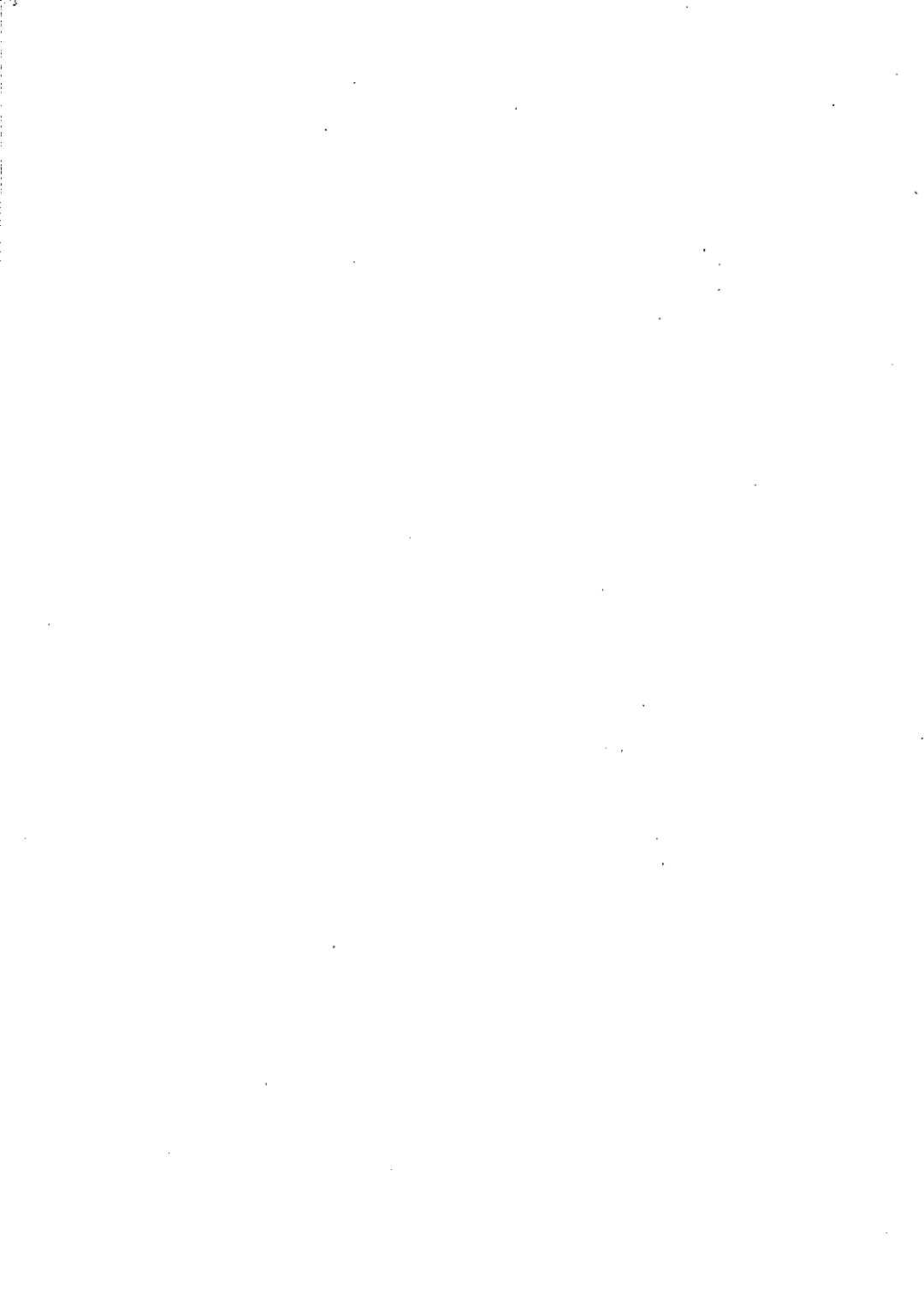
MISMANAGEMENT, AMBIGUITY AND DELUSION: TRAINING PRIMARY TEACHERS IN GREECE

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Abstract - *Preparing primary teachers in Greece is an area of great ambiguity and frustration for many students. This paper seeks to show the influence of social origins, characteristics and qualifications of entrants to primary teaching and its role in social mobility. The paper is based on original research with first year student teachers along with unpublished research from government sources. Outcomes of the research demonstrate a greater need for creative and strategic planning in the training of primary teachers.*

Introduction

$\mathcal{T}$he aim of this paper is to examine the socio-economic position of primary teachers in Greece. An historical account of the development of the profession of primary teachers in Greece during the last century is offered in order to place current perceptions of primary teachers in perspective. General attitudes towards the teaching profession are included in order that mechanisms for improving current management and recruitment of Greek primary teachers, can be see within the context of, not only Greek society in general, but also of primary teachers themselves.

Finally, research findings concerning the contemporary position and status of primary teachers in Greece are presented. Such data includes information concerning financial rewards for teachers, current numbers of teachers, their gender, age and job prospects. Such an understanding is essential for the future planning process of Greek education and, more importantly, for teacher morale.

Status and prestige of professions

In order to understand the role, position and the status of the teaching profession, it is necessary to develop an understanding of the various aspects and factors that affect these issues. Societies throughout the world hold varying views about the occupations with which people are involved or have chosen. In short, there are diverse levels of understanding and 'respect' for jobs, based on traditional and historical perceptions, the subjects students pursue and the

individual perceptions of members of society. Each society has developed a 'prestige system' in which every occupation can be rated. In the past, earning money through commerce was considered a low-status position while those members of the aristocracy who squandered their time to no positive effect were attributed great esteem. In different societies wealth, intelligence, qualifications and ownership of property all contribute towards social prestige. In some cultures religious leaders have power, and therefore status, while in other countries they occupy an indifferent position. Lieberman (1956: 452) claimed that

> *"Status can not be equated with occupational or personal worth. People may accord a certain occupational group low status in the belief that the occupation does not require much intelligence, skill or training, although it may in fact require a high degree of each of those factors."*

Professional status does not necessarily represent worth, but rather the image that a society has developed for a profession and its practitioners. According to Kelsall and Kelsall (1969) such an image emanates from the following characteristics:

- Long and exacting education and professional training. High status jobs have strict procedures of selection recruitment training and certification. Doctors and lawyers are good examples of the above phenomenon.
- Following a lengthy education, the practitioners of prestigious professions have to do work that is highly skilled nature and it therefore becomes unfamiliar for the outsiders. The less familiar someone is with the members and the work of a particular profession the higher the prestige s/he is likely to attach to its practitioners. These professions have an 'esoteric' knowledge and terminology not readily available to the public at large.
- High salaries and income in general are undoubtedly associated with the above types of professions. Financial rewards which allow a certain style of living are fundamental in the societies with which this discussion is concerned.
- Quite often the prestige of an occupation is related to the relative freedom from outside interference and control. In other words, the autonomy of the profession, and the extent to which its practitioners are subject to any advice or manipulation from outside, is an indicator of its authority and *ipso facto* its status.
- Finally, the social origin from which the practitioners of the profession traditionally come, good conditions of work, a client-patron relationship and the existence of a professional code of conduct, imply an occupation highly regarded in society. All the above could also be affected by stereotypes formulated for various reasons, distinct in each society.

Teaching as a profession

It is not difficult to realise that when it comes to the teaching profession, and particularly those dealing with younger pupils, the majority of the above characteristics do not apply. This implies that teaching is a non-prestigious occupation, no matter how fundamental for the development of the society it might be. This situation occurs despite the 'reprofessionalisation' of teaching, which has been formally promoted in many Western societies. This has been encouraged through stricter procedures of selection and recruitment, through longer initial training programmes and more formalised accountability procedures, with governments taking greater control of quality and outcomes of education (OECD 1990).

There is little aura of mystery and surprise for those observing the work of teachers. Most people have passed through the process of education and therefore feel adequately qualified to express confident opinions. Examination results and effective disciplinary procedures (Cowan 1993) are factors which influence UK parents in their choice of school. Professional knowledge, and flexible and creative teaching skills are qualities which are assumed and accepted as inherent in every teacher.

It is still a sad fact that a profession dominated by women has less prestige in most societies than those dominated by men. The fact that women have increased family responsibilities is seen to have a direct impact on the cohesion of the professional group, which in turn is frequently blamed for inhibiting of the process of recognition and appreciation of the profession (Vassilou-Papageorgiou 1992). This is further combined with the fact that in many countries, Greece being amongst them, historical, psychological and social factors have negatively affected women in terms of their career interest. Their interest has been further suppressed by the working conditions and the general working – male dominated – environment.

All the above factors, along with the fact that in many countries teachers traditionally come from lower-middle classes, present the teaching profession as one which one would not choose to enter unless other professional avenues were closed (Vassilou-Papageorgiou, *ibid.*). In Greece, teaching is seen as an escape from lower-class status. The process of appreciation of the teacher's role has been a slow one. Stereotypes abound and negative forces influence the attitude of potential student teachers, their selection and treatment.

By focusing, in this paper, on the Greek situation, it is hoped lessons can be learned for other contexts. Presenting the following data and clarifying current conditions in Greece concerning attitudes towards primary education, it is clear that there is a great need for a more systematic and pragmatic planning approach.

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Such a process should relate primary education with other sectors of education, coupled with a long-term vision for teacher training, translated into appropriate workable strategies.

Historical overview

Primary teachers in Greece still struggle with matters concerning their status, prestige, recognition and, more importantly, the quality of training and access to jobs. The turn of the century found Greek primary teachers fighting for recognition and appreciation of their role. The level and quality of their education were of a very low standard and in some cases teachers were only primary school graduates. The results of that were: low prestige, low salaries and, generally speaking, a social position that could only be compared with that of the menial workers (Pyrgiotakis 1992). The fact that primary teachers were continually under the threat of redundancy could only make the condition worse.

This situation did not change until the 1930s when significant developments occurred. In 1933 Pedagogical Academies were established in six cities, followed a year later by a seventh. The role of the Academies was to prepare future primary teachers by offering two years of professional training. Undoubtedly the establishment of these institutions was a step forward to the extent that primary teachers were upgraded on both social and scientific grounds. Teachers would go through a form of tertiary education which would give them higher status than previously and enable them to feel prouder, perhaps more motivated by their intended occupation. It was further believed that subjects taught – Pedagogy, Psychology, Philosophy and courses related to the subjects to be taught in the primary school – would also ascribe a greater 'scientific weight' to the profession (Evangelopoulos 1989).

Teaching became a profession for which training was required and, *ipso facto*, its practitioners gained some merit. Unfortunately, such status was limited by the fact that Pedagogical Academies did not have University status, mainly due to the training process of teachers being considerably shorter (two years) than degree courses (at least four years). Teaching, therefore, did not qualify as an 'academic profession' and did not assume equality with the traditionally prestigious occupations like doctors, bankers and lawyers. Such problems are of course world-wide and teachers in most countries would identify totally with the problems of enhancing teacher status.

In Greek society matters of prestige and status still form an important part of cultural identity. Social position, image and status within the community have always been considered crucial for personal and social acceptance. In Greece, then, it was the lower social classes who saw the teaching profession as a social move upwards. Others from higher social levels considered teaching, particularly in primary schools, as socially downgrading (Pyrgiotakis 1992).

The situation did not change significantly during the next three decades, mainly because of the socio-political developments in the country. Dictatorship (1936-1940), the Second World War (1939-1945), and the civil war (1945-1949) discouraged any changes and improvements in the field of education in general. At the beginning of the 1950s, following the civil war, teachers found themselves more or less in the same position and with the same status as before, but now under considerable ideological pressure from the government. Teachers, as all other Greek employees dependent on the state, were manipulated by the central government and used as agents of a certain anti-left political ideology (Folerou & Friderikou 1991). This situation did not increase respect for the teaching profession within Greek society.

During the 1960s circumstances were modified to some extent. A number of significant improvements occurred concerning financial rewards for teachers and with regard to their training. In 1963 primary teachers' salaries were equalised with those of other teachers and civil servants. (Until then they had been much lower). In 1964 the duration of training in the Pedagogical Academies was increased from two to three years. Within one year, primary teachers achieved an advancement in both salary and training terms. This immediately was reflected in greater prestige for primary teachers in Greek society. The Academies were still not of university status, reinforcing the fact that primary teaching was still a second class profession, while primary teachers themselves were subordinate to other, secondary school colleagues. Secondary teachers had university education in the subjects they taught and thus a higher status in the social hierarchy.

The dictatorship of 1967 countered progress in the early sixties with teachers reduced to a lower status through a decrease in the length of training (Evangelopoulos 1989). Teachers were obliged to succumb to immense political and ideological pressure and manipulation (ibid). The new regime also introduced another measure that resulted in the downgrading of the profession. Secondary graduates achieving an 'excellent' grade on their final certificates were allowed to enter the Academies without exams, while entrance examination was required for all the University departments (Pyrgiotakis 1992). The dictatorship that lasted for seven years was undoubtedly a period that resulted in the deterioration of the teacher's role and morale.

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What can be argued after examining the developments in the profession in this century until the mid-1970s is that despite some improvements – some of them only temporary – the role and status of the primary teachers, as well as their place in the social system of Greek society, had not improved much since the beginning of the century.

Attitudes of primary teachers in the late seventies

There is interesting and important research which confirms the above statements and which demonstrates the perceptions of primary teachers concerning their profession and status. The main findings of Pyrgiotakis' 1976 research are presented below. The sample of the research was 436 primary teachers who were surveyed by questionnaire.

The outcomes of the research confirmed the argument that teaching has been used as a social bridge to cross the path between the social classes. More specifically: 57.3% of male primary teachers and 38.2% of female came from farming families with 17.2% male and 21.4% female deriving from working class families (manual workers and various technicians). It is also interesting to notice that the vast majority of the primary teachers at that time (1976) came from villages: 72.9% male, 37.7% female.

FIGURE 1: *Place of residence of primary teachers in Greece (1976)*

The profession, as it was argued in the research, is still fed by socio-economic classes that live mainly in villages and small towns. The fact that a majority of female teachers came from cities (39.6%) is not difficult to explain. It reflects attitudes and values of a certain part of the urban population concerning the role and prospects of women.

When asked about the reasons that made students choose this specific profession, the majority of male teachers argued that external pressures - such as, for instance, insufficient time or finances for longer training - dominated personal interest and inclination. During the seventies immediate appointment by the state was almost guaranteed. There was a slight differentiation in the responses of female teachers however, external factors played a significant role in their choice.

This indirect disapproval of the profession on behalf of its practitioners, reflects a personal dissatisfaction and again perpetuates low image. It is important to note that such attitudes did not necessarily relate to the nature of their work. Most respondents felt happy with the job itself. Disaffection emanated from its status. It is also interesting to note that 70% of the respondents did not wish their sons and daughters to follow the same occupation. This response confirms the argument that teaching was only regarded as a bridge from which teachers' offspring could attain higher social levels, for both themselves and ultimately, their parents.

Finally, in this specific research, teachers, according to their responses, felt that in the prestige scale, their profession was placed below the academic professions although beyond that of priests and manual workers. They also expressed the opinion that they were quite highly regarded by low socio-economic groups (the groups from which they came), whereas other groups (civil servants, rich landowners, scientists) did not manifest the same respect for the teaching profession. They identified as reasons for the low status, the low financial rewards, the nature of the profession (teachers are a social mediator between the children and the society) and the fact that the results and outcomes of their work are not immediately quantifiable. According to primary teachers' opinions, secondary teachers drew their (higher) status from the scientific area that they represented – mathematicians, biologists – rather than from the quality of teaching itself.

The above mentioned research described accurately the social position of the primary teachers in Greece, as it was in the mid-1970s. Since that time there have been some developments which have had an impact on the profession. In 1984 the Pedagogical Departments were established as autonomous units within the existing universities. This development meant that teachers' education and therefore future teachers would be both academically and socially upgraded. It was considered as the major achievement of the profession in this century. Furthermore, primary teachers' salaries became equal to those of other civil servants and those secondary teachers who had enjoyed university education.

In 1985, after the introduction of Primary Teaching Departments (PTDs), further research was conducted by Folerou and Friderikou (1991). The research was undertaken in the second half of the eighties. Its results drew an accurate picture of the profession just before the consequences of the upgrading of the profession were felt. It showed that 54% of the sample came from villages (67% male and 44% female teachers) while 58% of male and 34% of female teachers' fathers were farmers, technicians or workers in the primary sector of the economy.

In 1985, then, primary teachers still originated from the lower socio-economic groups of society. Reasons for their occupational choice and the motives that lead them to the profession must be searched in the characteristics of the group. 83% of the males and 56% of the females sampled claimed that they had chosen teaching as a profession as the only way of 'escaping' from their environment, as a 'compulsory choice'. 10% of female teachers of the sample maintained that they were directly forced by their families to follow the profession, mainly because it had a short training period and because the Academies were close to their homes. In short their choice was an obligatory one, and not related in anyway to their ability, interests or ambitions. Only 23% of the respondents (17% male and 32% female) admitted that they had chosen the profession because of personal interest. It was interesting to note the difference in the responses between male and female teachers reflecting such diversity in the 1976 research (see Figure 1).

The research also reveals some other aspects of the profession as they occurred shortly after the upgrading of primary teacher training. According to teachers' opinions, primary teachers in Greece still felt part of a second-class profession, manifested by continuing low salary and lack of self-fulfilment It was realised by some that at least their position had the potential (albeit uncertain) to upgrade their status eventually. Like many other countries, teaching was not seen as an attractive option but as one way of escaping from the lower echelons of society while achieving a position with security. The fact that Pedagogical Academies for training primary teachers were established close to some small cities was another factor which made the profession more appealing to both parents and students. Things have changed now. There is an increase of Universities in many regions in Greece: a move away from university education being focused in important cities like Athens, Thessaloniki and Patras. Furthermore, Pedagogical Academies (with two years training) do not exist. Today students must study for four years in order to become qualified primary teachers.

Unfortunately, other problems now beset the process of primary teacher training. Unemployment has increased considerably among primary teachers as a result of governmental policies (recruitment of teachers with short training

courses, over-production of teachers by the PTDs in the past, etc,). Today the list of qualified teachers, waiting to be appointed by the state, has reached a level of 20,000 and, as is shown in the subsequent section of this paper, these figures are increasing every year. Despite these statistics, students are still choosing the PTDs for their tertiary education.

Vassilou-Papageorgiou (1992) sums up the position, the status and the prospects of primary teachers in Greece:

- One of the main characteristics of the primary teaching profession is that most of its practitioners had short professional training.
- The percentage of women teachers is very high compared to the overall representation of women in national employment statistics. 50% of primary teachers are women, while only 35.9% are employed in other areas.
- The standards for entering the profession are not set by teachers themselves but by the State.
- The salary is that of a civil servant.
- Job prospects are not encouraging.

Vassilou-Papageorgiou (*ibid.*) claims that the establishment of University departments for teacher training has the potential to counter the negative image of teachers, still perpetuated by public opinion. Teachers see that as an opportunity to establish themselves among the professions with prestige and status. For the time being though, this is no more than an chimera of positive prospects as unemployment increases.

Reality in schools

The following comment by Bouzakis (1992: 29) puts the above situation into sharp perspective:

"There are today 19,052 unemployed primary school teachers. If one calculates that every year about 1,500 teachers are hired and that in addition the birth rates are declining, then a new teacher can expect to wait fifteen years before being hired!"

The following figures underline the situation even more succinctly: (Source: Ministry of Education, unpublished statistics)

FIGURE 2: *Pupil numbers in primary education*
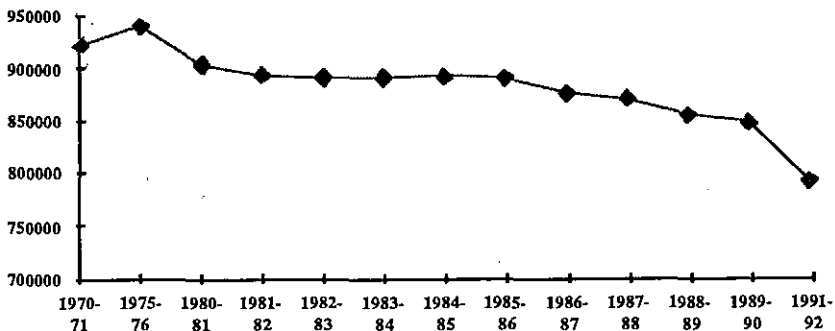
The above chart clarifies the decline in the total population of primary pupils in Greece during the last few decades. At the same time, as Figure 3 indicates, the number of teachers in primary education increased considerably during the seventies, after which they have remained constant.

FIGURE 3: *Primary teachers in service 1970/1 - 1991/2*
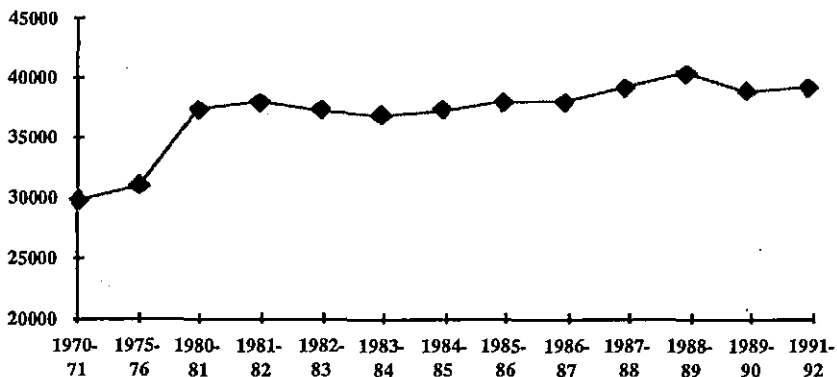
A justification for the increase in teacher numbers has been verified in terms of policy-making, with reference to the fact that the pupil-teacher ratio was reduced to desired levels (approx. 21 pupils per teacher). This is shown in Figure 4.

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FIGURE 4: Pupil-Teacher ratio in primary schools in Greece.
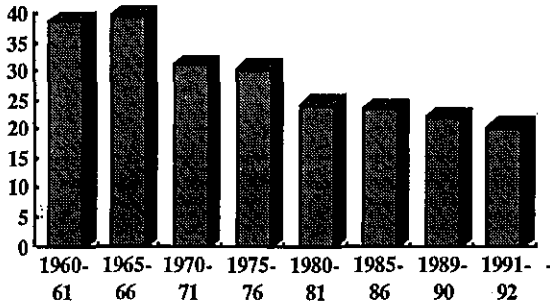
It seems that once the desired pupil-teacher ratio reached desired levels, the number of primary teachers was stabilised. One would expect an appropriate response by the state to control the number of students studying to become teachers, since, on the one hand birth rates were declining (141,000 in 1981, 103,000 in 1991). On the other hand, the declarations and the policies that followed implied greater controlling of university students numbers.

Government response was interesting, if irrational. In 1982, in order to confront the unemployment in other professions, the government allowed graduates from other departments in universities to continue their studies in the second year of the Pedagogical Academies after success in examinations which, in fact, were no more than a formality (Pyrgiotakis 1992). The demand for such transition was very high, as employment in the teaching profession, at that time, was guaranteed. Those who, for various reasons, did not manage to get accepted, along with other undergraduates, went abroad for short training courses (mainly one year courses in former Yugoslavia). Such training proved to be of dubious quality. The state, however, decided to recognise these qualifications and thus these graduates achieved similar rights for employment as graduates in Greek institutions (Pedagogical Academies as they then were). Today there are 7,000 graduates from such institutions working in Greek primary schools.

After 1986, when greater numbers of students were accepted in university departments for training as primary teachers (part of a general policy of increasing university students), it was inevitable that the profession would be hit by unemployment. In 1985 there were 8,657 students enrolled in the Pedagogical Academies and in 1991 the corresponding number was 18,060. Indeed, the first

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waiting list of primary teachers searching for employment appeared in 1986 and it has been increasing ever since. It is now more or less generally admitted that 'in any event teachers who are waiting for a job must be retrained after ten or fifteen years' (Bouzakis 1992: 29).

FIGURE 5: *The increase in unemployed primary teachers*
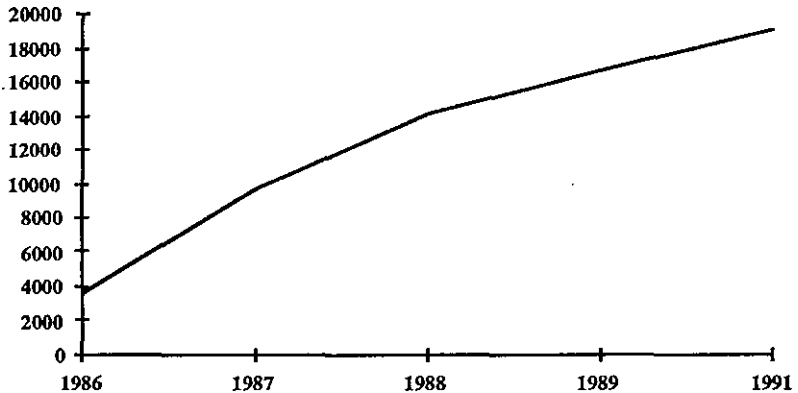
It is obvious from the above that the current situation in the area of primary teachers reflects the same problems that Greek Higher Education faces in general. Inappropriate planning and policies have resulted in a system which cannot claim success in the achievement of basic educational goals. As the situation continues to deteriorate, the need for a more efficient and effective intervention on behalf of the state is now acute. Such information is vital to place the following research into perspective.

Statistical analysis of the characteristics of PTD students

This paper is seeking to understand the individual demand for Primary Teachers Departments (PTDs) of Greek universities. In short, what factors influence students choosing to study in these departments? It is the writers' belief that only the understanding and appreciation of the individual demand for the PTDs can equip planners and policy-makers to produce relevant and effective policies in the area of higher education as a whole.

This section attempts to expose individual demand for PTDs in Greece, by examining the various characteristics that distinguish the PTD students in Greece. As has already been noted, such characteristics touch upon the socio-economic background of the students, as well as their schooling and the broad areas of disciplines which they choose to follow in their last year of schooling.

First year primary teaching students were sampled in 1993, in three institutions. One hundred and ninety questionnaires were returned from the three departments, representing a 61% response. Thirty six responses emanated from the PTD of University of Aegean in Rhodes (representing 51% of registered student for primary training), seventy responses came from the University of Patras (72% of the intake) while eighty two derived from the University of Salonica (58.6%). The sample represents 20.65% of the total number of first year students undertaking primary teaching in Greek universities (920) and an average of 59.4% of first year students in the three institutions targeted.

As it can be observed in Table 1 the sample consisted of 33 male and 154 female students. Table 2 indicates the appropriate percentage of each gender in relation to total student numbers studying at PTDs.

TABLE 1: Gender of the respondents

	Frequency	%
Male	33	17.4
Female	154	82.4
N.A.	3	0.2

TABLE 2: Distribution of students in PTDs (1989-90)

	Male	Female
Total	1652	7674
%	17.7	82.3

The above figures also indicate that the sample represented quite accurately the whole population under consideration, as relevant statistics concerning the students in the PTDs. The sample confirms the general trend of female interest in primary education. The data is supported by trends in other OECD countries: in France, for instance, 71.3% of primary teachers are female, in Italy the figure is 88.9%, while in the UK it is 78.4% (OECD. 1990).

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The socio-economic background of the students

Parental level of education

Table 3 indicates clear patterns of education levels of respondents' fathers.

TABLE 3: Level of education of respondents' fathers

Level of education	Frequency	%
Illiterate/some primary education	10	5.3
Primary school graduate	69	36.3
Lower secondary school	26	13.7
Upper secondary school	30	15.8
Lower technical school	3	1.6
Middle technical school	8	4.2
Upper technical school	9	4.7
Pedagogical / PE Academies	6	3.2
Other non-University Higher Education	2	1.1
University Degree	21	11.1
Post-graduate education	5	2.6
Missing	1	0.5
Total	**190**	**100**

From the comparison of these figures with those presented earlier in the paper, one can assume that families, with low educational levels, continue to be the source of recruitment for future primary teachers. This is further confirmed when the level of education of the mothers of the students is examined (Table 4).

It is obvious from all this data that the vast majority of the students come from families of very low educational levels. Indeed, it is worth noting that sixty respondents (34.7%) come from families where both mother and father have only had a primary school education. Undoubtedly, there is an implicit ambition to assume greater educational prestige than their parents.

The examination of the data concerning the parental level of education reveals that there is a very specific family educational background from which the PTD

students derive. In order to make the picture clearer, the examination of parental occupation is now necessary. Such an examination will show whether there is also a general trend in family occupational backgrounds. The combination of the information concerning education and occupation of the family should allow us to identify the possible social origins of the PTD students.

Parental occupation

Table 5 indicates that most of the students studying to become teachers derive from a certain economic background which is indicated by the parental occupation and, more specifically, by the work of the father. A considerable number of students (41.1%) recorded that their fathers were either farmers (13.7%) or workers, skilled or unskilled, (27.4%). Only 4.2% of the students' fathers were employed in scientific or managerial professions.

TABLE 4: Level of education of respondents' mothers

Mother's education	Frequency	%
Illiterate/some primary education	14	7.4
Primary school graduate	84	44.2
Lower secondary school	27	14.2
Upper secondary school	29	15.3
Lower technical school	3	1.6
Middle technical school	3	1.6
Upper technical school	1	0.5
Pedagogical / PE Academies	8	4.2
Other non-University Higher Education	6	3.2
University Degree	12	6.3
Post-graduate education	0	0
Missing	3	1.6
Total	**190**	**100**

In the 'other' category, the following data was listed: army officers (4), priests (5), policemen (4), self-employed (4), retired persons (3) and unemployed (1).

There are some interesting points that can be observed from the above table:

- It is quite clear that PTD students derived from the lower and middle socio-economic groups of the Greek society. According to the sample, the percentage of students that emanated from such groups (civil servants, employed in the 'services', teachers, farmers and workers) was 71.1%.
- The percentage of PTD students who come from teaching families is quite low. (8.9%).

From the above it can be assumed that teaching as a profession is still a step in the social ladder, a chance for the offsprings of families enjoying relatively low status in Greek society, to 'escape' from that position.

The analysis of the data concerning occupation of mothers (Table 6) does not alter that picture, as most of them (117) are housewives, implying that the only source of income in the families under examination derives from the occupation of the father. It is interesting to note that, according to the OECD (1990), only 35.9% of the labour force in Greece is women. Furthermore, according to the national statistics (1988) only 35.1% of the women are 'active' in terms of employment. The figures below, therefore, highlight that the high percentage of mothers as housewives among the respondents, is in accordance with national figures.

TABLE 5: Occupation of fathers of PTD students

Occupation	Frequency	%
Scientific profession	7	3.7
Managerial position	1	0.5
Civil service	19	10.0
Other services	21	11.1
Teachers	17	8.9
Farmers	26	13.7
Skilled/unskilled workers	52	27.4
Merchants/shop-owners	19	10.0
Other	24	12.6
non stated	4	2.1
Total	**190**	**100**

TABLE 6: Occupation of respondents' mothers

Occupation	Frequency	%
Scientific profession	5	2.6
Managerial position	0	0
Civil service	17	8.9
Other services	12	6.3
Teachers	13	6.8
Farmers	2	1.1
Skilled/unskilled workers	7	3.7
Merchants/shop-owners	0	0
Other	8	4.2
Housewives	117	61.6
Missing	9	4.7
Total	**190**	**100**

Frangoudaki (1985) and Kassimati (1991) claim that higher social groups 'favour' studies that lead to 'free' professions (such as managerial and scientific occupations), whereas lower social classes ones are oriented towards studies that lead to either the civil service or other state employment. It seems, therefore, that educational, and, therefore occupational decisions, are strongly influenced by social parameters, with the family being the most dominant.

In order to complete the socio-economic portrait of the PTD students it is necessary to consider location of residence and the size of their family. Previous research indicates that these factors affect educational choice and occupation. The writers wished to confirm such claims. The research demonstrated that there is now a clear tendency for PTD students to come from an urban environment (72 %) with 9% emanating from towns and 19% from villages. It is also interesting to note that students mainly derive from relatively small families with 77.4 % of the sample having no more than two siblings.

Having analysed the first set of questions, one could clearly identify the socio-economic back ground of the PTD students in Greece. It is apparent that the Primary Teachers Training departments are fed, to a very large extent, by very specific parts of Greek society: *small, urban 'working class' families, with both parents having relatively low educational levels.* Additionally, it should be stated that the increasing feminisation of the profession is obvious among the first year

students of the PTDs. All the above characteristics define the target group for possible policy interventions.

Secondary observations

A closer examination of the data acquired reveals other interesting points. If the place of residence and the paternal level of education are cross-tabulated, it becomes clear that the vast majority of the students living in villages or towns (41/ 52 or 76.9%) had fathers who had not completed secondary education (Table 7). At a national level the percentage of people living in the rural areas who have not completed secondary education is 70.7%. (Kassimati 1991).

TABLE 7: Parental education (regional analysis)

	Rural Areas		Urban Areas	
Occupation	**father**	**mother**	**father**	**mother**
Illiterate/some primary education	4	5	5	8
Primary education	29	32	40	51
Lower secondary education	9	10	28	23
Upper secondary education	4	3	25	26
Non-University Higher Ed.	3	2	14	13
University	3	–	23	12
Total	**52**	**52**	**135**	**133**

It is therefore possible to propose that policy interventions should be aiming at students living in rural areas, whose parents have not completed secondary education.

The school and the exams

Having identified the socio-economic area from which the PTD students are most likely to come, one should try to be even more specific and distinguish some other characteristics of the students, in order to form a clearer initial picture of the individual demand for these departments: the type of school from which these students graduated (state or private) and the stream in which they pursued their last (preparatory) year in school.

In Greece there are 62 private secondary (fee-paying) schools (taking 5.6% of the total pupil population). These schools are evidently more traditional and more prestigious (Greek Ministry of Education, unpublished statistics). The fact that these schools are fee-paying makes them, to a large extent, non-affordable for low-income families. In our sample of PTD students the representation of private school graduates is much lower than the national level, as Table 8 shows.

TABLE 8: Type of secondary attended by first year PTD students

Type of school	Frequency	%
Private	5	2.6
State	184	97.4
N.A.	1	0.5

97.4% of the respondents graduated from state schools with only 2.6% from private schools (less that half the national percentage) providing further confirmation of the origins of PTD students.

Students in Greece can follow one of four curriculum 'routes' during their last year at school, according to their areas of interest. Their choice determines the broad area of disciplines that they will eventually follow for their tertiary education. It has already been stated that the respondents come from specific curriculum routes (Science and Maths), rather than all four of them.

TABLE 9: Curriculum route pursued by PTD students in school

Route followed	Frequency	%
1st	2	1.1
2nd	1	0.5
3rd	131	68.9
4th	55	28.9
N.A.	1	0.5

Table 9 shows that almost all (97.8%) the respondents came from the third or fourth curriculum route, or, in other words, from the routes that lead to humanities (route 3) or to studies related to business and economics (route 4). It could

be assumed, therefore, that these two streams are the ones that feed almost exclusively the PTDs. In other words students who end up in these departments are oriented either towards humanities or towards business.

It is interesting to notice the differences with the national distribution of students according to the curriculum routes that they followed in the 1992-93 academic year.

TABLE 10: Curriculum route followed by final year students (1993)

Route followed	%
1st	43
2nd	8
3rd	22
4th	27

(Source: Greek Ministry of Education, Unpublished Statistics)

The above table provides a sharper focus in our attempt to understand those who choose primary teaching as a profession. In short, apart from the specific socio-economic background identified in the initial set of questions, there is also another characteristic of the PTD students: their area of academic interest, declared by their choice of the four curriculum routes, which leads them to pursue training in one of Greece's Teachers Training Departments.

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to focus on one area of primary teacher training in Greece through examinations of social origins, characteristics and qualifications of entrants to primary teaching and its role in social mobility. Other vital issues such as the inadequacy of national planning, manifested in the fact that vast numbers of trained teachers wait years to take up a position in schools due to the imbalance between supply and demand, will be the theme for a future paper. This research has shown that despite future unemployment prospects, primary teaching is seen as one way of rising from the lower social echelons. This paper has deliberately not focused on other choices currently available to students, although indeed some mention has been made above. This theme will be investigated in a future paper.

There are clearly ambiguities, conflicts and misapprehensions in the pursuit of training primary teachers. Strong vocational elements and commitment to the teaching profession are subordinated by the directed curriculum route and parental ambitions. There is clearly a need for a realignment of education at secondary level which should provide greater flexibility and opportunity of choice. Furthermore, the government should confront the fact that, despite training, there is little likelihood that student teachers will succeed in attaining a position in the short-term. A reassessment of the whole process of teacher training is evidently required while, more significantly perhaps, the Greek government needs to adopt a more creative and strategic approach to educational planning as whole.

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TEACHING AND LEARNING OF MIDDLE SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES IN TURKEY: AN ANALYSIS OF CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

ALI YILDIRIM

Abstract – *This study investigates how teachers and students assess curriculum implementation in social studies courses at middle school in Turkey. Through a survey questionnaire, teachers and students were asked to express their perceptions of the curriculum guidelines, course objectives, materials and instructional and evaluation procedures. The results indicated that the curriculum guidelines assist teachers in selection of the topics and their sequence in all social studies courses. However, they do not leave much room for flexibility to the individual teacher in these aspects. Teachers find less help in the guidelines in terms of determining instructional methods, materials and evaluation strategies they use in their class. The curriculum focuses mostly on transmission of knowledge while other significant goals like developing thinking skills, positive attitudes toward the subject are emphasized to a lesser degree, and this orientation seems to be reflected in implementation as well. The most common approach to classroom instruction in social studies is recitation and lecturing followed by student presentation. The use of materials other than the course textbook is very limited, and textbook-related activity (e.g., reading) is the common mode of homework assignment given to the students. Short-answer test and oral exams are the most common mode of student evaluation in social studies classes.*

Introduction

This study is part of a larger research project designed to investigate social studies teaching at middle and high school level in Turkey. The purpose of this paper specifically is to assess curriculum implementation in social studies courses at the middle school level from the perspectives of teachers and students.

Although the literature presents a variety of perspectives about the purpose of social studies, the broad goal of social studies can be defined as follows: "To prepare youth so that they possess the knowledge, values, and skills needed for active participation in society" (Marker and Mehlinger 1992: 832). There seems to be an agreement that social studies education has four major elements: knowledge, skills, values, and participation. The knowledge component includes

relevant facts and data, concepts and generalisations, and explanatory theories; the skills component requires students to acquire, judge and process information; the values component refers to democratic principles and commitment; finally, the participation component helps students gain experience in the practice of citizenship in the society (National Council for the Social Studies, 1979).

Citizenship is the ultimate justification for social studies teaching to many educators. Social studies is viewed as an important part of general education especially in its function in contributing to educating democratic citizens. *"The democratic citizen is not to be understood merely in the classic 'good citizenship' sense of one who is patriotic, loyal, and obedient to the state; rather the good citizen is also a critic of the state, one who is able and willing to participate in its improvement"* (Engle and Ochoa 1988: 3). In this sense, social studies for middle school students is especially critical because they begin to form their own values, life views, and modes of living during that period. In addition, *"social studies is the study of people and their interactions with one another. It focuses directly on human events and human behavior"* (Ellis et al. 1991: 5). So the challenge for social studies teaching at this level is to reach a reasonable accommodation between socialisation of youth and the development of their critical capabilities. To achieve this goal successfully, social studies curriculum should include topics that engage students' interests, respond to their needs in daily life and develop their perspectives in thinking about social issues. In addition, *"learning activities should be varied because of the short attention span of students; they should include both physical and social involvement, such as role playing and simulations, and should involve both inquiry and didactic teaching and learning"* (Hartoonian & Laughlin 1989: 395).

To what degree do we achieve these goals in teaching social studies? What type of instructional environment do we create in teaching social studies and what kind of impact does it have on our students? The literature indicates that teaching of social studies suffers heavily from dull learning environment, routine instructional activities and student misconceptions about the subject matter. Students feel that both social studies subject matter and teaching methods are simply boring because of passive learning and little variety in teaching methods. In addition, students do not perceive social studies as particularly interesting and important because they find little meaning for their future lives. Ellis et al. (1991) attribute this perception to social educators' poor performance in communicating the importance of social studies to young people. Shaughnessy and Haladyna (1985) found in their review of research that one of the least favorite subjects of students in elementary and secondary schools is social studies. Actually, their negative attitudes toward social studies become more prevalent in higher grade levels. Other studies also indicate that students do not view social studies as

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particularly important and do not remember any significant activity from those classes, suggesting that the classroom environment and teacher instructional decisions might be at least partially responsible for producing such negative student attitudes. Supporting this view, a large scale study on social studies in the 1980s (Project SPAN-Social Studies Priorities, Practice, and Needs) revealed that active learning methods such as·inquiry, discovery, community-based learning, and simulations were rarely used in social studies classes (Social Science Education consortium, Inc., 1982).

The 1984 NCSS Bulletin (No: 72), *Citizenship and the Critical Role of the Social Studies*, provided an extensive list of recommendations to create an active learning environment in social studies classrooms and to have a positive impact on students' citizenship skills. They included carrying out social-political action projects (e.g. becoming involved in political campaigns and working with legislators), community projects (e.g., student work in health clinics), student volunteer services (e.g., work in day care centers), community study (e.g., survey of attitudes on current issues), and internships (e.g. time spent with prosecutors, welfare workers). In addition, the Bulletin suggested that teachers should assess their own teaching methods and plan to incorporate a new technique each year, provide students with at least one term learning experience each year that requires initiative and active participation, focus on skills involving active acquisition of information, organising and using it, and increasing interpersonal relationships and social participation, take advantage of programmes and projects that require active involvement, and involve students in recruiting and using community resource people (Parker and Jarolimek: 1984). These recommendations show that there are a variety of ways to make social studies instruction more active and meaningful for the students.

In Turkey's middle schools, social studies are organised separately around three academic disciplines, namely History, Geography and Civics. History is taught for three years (grades 6-8) while Geography for two (grades 6 and 7) and Civics for one (grade 8). There is no specific programme training Civics teachers; Civics is a minor for Geography and History teachers. However, in practice, since the teaching load is heavy for History teachers, Geography teachers generally are given the responsibility to teach Civics.

Until 1984, an integrated approach was used in designing the curriculum and teaching in social studies in middle schools. However, in 1984, the Ministry of Education adapted a separate organisation for social studies courses because of the belief that it allowed a rigorous and intellectually demanding focus during instruction. This approach has allowed the strict control of the process and contents of subject matter, and textbooks have served as the major element of structure in curriculum (Yildirim 1994).

Clear, detailed and well-organised curriculum guides having curricular validity in the eyes of local educators may be an effective tool for teachers in social studies instruction (Archbald 1994). The curriculum for any social studies course in all primary and secondary schools in Turkey is prepared and approved by the Ministry of National Education (MONE). All teachers have to use the centrally designed curriculum in their respective area. Their course plans and implementation in the classroom are checked on a regular basis each academic year by the MONE inspectors to oversee the teachers' compliance with the standard curriculum. Although the curriculum guidelines vary in terms of their length, detail and approach, any curriculum includes at least the goals and objectives of the course and the list of units and topics to be taught.

A typical middle school social studies curriculum guideline outlines the objectives, explanations about the implementation of the guideline and the major topics. There is a separate curriculum guideline for each social studies course (History, Geography, and Civics). In the objectives section, the curriculum guideline specifies the related knowledge, skills and attitudes that will be developed in students. For example, in the History curriculum guidelines which have a total of nine general objectives, the first objective states that *"students should understand the significance of Turkish Nation in World History, its honorable past and status, the service to humankind and developing world culture and civilization"* (Ministry of National Education, 1984). The guidelines do not specify behavioral objectives for instruction as it is done in some primary school level curriculum guidelines. In the explanations section, the teacher is provided with some suggestions and directions as regard to instruction, assignments, evaluation of students success. In this section, links are made to course objectives, and ways to reach them are outlined in general terms. For example, in the History curriculum guidelines, teachers are urged to take their students to the museums or historical sites to establish connection between the content and the related historical artifacts and documents. Finally, in the topics section, topics and sub-topics are listed for each middle school grade. The content outline is very much like the table of contents of a textbook. No content explanations or directions are provided in this section. These characteristics apply to most curriculum guidelines at middle school level.

The standardised curriculum has an immense impact on teaching practices since it controls the scope and sequence, and does not allow much flexibility to the teacher. In the past few years, there have been intensive discussions at the MONE level on relaxing this strict control over the course curricula to allow more teacher flexibility, adaptation, input and creativity in practice, but it appears that it is unlikely to put this idea into practice in the near future.

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The goals of social studies instruction fall into four categories: knowledge, skills, values and participation. All these goals are more or less evident in the curriculum guidelines for all three social studies courses. In addition, the guidelines recommend the use of various instructional materials and strategies to involve students in their learning more actively. However, it remains unclear as to what degree social studies teaching leads to achieving the main goals stated above. It is also unclear about how the curriculum is perceived and actualised by both teachers and students. Despite a long standing commitment to social studies education in middle schools in Turkey, relatively few researchers have examined the substance of classroom life, teachers' and students' experiences, and the outcomes of actual curriculum implementation for students. In this sense, the perceptions of teachers and students in social studies courses might be important in understanding the social studies teaching and learning process, and their possible impact on students.

Methods

The study design included 88 middle schools in 22 provinces representing the seven geographic regions in Turkey. These schools were selected by the Ministry of National Education's Educational Research and Development Directorate randomly by taking into consideration the criteria given by the researcher. The criteria included representation of all seven geographic regions, 2-4 provinces in each geographic area, and 3-6 schools in each province. The selected schools were considered representative of the middle schools in Turkey. The main data sources were History, Geography and Civics (referred to as social studies hereafter) teachers and students taking any of these courses at all three grade levels. While all social studies teachers in the selected schools were asked to participate in the study, a stratified random sampling technique was used to select students representing all grade levels and different social studies courses.

Two separate questionnaires were designed for these two groups to explore their perceptions of the teaching and learning process in social studies courses. The teacher questionnaire had two closely parallel versions: one asked the History teachers to evaluate History courses while the other asked the Geography teachers to evaluate Geography and Civics courses together since Geography teachers generally taught Civics as well. The student questionnaire had six parallel versions designed for each social studies course at each grade level, asking students to evaluate a specific social studies course they were taking.

The questionnaires included both open- and close-ended questions on the quality of the curriculum guidelines, the degree of success in achieving curriculum

goals through teaching, the perceptions of course objectives, content, materials and instructional and evaluation procedures.

The questionnaires and were mailed to one social studies teacher in each sampled school. This person administered both teacher and student questionnaires and sent them back to the researcher. As a result, a total of 262 teacher (out of 360 mailed) and 1203 student (out of 1600 mailed) questionnaires were secured for analysis. This represented a 73% return rate for the teacher sample and 75% for the student sample.

The study sample represented both History and Geography teachers almost equally (49% and 51% respectively). Teachers formed three main groups in terms of their field of study during their pre-service education programs. More than one third (36%) studied Geography; 33% Social Studies and 27% History. A minority (4%) were educated in other subjects like Theology, Mathematics and Geology but somehow were hired to teach social studies courses as a result of lack of sufficient number of subject specific teachers available. Since History, Geography and Civics were taught together under Social Studies until 1984, there had been programmes training social studies teachers before 1984. Later, they were converted to subject specific programmes like History or Geography. As a result, it has become a reality for Turkish middle schools to have both social studies and subject specific teachers under the same roof teaching similar courses.

Both female and male teachers were almost equally represented in the study (51% and 49% respectively). More than half of the teachers had 11-20 years of teaching experience (59%) while 21% had 1-10 years and 20% more than 20 years of teaching experience. The majority of teachers (67%) had a four year undergraduate degree in a subject area, while close to one third (30%) graduated from a three year teacher training institute. Only few (3%) had master's or doctoral degrees. More than four-fifths of the teachers (81%) taught more than 25 hours per week, indicating the heavy teaching load on a typical middle school teacher. Of those, 55% indicated more than 30 hours of teaching load per week. The number of students in a class also influences the quality of teaching and learning process to a certain degree. Close to two thirds of the teachers (64%) had more than 40 students in their class while 28% had between 31-40 and only 8% had less than 31 students.

The student sample represented different social studies subject areas: History covering all three middle school grades were represented by 610 students, Geography covering 6th and 7th grades by 418 and Civics at the 8th grade by 175. Of the whole student sample, 47% were female and 53% male. In terms of the education level of students' parents, the mothers had an average of primary and the fathers had an average of middle school education.

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Descriptive (mainly percentages and means) and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data collected through close-ended questions. Both separate and combined analyses were conducted on teacher and student questionnaires by subject area to see whether there were subject specific differences in their responses. The responses to the questions were more or less consistent across all social studies subject areas, therefore, combined analyses were used to reach the results for this paper. In addition, t-test and ANOVA were used to analyse the differences in the responses based on certain background variables, and the results indicated that most of the background variables did not cause any significant difference in the subjects' perceptions. Thematic categories were established to analyse the open-ended data. In this process, a sample of questionnaires (approximately 30 from each group) were selected randomly, and responses were categorised according to the main themes identified. Then all open-ended data were coded and analysed according to these categories.

Results

Results are organised in two parts. First, teachers' perceptions of the curriculum guidelines they use in teaching History, Geography and/or Civics are examined. Then, both teachers' and students' assessment of the teaching and learning process in social studies courses in terms of teaching/learning activities, instructional materials, types of assignments and evaluation methods used are presented.

Teachers' perceptions of curriculum guidelines

As mentioned above, instruction in Turkish primary and secondary schools is greatly affected by the centralised curriculum design at and inspection by the Ministry of National Education (MONE). Every teacher is supposed to follow the standardised curriculum guidelines at both planning and instruction stages. Recent curriculum guidelines produced by the MONE allow a certain level of flexibility in determining the content, method and evaluation of instruction in order to meet the contextual needs and give the teacher a certain level of freedom in creating an effective teaching and learning environment.

In the first section of the questionnaire, teachers were asked to evaluate the course curriculum guideline prepared by the MONE in terms of its contribution to determining the scope and sequence, preparing yearly and unit plans, choosing appropriate teaching strategies, course related materials and evaluation strategies. Table 1 presents their responses.

TABLE 1: *Impact of Curriculum Guideline on Teacher Planning and Instructional Activities*

ACTIVITIES	VH (5)	H (4)	SH (3)	LH (2)	NH (1)	**MEAN**	N
Determining the topics to be taught	35.6	23.5	30.0	2.8	8.1	**3.76**	247
Deciding on the sequence of the topics	37.1	22.9	29.0	2.9	8.2	**3.78**	245
Preparing yearly plans	49.2	26.6	20.1	·1.6	2.5	**4.19**	244
Preparing unit plans	30.6	20.9	29.1	4.6	14.8	**3.48**	196
Choosing/using appropriate teaching strategies	–	6.6	35.8	32.1	25.5	**2.24**	243
Choosing/using course-related materials	.8	3.3	41.0	28.3	26.6	**2.23**	244
Choosing/using evaluation strategies	1.2	2.0	46.1	31.0	19.6	**2.34**	245

VH=Very Helpful, H=Helpful, SH=Somewhat Helpful, LH=Of Little Help,
NH=Not Helpful.

In this table and the following ones, the data are presented in percentages and means, and N's for each item vary due to missing responses.

The responses indicate that the teachers find the curriculum guidelines prepared centrally helpful in certain respects but not very helpful in others. The guidelines appears to be assisting the teacher in determining the course topics to be taught and their sequence at a certain grade level. The curriculum guidelines are found most helpful in preparing the annual plans which every teacher must design and seek approval for from the school principal at the beginning of the academic year. The teachers also receive a good amount of help from the guidelines in preparing unit plans but not as much as in the case of the annual plans. One reason might be that the curriculum guidelines are usually not very detailed in terms of objectives and classroom activities. Such details must appear in every unit plan. The teacher may therefore not depend entirely on the guidelines in preparing the unit plans.

The respondents find the curriculum less helpful in choosing and using appropriate teaching strategies, course-related materials and evaluation strategies. These results indicate that the curriculum guidelines draw the boundaries of instruction in terms of the scope and sequence, but do not contribute much to classroom activities. This has been the·traditional approach to centrally guided teaching. The content is controlled strictly in terms of what will be taught and in what sequence, and how much time will be spent on each topic. However, the questions of how this content is taught, what kinds of support materials should be

used and how, and how student learning of the content should be evaluated are not dealt in the curriculum guidelines to the degree that they assist the teacher in increasing the quality of teaching.

With regard to the use of curriculum guidelines, the teachers were also asked to comment on the extent to which it allowed flexibility in carrying out the same activities mentioned above. The results are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2: Flexibility Provided by Curriculum Guideline in Teacher Planning and Instructional Activities

ACTIVITIES	VF (5)	F (4)	SF (3)	LF (2)	NF (1)	**MEAN**	N
Determining the topics to be taught	–	2.1	47.1	21.4	29.4	**2.22**	238
Deciding on the sequence of the topics	1.2	10.2	56.6	18.3	13.6	**2.67**	235
Preparing yearly plans	.4	10.1	42.8	29.6	17.0	**2.49**	229
Preparing unit plans	1.6	14.3	39.0	23.1	22.0	**2.51**	182
Choosing/using appropriate teaching strategies	14.0	24.2	39.0	7.2	15.7	**3.14**	236
Choosing/using course-related materials	9.5	22.0	42.7	10.8	15.1	**3.00**	232
Choosing/using evaluation strategies	14.0	17.9	41.0	9.2	17.9	**3.01**	229

VF=Very Flexible, F=Flexible, SF=Somewhat Flexible, LF=Limited Flexibility, NF=Not Flexible.

Teachers find little flexibility in the curriculum guidelines in determining the topics to be taught, deciding on the sequence of the topics, preparing yearly and unit plans. In particular, flexibility is very limited in the selection of topics. Teachers find a little more flexibility in doing the yearly and unit plans as well as determining the sequence. Flexibility is greater in the areas of teaching strategies, selection of course-related materials and determining evaluation strategies. These findings are in line with those discussed in Table 1. Since the curriculum guidelines do not provide much help in these areas, teachers feel they enjoy somewhat more flexibility in deciding and using appropriate teaching activities, materials and evaluation methods. Furthermore, since the guidelines strictly control the determination of the topics and their sequence, it gives a limited flexibility to the teachers in these respects in addition to preparing yearly and unit plans.

Any curriculum has a certain emphasis in terms of content, skills, attitudes and other areas in teaching. Some curricula attempt to establish a balance among different purposes while others give priority to one or more of them and ignore others to a large degree. Within this context, teachers were asked to indicate the level of significance the curriculum guidelines placed on different kinds of purposes. As summarised in Table 3, teachers perceive that the curriculum guidelines mainly focuses on transmission of subject specific content, and all other purposes are attended to a lesser degree in the guidelines. This perception may have important implications for instructional practices in the classroom. The teaching process may focus mainly on presenting knowledge and asking it back in the exams, and ignore other important goals like developing positive attitudes toward the subject area, improving thinking, study/research skills, and social skills which we need to contribute to social life and lead a productive life. These are the areas almost any educational system emphasises in its general education goals, however, they seem to be less stressed in the specific subject curriculum.

TABLE 3: Level of Significance Placed on Different Purposes by Curriculum Guideline

PURPOSES	VS (5)	S (4)	SS (3)	LS (2)	NS (1)	MEAN	N
Teaching of knowledge (e.g., facts, principles)	35.1	32.2	31.4	.8	.4	4.01	242
Developing positive attitude toward subject area	4.2	15.8	48.8	19.6	11.7	2.81	240
Promoting thinking skills (e.g., analysis)	1.2	16.2	52.7	16.2	13.7	2.75	241
Improving study and research skills	1.7	14.3	47.9	18.5	17.6	2.64	238
Developing social skills (eg, participation)	2.1	13.2	42.3	16.7	25.6	2.61	234

VS=Very Significant, S=Significant, SS=Somewhat Significant, LS=Limited Significance, NS=Not Significant.

The balance among these areas is of special importance to social studies teaching because knowledge, skills, values and participation components work most effectively in helping the student socialise and develop critical capabilities at the same time. The level of attention these goals receive in the curriculum guidelines is significant because it will probably influence what goes on in the classroom. In relation to this question, teachers were asked to what degree these purposes are promoted through classroom instruction. The curriculum guidelines

may not emphasise certain goals but the teachers themselves may somehow be able to address them through their teaching. Table 4 displays the responses of the teachers.

TABLE 4: Level of Promotion of Different Purposes Through Instruction

PURPOSES	HP (5)	P (4)	SP (3)	LP (2)	NP (1)	**MEAN**	N
Teaching of knowledge (e.g., facts, principles)	13.7	32.6	50.6	2.1	.9	**3.56**	233
Developing positive attitude toward subject area	4.3	16.0	53.7	18.6	7.4	**2.91**	231
Promoting thinking skills (e.g., analysis)	1.7	15.5	48.1	20.6	14.2	**2.70**	233
Improving study and research skills	1.7	11.3	54.5	18.2	14.3	**2.68**	231
Developing social skills (e.g., group work)	1.8	9.6	46.1	16.2	26.3	**2.44**	228

HP=Highly Promoted, P=Promoted, SP=Somewhat Promoted, LP=Little Promotion, NP=Not Promoted.

The responses indicate that knowledge transmission is achieved to a large degree while other goals like improving thinking skills, promoting study and research skills, developing positive attitude toward subject area and developing social skills are only addressed in a limited way. These responses are consistent with the curricular emphasis as discussed above. Teachers perceive that the curriculum guidelines, by their heavy emphasis on content, do not leave much room for addressing other important goals. There may be several reasons for this result. Teachers may feel constrained in terms of time by the topics listed in the curriculum, and they may not be able to find sufficient time to have discussion, group work, research projects and other activities which are likely to promote thinking, study, research, social skills and positive attitudes toward subject area.

Given these characteristics, it is important to understand how teachers perceive the overall adequacy of the curriculum guideline and the reasons for it. In response to a close-ended question, teachers say that the guideline is only somewhat adequate in assisting them in their teaching (Mean = 1.97 on a scale where 1 = 'not adequate at all', 2= 'somewhat adequate', and 3 = 'quite adequate').

In response to a related open-ended question, teachers explain the deficiencies about the curriculum guidelines. Most of their complaints focus on the lack of assistance in teaching activities, materials and evaluation ideas and the

inflexibility in choosing the topics and deciding about their sequence. They say they need more help from the curriculum guidelines in planning their lessons, deciding on teaching strategies, materials and a certain level of assistance in measuring student achievement. In these respects, the curriculum is found to be very general and not practical. A number of teachers perceive that the topics in the curriculum are overloaded when the time they have to teach them is taken into consideration. Some teachers find problems in the curriculum in terms of the sequence of the topics since the current sequence is not very helpful in forming a meaningful whole. Others complain that the topics in the curriculum are not selected according to the interests of the students, resulting in an undesired attitude on the part of the students toward the course in class. They suggest that the curriculum needs to be redesigned in order to better respond to the level of the students and the needs of the environmental characteristics of the individual school. In addition, the teachers prefer a certain level of flexibility in deciding on the topics and their sequence according to the student body they serve.

Teachers' and students' perceptions of teaching and learning activities

A major challenge in social studies teaching is to provide a reasonable balance between the three goals of promoting knowledge, study and thinking skills, and values and participation objectives, and to use these goals in support of each other. In order to achieve that, the social studies teacher should vary learning activities to allow active student involvement in the learning process. Deductive approaches (like lecturing and recitation) should be balanced with inductive strategies (like

TABLE 5: Frequency of Different Teaching Strategies Used in Class (Teachers' Responses)

TEACHING STRATEGIES	VO (5)	O (4)	S (3)	R (2)	N (1)	MEAN	N
Lecturing	14.9	34.0	33.2	15.3	2.6	3.43	235
Question-answer (Recitation)	56.6	38.2	4.8	.4	–	4.51	249
Discussion	10.3	15.6	46.1	21.4	6.6	3.02	243
Group activity	5.0	8.6	35.3	31.2	20.0	2.48	221
Student presentation	16.6	25.1	38.3	17.0	3.0	3.53	235
Quiet reading from textbook	–	2.3	14.3	34.3	49.1	1.70	175
Role playing/Simulation	3.1	5.2	23.1	32.3	36.2	2.07	229

VO=Very Often, O=Often, S=Sometimes, R=Rarely, N=Never.

discussion, role playing) so that students develop both social and critical capabilities together. To explore what goes on in social studies classes in this respect, both teachers and students were asked to indicate the frequency of different teaching strategies they use/are exposed to in class. Table 5 presents teachers' and Table 6 presents students' responses to this question.

According to the teachers, the most frequent teaching strategy used is recitation, through which the teacher asks students questions to check their understanding of the content. Student presentation is the second most frequent teaching strategy, and lecturing is the third. It is interesting that student presentations are used frequently as a mode of teaching and learning. These findings are somewhat contrary to the assumption that lecturing is the most common mode of teaching in social studies. Teachers appear to rely heavily on recitation in their teaching while they also use lecturing and student presentations noticeably. Discussion is used sometimes, and the frequency for group activity is ranked somewhere between 'sometimes' and 'rarely', indicating that both strategies are not commonly used in class. Other activities like role playing/ simulation and quiet reading from textbook are used rarely.

TABLE 6: Frequency of Different Teaching Strategies Used in Class (Students' Responses)

TEACHING STRATEGIES	VO (5)	O (4)	S (3)	R (2)	N (1)	**MEAN**	N
Lecturing	61.1	25.1	9.1	2.7	2.0	**4.41**	1191
Question-answer (Recitation)	31.8	30.9	27.8	6.3	3.2	**3.82**	1184
Discussion	8.3	14.4	35.9	20.2	21.2	**2.68**	1177
Group activity	11.2	7.6	16.1	12.5	52.6	**2.12**	1165
Student presentation	42.0	17.6	17.8	11.9	10.6	**3.69**	1173
Quiet reading from textbook	13.5	11.7	25.5	17.0	32.4	**2.57**	1173
Role playing/Simulation	7.4	7.5	15.4	15.3	54.5	**1.98**	1164

VO=Very Often, O=Often, S=Sometimes, R=Rarely, N=Never.

Table 6 presents students' perceptions of instructional activities in terms of their frequency. Students report that the most frequently used teaching strategy is lecturing, a point contrary to what the teachers report with regard to the same question. The second most frequently used teaching strategy is recitation followed by student presentation. Discussion and quiet reading are used sometimes while group activity and role playing/simulation are used only rarely.

TABLE 7: Use of Course-Related Support Materials (According to Teachers and Students)

	VO (5)	O (4)	S (3)	R (2)	N (1)	**MEAN**	N
How often are support materials used?							
Teachers	6.7	8.9	20.1	17.0	47.3	**2.11**	224
Students	7.8	4.6	6.8	7.6	73.2	**1.66**	1177
How often should support materials be used?							
Teachers	34.9	36.1	18.1	4.2	6.7	**3.88**	238
Students	38.8	17.1	14.3	22.0	7.8	**3.73**	1176

VO=Very Often, O=Often, S=Sometimes, R=Rarely, N=Never.

Certain points students make with regard to the frequency of teaching activities they are exposed to in class are different from what teachers report. First of all, as mentioned above, the most common mode of instruction is lecturing according to the students, while teachers claim that they use recitation most often in class. Second, discussion and group activity are not used as often as teachers report. Third, according to students, quiet reading from textbook is used sometimes, while teachers report that they use quiet reading only rarely. The reasons for these differences are not very clear in the data. One possible explanation might be that the teachers do not want to report that activity since it implies that the teacher does not want to make an effort to teach in class but leaves the responsibility to the student through quiet reading.

In addition to teaching strategies, the kinds of materials used in instruction are important to make social studies learning more active, meaningful and long-term. Traditionally, the textbook is the most dominant instructional material used; however, the degree to which other supporting materials are used in class is unclear. To examine this issue, both teachers and students were asked to report on the frequency of use of course-related materials other than textbooks (Table 7).

Both teachers and students report that the use of course-related materials other than textbooks in class is rare. This implies that the instructional activities are heavily dependent on the textbook. Although both groups fall in the range of 'rarely' in terms of their ratings, students seem to experience the lack of use of instructional materials more often than their teachers do. As the second part of

Table 7 displays, both teachers and students claim that course-related materials should be used more often than they are presently. This indicates that both groups feel the need for additional course materials assuming that they will result in an increase in the quality of the teaching and learning process.

The kinds of assignments given have a special significance in social studies teaching since they can contribute to various goals (e.g. thinking skills, participation) if used effectively. In order to understand how often certain types of assignments allowing different kinds of learning experiences are given to students in social studies courses, assignments were grouped in three categories and teachers were asked to indicate how often they assigned them to their students (Table 8).

TABLE 8: Use of Different Types of Assignments in Terms of Frequency

ASSIGNMENTS	VO (5)	O (4)	S (3)	R (2)	N (1)	MEAN	N
Textbook-related assignments							
(e.g., reading, question answering)	33.6	39.8	12.3	7.8	6.6	3.86	244
Library-related assignments (e.g.,							
newspaper search, literature review)	2.4	17.6	57.1	18.8	4.1	2.96	245
Field studies/projects (e.g., interview,							
observation)	.4	7.0	29.8	42.6	20.2	2.49	242

VO=Very Often, O=Often, S=Sometimes, R=Rarely, N=Never.

Teachers report that they mostly assign textbook-related homework, such as reading a chapter or section, and answering the end-of-chapter questions. While they often give assignments from the textbook, they sometimes assign library research assignments, while field studies (e.g., observations and interviews) are set only rarely. In response to an open-ended question asking whether they assigned any other types of assignments to their students, a great majority do not report any while few mention other textbook-related activities like summarising or writing questions on certain topics. Overall, assignments are mostly confined to textbook-related tasks, and other options are not given much priority. This heavy emphasis on textbook may help in promotion of content transmission, but may not be effective in reaching other significant purposes of social studies teaching.

Student evaluation is an important concern to teachers of all subject areas. However, it poses challenges, particularly to social studies teachers. For example, while multiple-choice type measurement instruments can be confidently used to measure success in many subject areas like Mathematics and certain sciences, they become problematic to a certain extent in social studies classes. First of all, there might be multiple realities in certain social studies content. Second, knowledge itself may be less important than what a student can do with it. Often it becomes important to measure higher levels of thinking rather than just knowledge and comprehension of certain content. Third, attitudes and social skills are among the important areas all social studies courses try to address. These and similar other features of social studies course make student evaluation a difficult and challenging task for the teacher.

Teachers were asked to indicate the frequency of certain evaluation strategies they use in their classes. The strategies were grouped in four categories: objective tests (e.g. multiple-choice, true-false, matching), short answer tests (where knowledge and comprehension are measured through students' own statements of their understanding of content), essay tests (where the student is given more flexibility in forming their own responses and more opportunity to involve his/her own thoughts in responses), and finally oral exams (where the student answers teachers' questions – short answer mostly -- orally in front of the whole class). Table 9 presents teachers' use of different types of evaluation strategies in terms of their frequency.

Teachers report that they use short answer tests very often, oral exams sometimes and objective tests and essay tests only rarely. The preferences for using certain evaluation strategies more often than others are explained in teachers' responses to an open-ended question asking them to comment on the tests they use.

TABLE 9: Use of Different Types of Evaluation Strategies

EVALUATION STRATEGIES	VO (5)	O (4)	S (3)	R (2)	N (1)	MEAN	N
Objective tests (e.g., multiple choice, true-false, matching)	3.1	12.3	25.0	28.1	31.6	**2.27**	228
Short answer tests	68.8	27.9	2.0	.8	.4	**4.64**	247
Essay tests	1.4	7.2	14.0	24.4	52.9	**1.80**	221
Oral exams	30.7	23.7	11.4	14.9	19.3	**3.32**	228

VO=Very Often, O=Often, S=Sometimes, R=Rarely, N=Never.

Teachers use short answer tests most frequently due to certain reasons. First, they are easy to prepare, administer and grade. Second, a short answer test can include many questions covering a lot of topics students are exposed to. Third, objectivity can be established to a certain degree in grading them since the expected response is clear in most cases, making this type of test most realistic, effective and practical among others. Fourth, the questions in this type of test give the students an opportunity to use their comprehension skills in addition to reciting their knowledge. Fifth, teachers think that this type of test helps the students learn more effectively and remember what they learn for a long period of time. Finally, teachers believe that short answer test is the most appropriate measurement instrument for the middle school students. Objectives tests are not appropriate because the students are not used to answering multiple-choice, true-false or matching questions. Students are not very successful in essay tests either because open-ended questions confuse them. So according to the majority of the teachers, the most appropriate way of testing student learning seems to be short-answer tests.

Oral exams are also used often by teachers for several reasons. First, an oral exam seems to be an effective way of checking student understanding of the content through many short-answer questions. Second, it gives the student the opportunity to improve his/her verbal ability in front of a group of people. Third, it encourages the student to study and learn more effectively. Fourth, oral exams present effective learning opportunities for the students listening to the questions and responses. They see the kinds of questions asked and the kinds of answers acceptable. Finally, this type of exam helps the teacher to establish a dialogue with the individual student.

Teachers find objective tests realistic and objective, and useful in covering a lot of topics in one exam. However, many teachers find it difficult to prepare objective tests of good quality (e.g. writing objective items). Some teachers admit that they have no experience and skill in preparing and administering an objective test. In addition, they think that through objective tests only certain types of questions (mainly questions requiring memorisation of knowledge) can be asked, and for some teachers who would like go beyond that in evaluating student success, this is a major weakness. As a result, they avoid using them often in their evaluations of students.

The essay test appears to be the least frequently used evaluation instrument. The main reason is the difficulty the teachers go through in grading open-ended questions in terms of time, effort and objectivity. Teachers say essay tests take more time to grade than other types of instruments. In addition, essay tests require much effort by the teacher, making grading difficult and tiresome. Finally, essay tests allow students to write different type of responses for the same question, and

this makes objective grading difficult. Few teachers mention the difficulty in adjusting the level of essay questions to the level of students and the low level of success students have in these types of exams.

On evaluation of student success, teachers were asked how satisfied they were overall with the evaluation strategies they used. Teachers report that they are only somewhat satisfied with the strategies they use (Mean = 2.22 on scale where 1 = 'not satisfied at all', 2 = 'somewhat satisfied' and 3 = 'satisfied'). The main reasons for their dissatisfaction with the evaluation strategies are related to their lack of knowledge and experience in different types of testing strategies, lack of time to work on preparing good quality tests, the inadequacy of different types of tests they have to use, the overall testing system in the school system and other contextual circumstances such as crowded classrooms. Some teachers believe that no test can measure the real success of the student since each student is different, and it is hard for teachers to carry out individualised assessment. Others complain about the size of their classroom population saying that 'it is very difficult to measure student achievement fairly in a class of 65 students whatever technique you use'. A number of teachers liken the school system to a horse racing arena where 'students study only to pass the grade, memorise to be successful in the exam, but not to learn'. Finally, the teachers complain that they are not free in student evaluation. They say that inspectors put a pressure on them to use certain types of exams like short answer and oral exam while not to consider others. However, some teachers would like to try out other types of exams to see their adequacy in measuring student learning.

In relation to evaluation of student achievement, students were asked whether the exams were adequate in measuring their success in the social studies courses. Close to two-thirds (63%) find the types of exams adequate while a little more than one-third (38%) say the exams are not sufficient in measuring their real success in these courses. The data indicates that dissatisfaction with the evaluation increases at upper grades (7th and 8th). While only 29% at the 6th grade find evaluation inadequate, 39% at the 7th and 45% at the 8th grade do so. Other variables such as gender, and the course students take do not create significant differences in students' perceptions about the exams.

Those who do not find exams adequate state that test anxiety, types of questions, heavy requirements, dislike in studying for the exam cause problems for them in reflecting their real performance in exams. First, a large number of students say that they feel nervous in the exam resulting in difficulty in remembering what they know. Second, short answer questions are heavily dependent on memorisation which they find difficult to do. Third, they are expected to remember a large body of knowledge in exams, and this makes studying for the exam boring and an unpleasant experience.

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Discussion

In a centralised system of education, the impact of centrally prepared and controlled curriculum guidelines on instruction and its results will naturally be extensive. First of all, this kind of curriculum may be perceived as a rigid prescription for instruction, and teachers may feel a necessity to follow it thoroughly. Second, whatever the curriculum emphasises will be reflected in classroom instruction to a certain degree. The results of this study indicate that the curriculum guidelines prepared by the MONE assist teachers in selection of the topics to be taught and their sequence in all social studies courses in middle schools. Teachers actually follow the guidelines in preparing yearly and unit plans for instruction even though they find the guidelines somewhat less helpful in unit plans. This assistance by the curriculum guidelines appears to be very strict, that is, the curriculum guidelines do not leave much room for flexibility to the individual teacher in the above respects. However, teachers find more flexibility in the guidelines in terms of determining their instructional methods, materials and evaluation strategies they will use in their class because the guidelines do not offer much help to the teachers in these respects. Teachers are not happy about the deficiencies of the guidelines in terms of teaching activities, materials and evaluation strategies, and suggest that the guidelines should provide them with ideas, suggestions and directions that they can utilise in class in these respects. As a result, the content is determined by the standardised curriculum guidelines whereas how the content is delivered and how the delivery is measured are left to the teacher.

Social studies instruction should not only focus on transmission of knowledge since the knowledge itself is not very important unless it causes some skill and attitude development in individuals. Developing thinking, studying, research, social skills and positive attitudes are also among the significant goals of social studies. The teachers this study reached perceive that the standard MONE curriculum focuses mostly on transmission of knowledge while other significant goals are emphasized to a lesser degree. As a result, transmission of knowledge becomes the priority, and other areas are not given sufficient attention in classroom instruction.

Classroom activities carry a special importance for social studies teaching. A History or Geography lesson can easily be a boring and undesired experience through a straightforward lecture without involving students actively in their learning. At the same time the same social studies content can be delivered in a lively atmosphere where students are somehow involved in their knowledge and idea building process. Therefore, it is important to consider how classroom activities are organised and what role students and the teacher have in this

organisation. The results in the study show that the most common approach to classroom instruction is recitation and lecturing followed by student presentation. Students either read from a textbook or listen to the teacher's lecture, learn the knowledge and recite orally in class. This approach is consistently used to some degree by the classroom teachers in all social studies courses. The instructional approaches which allow more student involvement in learning like discussion, group activity and role playing are only used rarely. This result indicates that the teaching in social studies classes is mainly teacher-centered, and students remain passive in the learning process most of the time. In addition, the use of materials other than the course textbook is very limited even though both teachers and students prefer to have different kinds of course-related materials in the teaching and learning process.

Textbook-related activity (e.g. reading, answering questions) is the common mode of homework assignment given to the students. Library-related assignments (e.g., newspaper search) are used by the teachers sometimes while field studies (e.g., interviews, observations) are only assigned rarely. Again, the common mode of assignments indicate that out of class activities the teachers assign to the students are mostly dependent on the course textbook.

Short-answer test and oral exams are the most common mode of student evaluation in social studies classes. Teachers find both strategies easy to use, objective and appropriate to the student population in their classes. Short-answer tests help the teacher cover many topics in a single exam, and students feel comfortable in answering the short answer questions. Objective tests (e.g. multiple-choice, true-false) and essay tests are only used rarely since they are perceived as difficult to prepare and grade, and inappropriate for the age group the teachers serve. A quite large number of teachers reflect their dissatisfaction with the exams they use since they feel unequipped with new and alternative measurement and evaluation strategies. The crowded classrooms, insufficient time and support by administrators, and the rigid testing system for entrance to special high schools and universities appear to be the other main problems for their dissatisfaction. Supporting teachers' perspectives, a number of students also complain that the exams they are exposed to are not sufficient to measure their real success in the social studies course they take, and this perception is more apparent among students in upper middle school grades. As a result, measurement appears to be a significant issue to deal with in improving the social studies teaching.

The above perceptions of the teachers on different aspects of social studies teaching in middle schools are more or less similar across specific subject areas. In addition, the differences in the perceptions are not significant in terms of subjects' gender, teaching experience, educational level, teaching load and the

number of students in class. This indicates that social studies teaching does not differ to a great degree in these respects. The curriculum implementation is pretty much routinised in different types of classrooms by different teachers.

Several implications for further research can be drawn from this study. First of all, the impact of the teaching and learning process on student learning and thinking skills, attitudes toward social studies courses, and social skills should be investigated to bridge what goes on in class and what kinds of outcomes are produced. Second, the self-report data in this study are somewhat limited in understanding what goes on in social studies classes in depth and the perceptions of teachers and students. Interviews and observations can be carried out to validate the results of this study and provide detailed descriptions of curriculum implementation. Finally, since the textbook seems to be the dominant instructional material used in social studies classes, its impact on the teaching and learning process should be studied more in depth.

Studying teaching and learning process in social studies courses in middle schools is important from several perspectives. First of all, there has been a common dissatisfaction with all social studies courses in middle schools among both students and teachers. There have been varied explanations for this dissatisfaction by the Ministry of National Education mainly focusing on old textbooks and crowded classrooms. This study uncovers some of the realities of the curriculum implementation process from the perspectives of teachers and students, which may help to find ways to improve both the curriculum and its implementation. Furthermore, this study shows the importance of receiving feedback from teachers and students, those who experience the curriculum directly, and taking into account their perspectives in designing curriculum and improving the implementation process rather than just depending on inspectors' evaluations of teachers' performance and records of student achievement.

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TRADITIONS VERSUS CHANGING BEDOUIN ATTITUDES TOWARD HIGHER EDUCATION: HOW DO BEDOUIN COLLEGE STUDENTS PERCEIVE THEIR FAMILY'S ATTITUDES TO HIGHER EDUCATION?

BLOSSOM WIESEN

Abstract – *In 1991 Oranim Teachers' College adopted a teacher-training programme for Bedouin students in the north of Israel. The programme objectives included staffing Bedouin schools with Bedouin teachers and elevating the educational level of the community. Participation in this college programme by culturally insular Bedouin communities indicates a shift in traditional values worthy of investigation. Student socio-economic background is explored to determine attitude transformations enabling family and clan approval for their participation. It became apparent that as the tribe modernises, transformations ensue affecting the status of women and family life. Hence, this study focuses on educational attitudes of Bedouin students, their nuclear and extended families. The results indicate accelerated attitude changes within the tribe toward education, especially for women. Moreover, student attitudes concerning becoming instruments of educational innovation were also explored. The ramifications are discussed as they pertain to Bedouin society.*

Introduction

*I*n 1991, a new teachers' training programme was introduced at Oranim Teachers' College, The School of Education for the Kibbutz Movement, to accommodate post-high school Bedouin students from the northern part of Israel. The programme had three specific aims: First, to develop well-educated Bedouin teachers to staff their local village schools. Second, to reward Bedouin citizenry for their continued loyalty and volunteerism to the State of Israel. Finally, to extend and vitalise a policy of co-existence between the Jewish and Bedouin populations. To realize these objectives, applicants were carefully screened in order to ensure suitability to the programme designed to prepare students for kindergarten and primary school teaching positions in Bedouin communities in northern Israel. Beyond satisfying an immediate need for their own well-trained teachers, the far-reaching implications of the programme could affect the general educational level of the Bedouin population.

In order to prepare the groundwork for their academic success, an intensive summer matriculation programme in three areas was provided. Language courses in English and Arabic, as well as mathematics, were designed to reinforce and expand cognitive skills for all students, whether or not they had passed their matriculation exams. Those students who had not passed matriculation exams in one of these subject areas participated in course work designed to strengthen their learning and prepare them for matriculation exams in December.

Although begun modestly in 1991 with students whose objective was primary school teaching, the first class graduated 21 students. With the expansion of the programme to include kindergarten and early childhood education, there are currently (1996) 144 students attending classes. This number includes 44 first and second year students in the early childhood track. All Bedouin students were granted tuition-free education for three years in addition to the summer programme.

This paper study focuses on two aspects relating to Bedouin attitudes toward education:

- Background information pertaining to changes in Bedouin tribal/clan attitudes to education in general, and the effects of socio-economic changes on the status of women, family life and education, in particular.

- The attitudes of the Bedouin student body, their nuclear and extended families to the social and educational changes fostered by the Oranim programme for early childhood and primary school teachers.

General background information

Bedouins are depicted romantically in western literature with a 'Lawrence of Arabia' image which persists in the media. They are often envisioned as nomadic people braving the desert elements, leading their camels and goats across the sandy dunes with their wives and children in tow. Frequently, this picture is presented even more dramatically when their tents are contrasted with the technological, economic and social modernisation enveloping them. As nomads functioning within tribal/clan units, Bedouins have experienced striking transformations resulting from their increasing integration within the Israeli economy. Ever-expanding rural and urban development have also been altering their traditional life styles (Abu Saad 1991: 235). The Bedouin communities are no longer economically insular since the external Israeli economy has affected their employment. Some have retained their traditional economic and organisational patterns to ensure a secure livelihood for their families (Marx and

Schmueli 1984: 9). Others seem to do a little of each, keeping outside jobs while retaining traditional occupations (Medzini 1995: 5; Meir and Barnea 1987: 158).

Along with socio-economic changes, Bedouin attitudes toward education of the young have also undergone radical change since the inception of the State of Israel in 1948. Prior to that, formal schooling was not widely developed in the Bedouin community, since it did not lend itself to the nomadic lifestyle. During the British Mandate (1920-1948) some primary schools were established for the larger Bedouin tribes, particularly in the Negev (southern Israel). Basic elementary skills in reading and writing, with the Koran serving as the text, were taught by teachers whose own education was quite basic in scope (Abu Saad 1991: 236). Although the Compulsory Education Law was passed in 1949, the Bedouin community *"was not very interested in the formal education provided by the Israeli Government"* (Abu Saad 1991: 236; Meir and Barnea 1987). This began to change as they became more involved in the Israeli economy. However, it was not until the 1970s that logistical and cultural differences were overcome and the populace became more amenable to implementing the Compulsory Education Law. As Bedouin tribes became sedentarised and their communities recognised by the government, they wished to avail themselves of a range of community services including education (Medzini 1995: 5). The apparent gaps in educational services available to them would require the addition of considerable numbers of qualified teachers.

Setting romanticism aside, today approximately 40,000 Bedouins, belonging to 22 tribes, live in the north of Israel. Seventeen tribes with 26,000 members live in permanent government recognised settlements, the rest in non-permanent 'spontaneous' communities (See Table 1, Medzini 1995: 4). They are chiefly

TABLE 1: Offically Recognised Bedouin Villages in the North of Israel – 1995

Aivtin	Ka'abia
Bosmat Tivon	Um al Jenim
Zarzir	Nugidaat
Arab-Shibli	Hagiajara
Rumat Hib	Helf
Wadi Hamam	Mmshit a Zvada
Tuba	Arab al Hwalid
Salama	Su'ad al Kamna
Aramasha	Bir al Maksur

Source: Medzini 1984: 44;
Medzini 1995, unpublished
manuscript: 4.

involved in the construction industry, factory labor and the Israeli armed forces. Bedouins who have earned higher educational degrees, generally return to their villages to educate the younger generation (Rontal 1991: 52).

Bedouin life has been directly affected by changing attitudes to their high birthrate. Although mortality has been on the decline since the nineteen fifties, the birthrate continued to increase into the seventies (Meir 1984; Meir and Barnea 1987: 163). Even though the birthrate has been slowly declining, it still remains extremely high (Levi 1985: 2). In 1985 the birthrate dropped to 4.5% from 5.5% in 1970 (Meir and Barnea 1987: 159). The high birthrate reflects the traditional Bedouin attitude that producing large families is the will of Allah and must not be tampered with. Accordingly, Bedouin families have an average of seven children. That number is similar to the number of offspring in felahin (Moslem farming) families (Central Bureau of Statistics, 1993).

Beyond the theological issue, large numbers of children was an integral part of nomadic existence and proved economically sound. They provided needed manpower for tending the flocks and performing household chores. That children were considered an economic asset in the pre-sedentarised Bedouin society, is evidenced by the Bedouin saying that *"it is possible to satisfactorily feed one-hundred off-spring from one plate."* Apparently children might be provided for with only minimal outlay, while they contributed to their parents wealth and sustained them in their old-age. This attitude is reinforced by the government policy of child allotments which adds appreciably to their family income (Meir and Ben-David 1992: 87-8).

The high birthrate combined with an increased awareness of Bedouin educational needs have pressured Israeli government agencies to expand educational opportunities for all educational levels. In answer to those needs, schools were constructed, often in anticipation of full sedentarisation of the community. However, their very construction occasionally presented new difficulties pertaining to location. When schools were located so as to service more than one tribal group, tribal antagonisms and competition for prestige became the issue rather than education (Meir 1987; Meir and Barnea 1987: 159). Nevertheless, the Minister of Education, with the cooperation of Bedouin parents and the younger generation, have provided the impetus for educational progress in southern Israel ('Amsha 1985: 20). Similar developments are apparent in northern Israel.

The Hjerat, studied by Eloul, may be viewed as a case in point of social and economic transition since it is the most widely dispersed Bedouin tribe in northern Israel. The majority reside in three permanent villages in the lower Galilee: Bir al-Maksur, al-Mikman and al-Dhmydeh. But the Hjeri are also found in areas extending from Kiryat Shmona in the north, to Hadera in the south and from the

TABLE 2: Population – Annual Average Percentage of Change

Population	1994-1995	1990-1995	1980-1990	1970-1980
Jews	2.4	2.9	1.9	2.4
Arabs and Others	3.8	4.1	3.2	3.8
Thereof: Moslems*	4.0	3.7	3.1	4.2

* Bedouins are included, excluding those living in Southern Israel (Negev).

Source: Reprint from Statistical Abstract of Israel No. 47- 1996: 12, Central Bureau of Statistics.

Note: Israeli statistics do not separate Bedouins from the rest of the Moslem population in Israel. Therefore, exact statistics are unavailable.

sea of Galilee in the east to Akko (Acre) in the west. The expansion of Hjeri settlement has resulted from the general state of personal and material safety and the tribe's good relations with its Jewish neighbors, particularly with the state authorities (Eloul 1984: 158). Similarly, other tribes have maintained very positive relations with neighboring kibbutzim and villages which serve to encourage genuine give and take of ideas (Medzini 1995: 4, 5).

Positive relations between the Hjeri and government authorities are attributed to their joining the Israeli army as trackers following the Six Day War, 1967, in answer to border violations and terrorist activities of Palestinian guerrillas. The number of army volunteers increased to 30% by 1977. Several reasons account for their recruitment: (1) this type of work suits the traditional image of the Bedouin as a fighter; (2) the salaries were good, especially in comparison with the industrial sector; (3) the life in an army camp, away from the village, allowed youths to enjoy considerable freedom which they could not enjoy otherwise; (4) the young men felt that they achieved something on behalf of the whole tribe in its rivalry with other Bedouin tribes.

In addition, the economic boom following the 1967 war increased work opportunities for young men in construction, industry, and automobile mechanics. Significantly some unmarried and married women started working, albeit under the supervision of a trusted and respected tribesman in order to preserve family honor. *"Nonetheless, the more relaxed inter-sexual behavior in the factory milieu tends to relax these young females' traditional concept of shame and family honor"* (Eloul 1984: 166). Significant numbers of Hjeri are involved in the Bedouin educational programme at Oranim indicating that socio-economic integration has now extended to the area of education.

The status of women, family life and education

Socio-economic changes and educational needs have affected family life and, particularly the status of women, has been influenced by modernisation. Traditionally, women were limited to the domestic sphere where their lives were considered 'private' and their behaviour 'passive' when compared to men. According to Bedouin custom, their marriages were arranged. But these marriages often involved women in creating affinal links which were economically, socially and politically important (Marx and Schmueli 1984: 86). Within the family, women played an active part in decision-making in matters pertaining to the family and economic matters. Currently, Bedouin women are continuing their drive toward education as well as socio-economic independence (Lewando Hundt 1984: 120-123, Interview with Bedouin teacher, 1995).

Government actions appear to inadvertently assist the woman in her quest for increased independence. The introduction of government pensions and children's allowances have permitted even widowed women with the possibility of refusing a second marriage and continued independent existence for themselves and their children. Whether these independent women are then prepared to extend this freedom from family domination to their children, especially their daughters, is another question. It could be justifiably argued that the widow's refusal to return to her family household or to her husband's agnates is a traditional response to the situation, rather than an indication of the effects of external change (Marx and Shmueli 1984: 90).

The issue of women is especially pertinent to this study in that the majority of Bedouin students in the Oranim programme are women. This factor confirms indications that significant social changes are afoot in the traditionally male-dominated Bedouin community which is now expanding educational opportunities to women students.

Bedouin attitudes to higher education

At Oranim, the introduction of Bedouin students to the college has received considerable attention, especially from the programme coordinator and the faculty involved in their instruction. Bedouin students represent a unique population with special needs different from the wider student body. An answer to their academic needs is provided by the summer programme in English, Arabic and mathematics. In addition, follow-up meetings by faculty members are held at regular intervals to evaluate academic achievements and individual adjustment to the college. Moreover, student progress is assessed together with projections as to their future

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TABLE 3: *Oranim Teacher Education Programmes for Bedouin Students*

Primary School Programme			Early Childhood Programme*	
Year	Male Students	Female Students	Female Students Only	Totals
1991	11	10		21
1992	17	11		28
1993	7	14	19	40
1994	9	12	23	44
1995	13	18	24	55
1996	10	15	20	45
Totals	67	80	86	233

Total Number of Male Students 67   Total Number of Female Students 166

* The Kindergarten and Early Childhood Programme was initiated in 1993

integration into the teaching profession. During these sessions the issue of high student motivation has constantly been discussed. It became apparent that dramatic changes in attitudes in the broader Bedouin community must have occurred in order to support the educational ambitions of these students. An examination of their family backgrounds and their perceptions of how their families viewed their educational aspirations appeared significant, hence this study.

First year Bedouin students were asked to respond to an attitudes questionnaire in either English or Arabic. The aim of the questionnaire was to explore the educational and occupational background of their respective families and the support they received from their nuclear and extended family. In addition, students were interviewed individually in order to expand and verify the information gleaned from the questionnaires. Fifty-one Oranim students completed the questionnaire and a number of first, second and third year Bedouin students were interviewed informally.

Analysis of student responses to the questionnaire

Student responses to the questionnaire clearly demonstrate the fact that Bedouin society is a society in flux. Although many have preserved the traditional

family trappings by continuing to live in villages, having very large families, and retaining farming and herding occupations, the Bedouin community can no longer be either stereotyped or perceived in nomadic terms. According to student responses, only 17% of their fathers, are regularly engaged in farming and herding, and an additional 20% on a part-time basis only. Most engage in a broad range of occupations from blacksmith to teacher and educational inspector, and from soldier to construction workers and builders. It might be claimed that those who work as soldiers and security guards are merely adapting a traditional Bedouin inclination as a male fighter and protector. But strides toward modernisation are in evidence: 58% of fathers, have received between 6-12 years of education, with one father having pursued studies beyond secondary school level (See Table 4).

On the issue of the role of women, though the traditional lines are still more defined, even here, there is a growing emphasis on education. Students were questioned on three issues: mothers' level of education, family size, and mothers working outside the home. Students responded that 55% of their mothers had attended school, but only 37% received 5 or more years of education. They reported that their families ranged in size from 1-14 children with 91% of their mothers rearing between 5 and 14 children (See Table 6). Considering the size of their families, and that the majority of their children continue to require consistent mothering, it is understandable that only 8% of mothers work outside the home (See Table 4).

TABLE 4: Parents' Education and Occupations

Father's Education		Mother's Education	
Years of schooling	Percent	Years of schooling	Percent
0-5	40	1-4	55
6-12	58	5 or more	37
Father's Occupation		Mother's Education	
Farming & Herding	17	Farming & Herding	23
Part-time farming & herding	20	homemaker	90.7
Occupation outside the village	81	works outside the home	8
no response	2		

TABLE 5: Education of the Non-Bedouin Adult Population – 1995

Number of years of schooling	Jews (percent)	Arabs & others (percent)
0 Years	3.1	8.9
13+	36.0	14.2

Source: Reprinted from Statistical Abstract of Israel, No. 47 – 1996, Central Bureau of Statistics.

TABLE 6: Household – 1995

Average no. of persons per household	
Jews	3.33
Arabs & others	5.09

Source: Reprinted from Statistical Abstract of Israel, No. 47 – 1996, Central Bureau of Statistics.

1995 Average no. of children in Bedouin household as stated in the questionnaire	8.04

These results clearly indicate that despite the fact that most parents – 46% women and 24% men respectively – had received only a minimal education as compared to other segments of the Israeli population, this is not what they envision for their offspring or what they are permitting them to acquire. Ninety-seven percent of all students questioned, stated that both their parents wanted them to study and the overwhelming majority of both their maternal and paternal relatives also wanted them to study. Furthermore, if students felt that relatives might oppose their pursuing higher learning they simply were not consulted on the issue (Interview with Bedouin teacher, 1995). Students reported that 63% of their siblings were attending high school. Moreover, 36% of their older brothers and 43% of their older sisters have already pursued post high school education. This percentage only reflects part of the story. In many cases, the respondent was either the oldest, or one of the oldest children in a large family, which indicates that they are the family trailblazers in the field of education. On the issue of what determined their decision to study, only 31% indicated that the tuition-free grant was a consideration; whereas 26% stated that one of their siblings suggested that they study at Oranim. Knowing someone who had studied at Oranim influenced the decision of 37% of all respondents (See Table 7).

TABLE 7: Results of the Questionnaire

Question	Response in Percent
Did your parents want you to study?	97
Did your maternal and paternal relatives?	96
Did your older brothers attend high school?	36
Did your older sisters attend high school?	43
Are any of your younger siblings attending high school now?	63
What determined your decision to study?	
Tuition-free grant	31
One of my siblings made the suggestion	26
I know someone who had studied at Oranim	37

In answer to the question, 'When you complete your studies, do you plan to teach?' 100% affirmed that intention. The overwhelming majority, 84% plan to teach in their village, and the others are open to teach in another village. All students plan to teach after marriage; only one respondent did not expect to teach after her children are born (See Table 8).

An important issue raised by the questionnaire pertained to readiness to become instruments for educational change, once in the field. This was considered relevant, since many studies indicate that despite teacher training and exposure to new pedagogical methods and ideas, many new teachers still revert to the models provided by their pre-college teachers (Calderhead 1989; Alexander 1992). In the case of these students, the question is crucial because many of their primary and secondary school teachers were only minimally qualified for teaching.

Since their English language studies exposed them to new issues and ideas in education, it was deemed relevant to question them as to whether they were prepared to pioneer new methods and ideas. 76% of the respondents maintained that the English lessons gave them new teaching ideas. Most indicated their positive intentions to adopting the new educational ideas and information learned in the English programme. 67% stated that they would definitely adopt the ideas. However, when questioned further, 16% stated that they would adopt new ideas if other teachers also used new ideas. A further instance of pragmatism was indicated by responses to the question, 'If my principal agrees, then I will adopt new ideas.' 36% responded positively. Only 22% believed adopting new ideas could be problematic, whereas most felt it would not (See Table 8).

TABLE 8: *Students responses on how they envision their professional future*

Question	Response in Percent
Do you plan to teach after graduation?	100
Do you plan to teach in your village?	84
Do you plan to teach after you marry?	100
Did English lessons give you new ideas for teaching?	76
I would definitely adopt these new ideas	67
I would adopt new ideas if other teachers also did	16
I would adopt new ideas if my principal agreed	36
I believe adopting new ideas would be problematic	22

Discussion and conclusions

The Bedouin community in the north of Israel has gradually become integrated into the social and economic life of Israel. Sedentarization and official recognition of their villages have contributed to bringing the Bedouin communities into closer contact with the general population. Moreover, educational and social services, found in most Israeli communities, have become available to Bedouins with government recognition of their villages. Army service is further evidence of their involvement in Israeli life. All of these factors have helped produce changes in the traditional life-style and unlocked new occupational opportunities.

The survey of family background at the beginning of this study focused attention on the contrast between the educational and occupational levels of the parents' generation as compared with those of the students attending the Oranim teacher education programme for Bedouin students. This comparison revealed an apparent change in attitudes toward higher education in the Bedouin communities in the north of Israel.

A numerical analysis of the students involved in the Oranim College teacher-training programme highlights this attitude transformation. 144 students are currently (1996) enrolled in the three year programme for early childhood and primary school teachers at Oranim. One hundred and twelve women and thirty-two men comprise the student body. Sixty-seven women are preparing to become early childhood and kindergarten teachers. The preponderance of female students in this programme clearly indicates a willingness on the part of the Bedouin community to have at least some of their women educated and ultimately achieve professional status.

According to the questionnaire, students indicated that their parents were overwhelmingly in favor of their pursuing higher education. Moreover, both paternal and maternal relatives also favored their enrollment in the programme. This, despite the fact that western-style education instantly presents the Bedouin student with the dilemma of replacing accepted collective tribal values of belongingness and group loyalty with personal academic achievement (Discussions with faculty members, 1995, Meir and Barnea 1987: 159).

How does a traditional clan-oriented society avail its male and female youngsters with the opportunities and temptations for exposure to education within educational institutions which are both liberal and open? What impels this readiness to perhaps endanger their conservative socio-religious structure? According to student responses to the questionnaire and informal interviews with second and third year students, education is apparently considered so significant, so absolutely necessary, that some traditional norms are set aside while others are adopted and even inculcated into the society. Education in general, and higher education for both male and female youngsters have become a new Bedouin norm. Apparently, these educational changes are part of other the social changes already in motion indicated by other factors such as living in settled communities, increased urbanization and materialism. Could this apparent openness have other motivations? Could aspirations for socio-economic and political equality within the broader Israeli community be the overriding motivation for extending educational opportunities to the young? Did socio-economic and political forces operating in the communities mean an end to self-imposed group segregation, at least in certain fields?

Would education provide an answer to the challenges of Islamic fundamentalism, conflicts within the Bedouin community (religiosity versus secularism), nationalistic awakening, Palestinianisation of the Bedouin community? Or, would education merely exacerbate these conflicts? Does the governmental policy of offering a three year stipend for academic study for male students enlisting voluntarily in the army and a similar stipend for female students without military obligations, indicate a readiness to further extend political and economic equality to the Bedouin community? Or, is it an effort to counter the effects of Islamisation and Palestinianisation on the Bedouin community and ensure their continuing loyalty? Does it indicate a desire to right a political wrong by developing educated Bedouin cadres to educate the young within their own community rather than relying upon Palestinian Arab teachers who would then continue to infuse the young with radical Islamic and/or nationalistic ideas and training?

According to the stated aims of the programme, the government has recognised the need to staff Bedouin schools with Bedouin teachers. This

programme provides an appropriate answer to the staffing issue. Since significant numbers of the local school teaching staffs have been Arabs from northern and central Israel, higher educational programmes, would alter the numerical balance between local Bedouin teachers and Arab teachers, now at about 50%. Despite their religious similarity, there are traditional historic tensions between Arabs and Bedouins which were exacerbated by the staffing issue (Interviews with School Principals, 1996; Meir and Barnea 1987: 166). Also, it would be a positive move toward building mutual respect between Arab and Bedouin teaching staffs. Thus, the increase in qualified Bedouin teachers, begun in the nineteen eighties, would be improved as result of the Oranim programme. Moreover, this would invite ethnic and cultural solidarity within the Bedouin community, and continue to encourage parent-teacher collaboration on the issues of child development and clan advancement (Meir, 1985; Meir and Barnea 1987: 166).

Despite the fact that the Bedouins are viewed by the Israeli public in a positive light, the Bedouins themselves have indicated that their main objectives in the future will be an active involvement in attaining civil and political equality. Furthermore, they maintain that their loyalty to the country is attested to by their induction and service in the Israeli army. They perceive their army service, as the means for promoting the cause of egalitarianism as well as achieving economic advancement (Ben David 1991: 95).

If these and similar programmes continue to fulfil the needs of the Bedouin community for increased equality and educational advancement, they would prove that the Israeli government is providing tangible rewards for their demonstrated loyalty. Moreover, this may be the correct means of counteracting Islamic Fundamentalism and political radicalisation. Certainly, the enrollment of significant numbers of female students, attaining academic goals, could counter the effects of religious extremism, unless they prove to be more vulnerable to religious inculcation and political radicalism.

Facing these young people, year after year, as they enter Oranim, I am encouraged by their motivation for learning. Yet a sense of excitement, beyond that of other entering freshman classes permeates the atmosphere. They are aware that many of their mothers are either illiterate or have had a limited education. They understand that although their fathers have generally had more education than their mothers, this, in itself is not an adequate standard for themselves. They aspire to new heights of academic achievement far beyond those of their parents, for themselves and their siblings. Discussions with these students indicate that they clearly comprehend the process when they compare the education of their grandparents, parents and the opportunities which they have secured. Moreover, the socio-economic changes which continue to occur during their lifetimes transcend issues of literacy. They perceive the reality that their grandparents and

some of their parents engaged in traditional occupations of herding and farming and were nomads living in tents. Yet, in contrast to their elders, they will attend college, acquire a western-style education and profession, and share these benefits with the inhabitants of their village.

Since they are exposed to a liberal Israeli environment, this generates individual desires for educational, social and professional choices. A number of graduates of the programmes have already enrolled in the newly instituted fourth year programme at Oranim, which grants a Bachelors' of Education degree, in addition to a teaching certificate. Perhaps some will pursue their studies toward even more advanced degrees.

The overwhelming majority indicated intentions of teaching after marriage and children. Obviously these intentions have further ramifications: modification of traditional norms involved in choosing their mates within the framework of the Bedouin family. Formerly, a young woman who refused to accept the marital match arranged by the clan was declared rebellious, jeopardized her family honor and, was in great physical danger. (Ronale 1991: 54). Today, many young people cautiously choose a potential mate, but are careful to get parental approval for their own choices (Interview with Bedouin teacher, 1995). Often traditional pre-marital agreements are modified, stipulating that the girl will continue her education, will be able to work after marriage and even after children. Sometimes, the fiancé will support her educational objectives in every way, even financially. How is all this possible?

Education has become such a concrete value that the college educated girl has become highly valued by both her nuclear and extended family. This is shown by the statistics of the teacher-training programme. Moreover, these findings reveal that if it were felt that members of the extended family might oppose the girls' education, they would simply not be consulted (Interview with Bedouin teacher, 1995). Obviously, the overwhelming family approval indicated in the questionnaire, attests to the trust and confidence on the part of parents and tribal elders. However, should this trust violate tribal/clan norms, including excessive sexual freedom, this would bring disgrace to the programme and Bedouin community.

The question of higher education for women is obviously directly tied into the birthrate issue. If child-bearing continues to be a matter of economics, prestige and honor for both the couple and clan, the educational level of women will invariably be thwarted. However, the attitude toward childbearing has been somewhat modified as result of pressures by mothers to improve and brighten their daughters' futures (Lewando-Hundt 1980: 83-124). In fact, the number of girls receiving primary school education had increased by nearly 40% by 1986. This is in part based on a growing male preference for better educated mates (Interview

with Bedouin teacher, 1996; Meir and Barnea 1987: 162-163). Thus, the education of girls has begun to symbolise yet another step toward modernisation (Meir 1987: 163). However, this may merely represent retaining traditional underpinnings with only the superficial dressing of modernity, when, actually it is a case of the cultural transference of dowry demands from camels to college education.

The movement toward higher education could have vast implications in terms of male/female relationships within the family and tribal organisation. Although all students require parental support for academic pursuits, whether this be financial and/or emotional sustenance, this is even more critical for women. This issue was explored in terms of parental and clan attitudes toward supporting the individual student's desire for education. The changing social attitudes, which encourage education in general, and of women in particular, indicate a family and tribal/clan willingness to permit these modifications. Surely, granting young women the opportunity to study at liberal Israeli educational institutions expose these women to westernized attitudes and ideas.

Beyond the need to introduce educated teachers into the Bedouin community, there is also a particular need to appoint more female Bedouin teachers to the teaching staffs. Since the sexes are separated in the Bedouin community, female students attending secondary school are in a difficult situation. *"They find themselves in an almost completely male environment, which is an unfamiliar situation for them. Social norms forbid them to establish close relationships with male teachers, thus restricting their learning opportunities"* (Abu Saad 1991: 240). This difficulty should be mitigated as more qualified female graduates from Oranim enter the educational system.

The exposure of segments of the Bedouin community to varied aspects of modernisation, poses ever-increasing questions on both the social and educational plane. Is the educated Bedouin woman not limited in her choice of spouse by the very fact of her being more educated than a potential husband? Are Bedouin men prepared to marry women with more education than they have? As more educated working women contribute to the family's financial stability, won't they have more input in family decision-making? In some cases, the husband might have to assume traditionally female-held roles, such as child-care, food preparation and other domestic chores. Once this issue is open for discussion, it can lead anywhere.

How will the Bedouin family resolve the conflict with Moslem family values as women enter the teaching profession? Will not this entail confronting issues of limiting family size? Nursery schools and kindergarten programmes have been part of Bedouin village scene just as it is part of any Israeli community, so that part of the infrastructure for liberating the woman is already in place. Care of the elderly and infirm have always been part of the woman's responsibilities. Will we now see centers for the care of these dependent groups as more women teach or

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are involved in other professions? With increased education, we can assume that intra-group marriages will decline as result of an increased awareness of genetics. How will all of these factors affect the traditional Bedouin attitudes and relations? In addition to the changes stimulated by educational advancement, other innovations appear on the horizon. Recently, a 15 woman advisory council was formed to advise the mayor and town council on issues pertaining to women and their status in Tuba Village of northern Israel. Explaining his agreement with this dramatic move, the mayor said, *"There have been advances in technology, computers and fashion. It is no secret that young women are aware of the progress and advancement happening around them, which I would term adaptation. This is certainly in keeping with the Jewish environment"* (Ronale 1991: 54).

Lest the picture of Bedouin female emancipation be viewed too positively, Meir and Barnea indicated that statistics of girls educational opportunities are more limited than appear on the surface. In many traditional families girls are removed from school between the sixth and eighth grades, as they approach marriageable age, to help with household chores and prevent untoward contact with males (Interview with the Coordinator of the Bedouin programme, 1995; Meir and Barnea 1987: 164). This phenomenon exists in the non-recognised, more remoté villages. Hopefully, the future integration of college educated Bedouins into the village schools will persuade these conservative parents to allow their daughters to remain in school.

Surely many questions have been raised here, some remain unanswered. But the mere posing of these questions attests to the unfolding changes which the Bedouin community faces. All students interviewed indicated that the process of educational change is symptomatic of their motivations to achieve greater economic and political equality with the majority Jewish population in Israel. Although they feel that Bedouin insularity no longer exists, they still wish to preserve their unique cultural values. However, these students are uncertain as to which values will be sacrificed to the march of progress.

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STATE, SOCIETY, AND HIGHER EDUCATION IN CYPRUS: A STUDY IN CONFLICT AND COMPROMISE

ANTHONY A. KOYZIS

Abstract – *This paper, beyond being a study of post secondary education in the Republic of Cyprus, explores the connection between the State and society as they impact post-secondary provision. The work initially focuses on the development of the University of Cyprus, the first public University in the Republic, followed by a study of the nature and structure of higher education as a whole. Of particular interest is the proportionally large private post-secondary sector which is purely market driven and provides educational opportunities to Cypriots and foreign students in mostly English language programmes. Post-secondary education in Cyprus is further examined within the context of 'Knowledge Traditions'. Such 'Knowledge Traditions' have influenced both the construction of the post-secondary sector and societal perceptions of post-secondary education.*

Introduction

When in 1992, the first public university in Cyprus opened its doors, the institution was heralded with high expectations. As the university of a small island republic, this university was also in the midst of the island's on-going division along ethnic lines. The occupied North is inhabited by Turkish-Cypriots, and the Republic is predominantly Greek-Cypriot. Since the internationally recognised 'Republic of Cyprus' is the focus of this paper, only development in this part of the island will be primarily focused on.

Apart from the fact that the university is located in the midst of a divided island, from its very inception it was faced with a series of challenges coming from both ideological foes, as well as ideological friends. What in fact was happening in Cyprus since the fall of 1992 and even before the opening of the University of Cyprus, was an on-going debate over what the university would teach, in what language, and whether students would pay or not. How would it be governed and organised? And what role would the state play in university affairs? This along with other issues became fundamental reasons not only for debate, but also for an enduring conflict regarding what Cypriots were defining as worthwhile knowledge to be taught in institutions of higher learning, and conflict over the role of higher education in society.

This paper will begin by focusing on the major structural features of the Cypriot system of higher education as well as its slow but steady expansion over the last twenty years. Following structural features, the paper will develop a construct of the various knowledge traditions which have dominated Cypriot notions of higher education. These knowledge traditions have been a by-product of the influencing effect of both decades of reliance by Cypriots on overseas study as well as the ensuing expansion of the private English language sector of higher education. These private institutions in particular have been bringing to Cyprus knowledge tradition constructs from British and North American auspices. Following the discussion in knowledge traditions is a section on future implications and the future development of higher education in Cyprus in light of Cyprus' desire to enter the European Union.

Nature and structure of higher education in Cyprus

The first institutions of post-secondary education established in Cyprus were two teacher training colleges, one for male students in 1937, and a second one for female students in 1940. Both of these institutions were started by the then British Colonial Office of Education. It enrolled both Greek and Turkish students. The language and curriculum was exclusively English. These institutions' goal was to prepare elementary teachers for the government elementary schools.

On January 1958 both the above mentioned institutions were combined in the co-educational Pedagogical Academy of Cyprus, and by 1959 the institution was turned over to the Greek community of Cyprus preparing for independence from Britain in 1960. In 1960 an equivalent Turkish Teacher's College also began. In 1958 the Pedagogical Academy had adopted the 2 year curriculum of the pedagogical academies of Greece. A third year was added to the curriculum in the early '60's. At this time mandatory teaching of English was added to the curriculum.

By 1992-1993, the Republic of Cyprus was providing post-secondary education to 33% of all Cypriot students in post-secondary education. These students were 58% of all secondary school graduates who continued beyond the secondary level. The remaining 25% were studying abroad. This was a significant decline in the percentage of students studying abroad compared to the students studying abroad in the mid-1980s. This was primarily due to the founding of the public university in 1992, and the expanding of the private sector of higher education. The number of students studying abroad was still relatively high: 9,066 in 1992-1993, which has dropped from 10,312 in 1985-1986 (see Table 1).

TABLE 1: Cypriot students abroad by country

	1985-'86		1992-'93	
	Number	**%**	**Number**	**%**
Greece	4,027	39.1	3,581	39.5
U.K	1,668	16.2	2,391	26.4
Other W. Europe	1,668	17.7	908	10.0
U.S.A.	2,231	21.6	1,775	19.6
E. Europe	443	4.3	322	3.5
Other	118	1.1	89	1.0
Total	10,312	100.0	9,066	100.0

Source: Statistics of Education 1985-86, 1992-93.

The 33% of the students attending post-secondary institutions in Cyprus were attending 31 public and private institutions with a total enrollment in 1992-1993 of 6,263, compared to 5,952 in 1991-1992. At this post-secondary level in 1992-1993, 29.6% were enrolled in public institutions and the remaining 70.4% in private institutions. Males accounted for 50.7%, and females for 49.3% (See Republic of Cyprus *Statistics of Education 1993/93*: 21).

TABLE 2: Enrollment in public and private institutions, 1992/1993

Public	**Males**	**Females**	**Total**
University of Cyprus	58	428	486
Higher Technical Institute	500	117	617
Pedagogical Academy	49	174	223
School of Nursing-Midwifery	77	218	295
Hotel-Catering Institute	76	35	111
Forestry College	34	0	34
Mediterranean Inst. of Managmt	20	7	27
Cyprus Intnl. institute of Managmt	47	15	62
Total	861	994	1,855
Private			
Total	2,314	2,094	4,408
Grand Total	3,175	3,088	6,263

TABLE 3: Enrollment in public and private institutions, 1993/1994

Public	Males	Females	Total
University of Cyprus	132	842	974
Higher Technical Institute	495	127	622
Pedagogical Academy	—	—	—
School of Nursing-Midwifery	88	342	430
Hotel-Catering Institute	51	47	98
Forestry College	48	1	49
Mediterranean Inst. of Managmt	16	7	23
Cyprus Intnl. Institute of Managmt	49	20	69
Total	879	1,386	2,265
Private			
Total	2,249	2,218	4,467
Grand Total.	3,128	3,604	6,732

Source: Statistics of Education 1992-1993.

It should be noted that the 1992-1993 academic year was the first full year for the University of Cyprus. The university's enrollment was purposely kept at 486, and by 1993-1994 had increased to 974. It is estimated that by 1996-1997 the enrollment would increase to slightly over 1000 students. In addition the Pedagogical Academy has been absorbed by the university. This has resulted in the creation of the Department of Educational Sciences. The 1992-1993 statistics show the last year of enrollments at the Academy (see Table 2).

What is significant about higher education in Cyprus is the large private sector of higher education which enrolls three times more students than its public sector. This is not anticipated to change in the future, unless fewer Cypriots choose to study abroad, which may in effect increase private enrollments even further. The significance of the private sector is that it not only enrolls three times as many students as the public sector, but it exclusively provides higher education to Cypriots in English, and models its curricula and courses of study on British and North American institutions.

These 23 private sector institutions rely exclusively on British or North American accreditation and degree validation auspices and offer programmes in business studies, computers and information sciences, hotel management,

engineering and technology, secretarial studies, and to a very limited extent social sciences (see Koyzis 1989).

The public sector of higher education includes the University of Cyprus which includes: Schools of Humanities and Social Sciences (with Departments of Greek Studies, Turkish Studies, Foreign Languages, Educational Sciences, Social and Political Sciences), a School of Pure and Applied Sciences (with Departments of Mathematics/Statistics, Computer Science, and Natural Sciences), and the School of Economics and Administration with a Department of Economics, Public and Business Administration (see Koyzis 1993). Other public sector institutions include a School of Nursing and Midwifery, which offers two and three year certificate programmes in nursing or midwifery. The Hotel and Catering Institute offers short term programmes in a variety of areas such as cooking, waitressing, front office management, and so on. The Higher Technical Institute founded in 1966 provides three year programmes in various engineering and technology fields and is the largest public institution on the island.

The Forestry College is a rather small institution focusing on training foresters. The Forestry College trains foresters from all over the Middle East. The two Management Institutes also offer specialised programmes for Cypriot and Middle Eastern managers. Courses are offered in short term managerial training, much like American post graduate management programmes similar to the MBA. It should also be noted that the Nursing School and the Hotel and Catering Institute conduct their classes in both Greek and English. The Forestry College, the Higher Technical Institutes, and the two Management Institutes offer most of their courses only in English.

The University of Cyprus' official languages of instruction are Greek and Turkish as primary languages, and English as the secondary language. But due to the political situation on the island, Turkish is only used in the Turkish Studies Programme. Since 1992 Greek has become the *de facto* language of the University of Cyprus. However all programmes require some English instruction as well.

The University of Cyprus' enrollments shows a high number of female students in education (primary and early childhood), which is a carry over from the Pedagogical Academy with business, computer studies, and economics following. Sciences and mathematics are a close third, with the humanities and social sciences fourth. English language studies attract most students classified as humanities students (Republic of Cyprus, *Statistics of Education 1992-1993, 1993-1994, 1994-1995*).

The relatively large private sector of higher education developed in Cyprus since the mid-1970s. Most institutions were set up by individual academic entrepreneurs. Many institutions were originally English language institutes or exam preparation centers (for GCE's, TOEFL etc...). Responding to increasing

social demand for higher education in the late 1970s and 1980s, these institutions began offering 'post-secondary' level programmes. These 'post-secondary' programmes were initially connected to various British professional licensing bodies (i.e., Institute of Marketing, U.K., Institute of Bankers, U.K., Association of Certified Accountants, U.K.). Later some institutions began offering programmes preparing students for course and degree examinations given by the State of New York Regents Universities-USA, Thomas Edison State College- USA, University of London External Studies-U.K., and so on.

Other Institutions functioned as Cyprus campuses for American institutions, such as Intercollege's connection with the University of Indianapolis, or Frederick Polytechnic's connection with Empire State College of New York. In addition, institutions like Cyprus College were able to begin as autonomous institutions, giving their own degrees, and seeking accreditation and legitimacy from American and other institutions and accrediting agencies (see Koyzis 1989).

As of early 1996, private institutions of higher education were in a semi-permanent limbo, awaiting a re-institution of a once failed accreditation process. The originally instituted Council of Accreditation has been disbanded. New legislation is underway. The issue of legitimacy for the private sector is at stake here with the government and institutions seeing the accreditation issue as a potentially conflicting endeavor with enormous political implications.

'Knowledge traditions' and notions of the 'educated Cypriot'

Cypriot Greeks have been relying on overseas study for attaining post-secondary qualifications since the advent of universities in medieval times. Numerous Cypriots would travel to Constantinople, Alexandria, Salamanca, Venice, Rome, and Paris for higher education during the years following the fall of Constantinople to the Ottomans in 1453. Cypriot Greeks would continue this tradition even more with the creation of modern Greece in 1830. With the founding of the University of Athens in 1837, many Cypriots travelled to Athens for an education in the 'national ideals'. This was especially true since Cyprus was under Ottoman control long after the creation of the modern Greek state. Even after Cyprus became a British colony in 1878, Cypriot Greeks continued looking towards Greece for education and culture (Persianis 1978).

Even though in the more recent past the percentage of Cypriots going to Greece stayed at a relatively steady rate (35-40% of the students studying abroad), more Cypriots have been going elsewhere for post-secondary education (Republic of Cyprus, *Statistics of Education 1992-1993*).

Cypriots receiving their education in Greek universities have traditionally had the exclusive monopoly on positions in Greek secondary schools in Cyprus, in the Inspectorate, and in the Ministry of Education. A one time favorite area of study was philology. The term 'philology' was a catch-all area combining classical Greek literature, philosophy, and history, a concept which the University of Athens developed from the German concept of building. Philology became an influencing factor of Cypriot knowledge tradition (McClelland 1980).

The education of a philologist in the School of Philosophy at the University of Athens blended a concept of what is worthwhile knowledge with a uniquely Greek version of educational humanism. This Greek version of educational humanism combines Greek Orthodoxy, classical Hellenism, and an emphasis on literary humane studies. A goal of this Greek educational humanism is to create the 'Greek Christian person'. This Greek Christian person sees himself/herself as an adherent to this modern Hellenic authenticity. Modern Hellenic authenticity combines classical Greek ideals with Greek Orthodox Christianity. According to McLean:

> *"The School of Philosophy of the University of Athens (where languages, literature, and history are taught as well as philosophy) has been the center for the preservation of the humanist tradition. It has maintained links with the secondary school teachers' union, whose members have been trained largely in this university school. There is also a wider consumer for humanist education. The School of Philosophy at Athens retains the highest prestige. "*
> (McLean 1990: 108).

Even though based on today's data, when less Cypriots attending universities in Greece specialise in philology, the influence of the philologist is felt in a number of ways (Republic of Cyprus, *Statistics of Education 1992-1993*). First and foremost, up to 85% of all secondary school teachers in the Greek secondary schools are graduates of Greek universities, with philologists making up over 60% of all secondary teachers. These teachers teach in a variety of areas. They do not teach exclusively in literature and classics, but also in the social sciences, foreign languages, and occasionally religious classes. Philologists also make up the majority of secondary principals. In addition these philologists make up to 70% of the personnel in the Ministry of Education. Claire Angelidou, a philologist, was appointed Minister of Education with the election of the Clerides administration in 1993 (Republic of Cyprus' *Labour Statistics, 1992*).

This philologist-humanist knowledge tradition has effectively become a dominant factor in the State's conception of what is worthwhile knowledge. This is particularly crucial in the way that the Ministry of Education sees its role as a major player in formulating Cypriot higher education policy. Of importance is

the Ministry's view of the role of the University of Cyprus. In particular, someone from a philologist-humanist knowledge tradition sees the role of the University of Cyprus as an institution committed to reproducing a Hellenic national character by emphasising classical humanistic learning. A philologist-humanist would include 'Hellenic ideals' in all aspects of the university's curriculum. In many ways this position tends to be anti-modern and authoritarian. The philologist-humanist perceives such 'modern' Western ideals as liberalism, academic freedom, and critical inquiry as antithetical to the role of the university. The philologist idea sees the university as an arm of the state, and wants the institution to reproduce the disciplined, cultured, and moral Christian-Greek (Maratheftis 1984).

Another knowledge tradition which has influenced Cypriot intellectual life and invariably the development of higher education has been English essentialism. Even though English essentialism resembles Greek humanism, it does not share its ethnonationalist flavour. This knowledge tradition has been influential in Cyprus, through the influence which Britain had over Cypriot life during colonial times (1878-1960), and continuing to the present. This is especially true due to the fact that Cypriots continue to go to Britain (primarily England) for post-secondary studies. According to McLean (1989: 32),

> *"The continued domination of essentialist views in the secondary school*
> *curricula has been aided by the survival of a narrow and élitist system of*
> *higher education and by forms of technical/vocational education which*
> *remain specialised and separate from mainstream education."*

The English essentialist tradition which Cypriots encounter tends to be highly specialised. It either fits the tradition of educating civil servants, lawyers, and accountants or in the more recent years the more vocationalised version found in the education of engineers and technologists at colleges of further education, polytechnics, or technological universities.

The English essentialist knowledge tradition comes to Cyprus, both in the form or a remnant of a colonial legacy, and also through Cyprus' continuous reliance on England as a major trading partner, a source of overseas study, a major source of tourism, a place for Cypriots to emigrate to, and a political guarantor of stability on a divided island. This knowledge tradition tends to create a non-articulate Anglophilia among more urbane middle class Cypriots. These Cypriots prefer things that are 'English' and cosmopolitan to things that are 'Greek' and thus perceived as more parochial. Anglophilic Cypriots tend to argue that English liberalism, free markets, and English culture are more natural to middle class Cypriots than the sentimental 'backward' Greek-Christian/Hellenic ideals (Attalides 1979).

Another group of Cypriots influenced by the English essentialist knowledge tradition sees the role of English language as a potential unifying force for Greek and Turkish Cypriots. This group of Cypriots tend to be critical of educational philosophies which are ethno-nationalistic. These Cypriots argue that the role of the university would be to provide a specialised curriculum to students by focusing less on classical and nationalist issues, and more on 'modern studies'. Other than a curriculum emphasising specialised study, it would also incorporate moral education and individualism (McLean 1990).

Keeping with the English essentialist tradition of separating academic from vocational education, another segment of higher education (i.e., technology institutes, colleges, etc.) would provide a specialised higher education in such fields as engineering, technology, business, and so on. Cypriots influenced by English essentialist knowledge traditions see higher education in Cyprus as a system of institutions which function independently from the state and tend to respond to professional associations, labor markets, and social demand as only one guiding force in the provision of higher education. It does not rely on them exclusively. Academic tradition, professional and guild associations are also important players in shaping higher education.

A third knowledge tradition which influenced the development of higher education in Cyprus is North American educational utilitarianism. This influence has been quite influential in recent Cypriot circles. It has been a product of the last two decades where increasing numbers of Cypriots have been studying in the U.S.A (see *Table 1*). This knowledge tradition has also entered Cyprus through the American-style private colleges which emphasise American-modelled programmes and curricula (Koyzis 1989). This American educational utilitarianism resembles less the American liberal arts tradition of utilitarianism found in U.S. or Canadian undergraduate programmes, but resembles more the vocational/professional school version of North American educational utiltarianism (Rothblatt, in Rothblatt and Witrock 1993).

This knowledge tradition sees higher education and higher learning directly linked to the needs of occupations and labor market needs. It also accepts the fact that voluntary accrediting agencies such as the ones accrediting business, engineering, education, and other programmes are the major curricular guiding forces. This implies of course that these voluntary accrediting bodies respond to occupational and labor market needs. In most cases this version of educational utilitarianism sees as worthwhile knowledge the combining of general 'core' knowledge to more specific skill based knowledge (Burrage, in Rothblatt and Wittrock 1993).

Cypriot educational utilitarians, who are graduates of North American institutions based either in Cyprus or abroad, tend to see the role of higher

education as one preparing persons for occupations. Voluntarism, free markets, and choice are stable concepts in their views of curriculum for higher education. Many Cypriot educational utilitarians tend to prefer education in general to be less tied to 'national' and 'ethno-national' interests, and more concerned with economic and social development.

Some Cypriot educational utilitarians tend to support private sector institutions of higher education which have been accredited by voluntary accreditation entities. Some of these accreditation entities have been from the U.S. They tend to mistrust fellow Cypriots as accrediting/evaluating entities. The University of Cyprus for educational utilitarians should be much like North American state or private institutions, which are autonomous, and voluntarily accredited institutions receiving public funding with few strings attached (Lanitis 1990).

In addition to the three above mentioned knowledge traditions found in Cyprus, other traditions such as the polytechnic one, from the ex-Soviet block, a version of French encyclopaediasm, and German naturalism, are found among some Cypriots. The influence of these traditions remains limited, since their particular voice has not surfaced in the recent debates over education in Cyprus.

The Higher Technical Institute, the Forestry College, and the two other Management Institutes are not under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education. The existence of these institutions has reinforced the prominence of the educational utilitarian knowledge tradition. The Higher Technical Institute and the two post-graduate Management Institutes are public institutions under the auspices of the Ministry of Labour, whereas the Forestry College is under the control of the Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources. All four of the above mentioned institutions use English as their language of instructions. This leads to a set of inter-related questions: What role does the state play in the development of higher education? And how have knowledge traditions become a point of conflict over what is perceived as worthwhile knowledge and the definition of the 'educated Cypriot'? More broadly what is the role of higher education in Cypriot society? These questions are addressed in the next section.

State, markets, and higher education

Many of the recent debates over higher education in Cyprus – whether they have to do with the role of the state as an accrediting/evaluating entity, the role of Greek language and the university, the incidents involving Parliament's education committee members questioning the role of Turkish textbooks at the university, or the debate over the incident surrounding the exclusion of the Greek Orthodox Archbishop from the opening ceremonies of the university – all invariably have

to do with the role of the state and higher education. More specifically it tends to reflect the conflict between Cypriots who see higher education as an arm of the state versus Cypriots who want higher education to respond to the presumed needs of labor market and occupational needs.

Without entering into the long debate over what is the Cypriot State (Attalides 1979; Polyviou 1980) one can assume that the liberal democratic nature of Cypriot politics has developed a state relying on élites and élite structures for survival (Attalides 1979). According to Dale (1989: 57),

> *"The state, then, is not a monolith, or the same as government, or merely the government's executive committee. It is a set of publicly financed institutions, neither separately nor collectively necessarily in harmony, confronted by certain basic problems deriving from its relationship with capitalism, with one branch, the government, having responsibility for ensuring the continuing prominence of those problems on its agenda."*

In particular the nature of the Cypriot élite tends to be two-fold. On the one hand there is the cultural élite, and on the other is the economic élite. The economic élite tend to be urban and associated with business and professions (Persianis 1981). The cultural élite is primarily made up of Cypriot Greeks who have either been educated in Greece, or have adhered to the dominance of Greek culture (language and religion) as the driving force behind the Cypriot state. In its most symbolic sense this cultural élite supported, and was in turn upheld by the late Archbishop Makarios, who was both the President of the republic as well as the head of the Greek Orthodox Church of Cyprus (Panteli 1990). Due to historical circumstances this cultural élite dominated and dominates Cypriot Greek public education, as well as the educational bureaucracy. But their influence has primarily remained up until 1992 at the elementary and secondary educational level. (Persianis 1981, 1994). It stemmed from the fact that since the late 1890s, Greek secondary education (Gymnasium) was in the hands of the Greek Orthodox Church. On the other hand, post-secondary education, with the exception of teacher education, was neither under the auspices and influence of the educational bureaucracy (Ministry of Education) nor under the influence of cultural élites. Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, post-secondary institutions under other then Ministry of Education auspices, were influenced by economic élites (Persianis 1981). In addition, the large private sector of higher education was an exclusively market driven sector, and undoubtedly under the auspices of the economic élite.

Under these circumstances, the Cypriot higher education experience resembles the experience of the public-private conflict over higher education found in some Latin American nations (e.g., Brazil) with large private market-

driven higher educational sectors (Levy 1986). Specifically economic élites in the recent past have opted to argue that:

(1) The University of Cyprus should be free from the influence of the educational bureaucracy and the cultural élites' insistence on Hellenocentric higher education;

(2) University and higher education in general should be market-driven, rather than culture-driven. In this regard they would favour English language instruction and a more utilitarian curriculum since it would presumably lead to economic development;

(3) Private higher education is a necessary sector which needs to be allowed to be flexible in order to respond to labor market needs;

(4) Private higher education needs to be legitimised through state recognition, (i.e. accreditation) but should not be regulated. Its regulation comes from market forces, as well as connection with British and North American post-secondary institutions;

(5) Cypriot higher education has not and should never be perceived as a part of higher education in Greece since the Cypriot state and Cypriot society are separate and distinct from the Greek state and Greek society (Koyzis, 1993, 1989; Persiannis 1994).

On the other hand, cultural élites in the recent past have tended to argue that:

(1) The University of Cyprus is a state institution and it should serve and respond to the needs of a Greek-Cypriot state;

(2) Market-driven higher education would lead to an overemphasis on narrow utilitarian ends, rather than the preservation of Hellenic identity and culture;

(3) Private higher education is an anomaly since it solely depends on American and British imported curricula, and undermines the Hellenic character of Cypriot society;

(4) Private higher education should be either tightly regulated by the Ministry of Education, or as in the case of Greece, simply not recognised;

(5) Cypriot higher education, much like Greek-Cypriot society should see itself as part of the broader Hellenic world. This is imperative in order to survive in Europe and against cultural enemies. This may entail regulation and control of curriculum, extra-curricular activities, and the overall post-secondary experiences (Koyzis 1993; Persiannis 1994).

It appears that the conflict between the economic market proponents versus the state cultural proponents tends to also be overshadowed by their perceptions of what should be taught at institutions of higher learning. This then takes us back to the question already discussed earlier in this paper when discussing the issue of

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'knowledge traditions'. It also appears that at the moment neither the economic market proponents nor the state cultural proponents have a thorough understanding of issues such as academic freedom, institutional autonomy, and other characteristics found in amore mature system of higher education. Furthermore, Cyprus' bid for European Union membership will force the higher educational sector to re-adjust to broader European realities. It may imply re-defining the role of the state and higher education as well as the private sector's consumerist market orientation.

Cypriot higher education is still relatively young, and it will take several decades before both the state and society as a whole begin seeing it as separate from school education, or something beyond simply education for vocational preparation. In addition, due to the relative newness of higher education, Cyprus lacks an authentic intellectual culture which would be uniquely developed on Cypriot soil which means that Cyprus will still rely on 'importation' rather than autonomous creations (Persianis 1990). In addition, higher education in Cyprus would inevitably have to deal with the issue of the role to be played by Turkish-Cypriots in higher education. This has been overshadowed by the division and the narrower 'ethnonationalist' feelings projected by the current administration. This is an imperative dilemma in the light of any future settlement of the 'Cyprus problem', regardless of how it turns out.

Conclusion

Cypriot higher education, even though it is in an embryonic state when compared to the higher education systems of Germany, Britain, or the U.S.), is facing a series of dilemmas. As a society Cyprus has been ready for a full system of higher education, but due to political circumstances, it was not until 1992 that a public university opened its doors. This university found itself amidst not only problems stemming from the aftermath of the 1974 Turkish invasion, but also amidst conflicts within Cypriot society. These conflicts have been explored in this paper, by being categorised as either conflicts stemming from the different 'knowledge traditions' (or what is perceived as worthwhile knowledge in higher education) existing in Cyprus, or as conflicts between proponents of state versus market control in higher education.

Underlying both sets of conflicts are questions that relate to culture. Among such questions are: What is the nature of Cypriot society? Should this be perceived as an extension of Greek society? Or rather is it unique and pluralistic enough to be able to be considered as a separate entity? Private and public higher education appear to be in the middle of this debate.

With the absence of a full system of higher education, Cyprus has not yet developed traditions of intellectual and academic culture, or perhaps a cadre of academic mandarins, similar to the German mandarins that Ringer (1990) writes about, which could articulate the role of higher education in Cypriot society.

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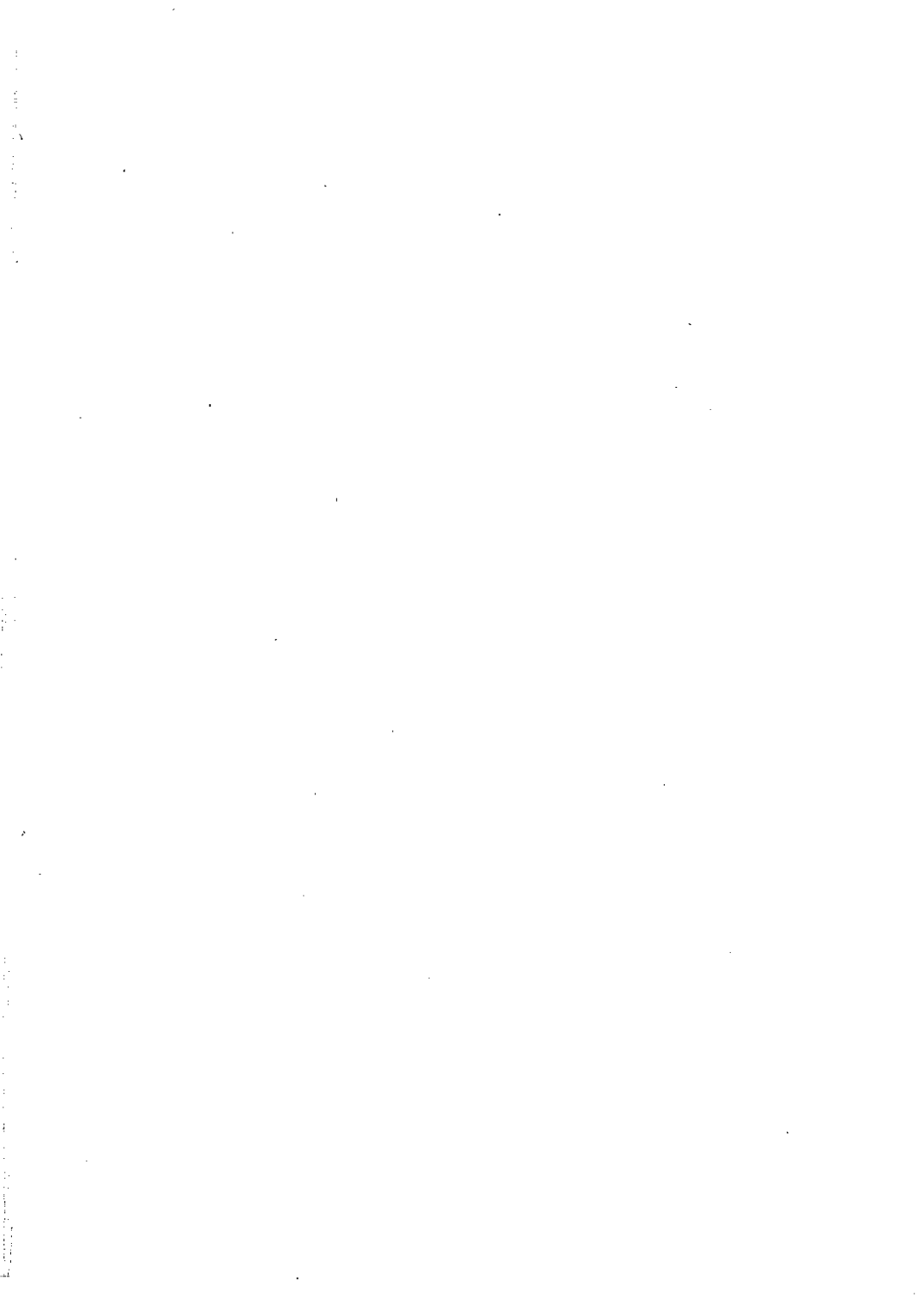
RESEARCH REPORT

AN ANALYSIS OF THE CONTENT AND QUESTIONS OF THE PHYSICS TEXTBOOKS OF THE BASIC EDUCATION LEVEL (AGES 13-15) IN LIBYA

SULEIMAN KHOJA
FRANK VENTURA

Abstract – *This study aims at determining the extent to which the physics textbooks contribute to the achievement of the stated objectives of physics teaching at the basic educational level (ages 3-15). The cognitive demand of the content of the textbooks of the 7th, 8th and 9th grades and the questions at the end of each chapter are analysed. Chi-square tests are used to compare the distribution of the textbooks' questions among the levels of Bloom's cognitive domain with a suggested distribution from the literature. The findings show that the contribution of the content to the achievement of the stated objectives is limited to the students' acquisition of facts and basic concepts. Most of the questions (51.6%) require knowledge by simple recall which puts them in the first level of the cognitive domain, while upper levels are only tested by 2.5% of all the questions. There is a significant difference ($p<0.001$) between the observed and the suggested distribution of questions among levels. These results reflect the importance of the objectives concerning the acquisition of specific scientific knowledge given by the content and questions of the textbooks at the expense of other objectives of physics teaching, such as the development of scientific thinking skills, interests and attitudes. In conclusion, some suggestions are made to promote the acquisition of objectives in the higher levels of the cognitive domain.*

Introduction

$\mathcal{T}$ extbooks are seen by many educators as the most important and possibly the sole aid to teachers and students. Textbooks certainly play a major role in determining the nature of the implemented curriculum and the quality of education imparted by the schools. This role is more obvious in developing countries where *"textbooks are the major, if not the only, definition of curriculum"* (Lockheed & Verspoor 1991, quoted in Crossley & Murby 1994). In these countries, which are faced with a shortage of qualified teachers, effective teaching is closely associated with the existence of the direct source of instruction, the

textbook. This reality prompted the World Bank to recommend that in the 1990s the developing countries *"should focus on providing their schools with good (pedagogically sound, culturally relevant, and physically durable) textbooks and on encouraging teachers to use them"* (Crossley & Murby 1994: 102).

Over the years, changes have occurred in the design and use of science textbooks, reflected partially in their use not merely as sources of information but as tools *"to initiate inquiry and to suggest interesting investigations to be performed"* (Collette & Chiappetta 1986: 244). In spite of these changes, many textbooks are still 'encyclopedic' in their presentation of scientific knowledge (Collette & Chiappetta, 1986: 244). It has also been noted that authors of science textbooks tend to answer all the questions, solve all basic problems, present all steps of the experiments, tell the students what should be observed, and what conclusions should be reached. This approach usually presents unconnected parts of scientific knowledge, pays no attention to the processes of science, and in effect emphasises low level cognitive learning. Such an approach can only make a limited contribution to the achievement of the goals of science education.

Science teachers use textbooks mainly as sources of organised scientific knowledge, and as resources for planning and conducting their instruction. Inexperienced and unqualified teachers usually use textbooks as a course of study, which they follow slavishly page by page in their teaching. Often, this could be overdone in such a way that it *"can be of detriment to the interests, attitudes, and even achievement of science students"* (Collette & Chiappetta 1986: 247).

Because of the influence that the design, content, and use of textbooks has on students' achievement and the achievement of the curriculum goals, many studies have been conducted to analyse and evaluate the different aspects of the textbooks. In a study of the design of Pakistani textbooks, Khan (1990) observed a clear disregard of curriculum objectives and noted that students complain of unclear concepts (Crossley and Murby 1994: 101). Finley (1991) attributed the obstacles that students experience when learning from textbooks to the *"fundamental contradictions between the nature of science textbooks and the educational goals that texts are meant to serve"* (quoted in Tobin *et al.* 1994). These difficulties were the driving force behind many efforts *"to improve the quality of textbooks and reform the curriculum"* (Tobin *et al.*, 1994). Heyneman *et al.* (1981) showed that, compared to other factors such as teacher training, class size, facilities and grade repetition, the availability of textbooks is the most important factor associated with higher levels of student achievement.

Zitoon (1990) analysed and evaluated the content and questions of the 'general science' textbook for the third year of the preparatory level in Jordan. He found that scientific facts represented 49.2% of the scientific knowledge of the textbook, while scientific concepts and principles represented 38.2% and 12.6%

respectively. Furthermore, the scientific knowledge was not presented functionally and did not contribute to the development of the students' scientific attitudes, interests or values. His analysis of the questions in the textbook revealed a clear concentration on the lowest level of Bloom's cognitive domain. In effect, 47.6% of the total number of the questions required answers at the level of knowledge by simple recall, 34.4% at the comprehension level, 10.9% at the application level, and 7.1% at higher cognitive levels (analysis, synthesis, and evaluation). A significant difference was found between these proportions and the theoretical proportions suggested by Zitoon for the distribution of questions among Bloom's cognitive domain levels, which were 25% knowledge, 30% comprehension, 25% application, and 20% higher cognitive levels.

Damerdash (1980) gave the results of a similar study carried out by Zaki in 1973. Zaki analysed the questions of the first and the third years science textbooks of the preparatory level in Egypt using the cognitive domain of Bloom's taxonomy. He found that 73% and 87% of the first and the third year textbooks questions were in the knowledge by recall level, respectively, while the questions in the comprehension level occupied 26% of the first year and 13% of the third year textbooks questions. These findings reflect the great importance given by the textbooks to the acquisition of knowledge and a disregard to the development of the students' higher cognitive abilities.

In this paper we examine the content and the end-of-chapter questions of a set of physics textbooks used in Libya in an attempt to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent do the present physics textbooks of the second cycle of the basic education level contribute to the achievement of the stated goals of physics teaching for this cycle?

2. How does the distribution of end-of-chapter questions in these textbooks among the levels of Bloom's cognitive domain compare with the proportions suggested by Zitoon(1990)?

The educational context

Before going any further, it is important to furnish some information about education in Libya. The current structure of the educational system in Libya was approved in 1984 and implemented at the basic education level in 1986 (Secretariat of Education 1992: 1). The educational system consists of the following levels:

(1) The Kindergarten Level (ages 4-5)

(2) The Basic Education Level (ages 6- 15)

(3) The Secondary Education Level (age 16+) with four divisions:

I – General Secondary Education
II – Vocational Secondary Education
III – Technical Secondary Education
IV – Teacher Training Institutes

(4) University Education.

The basic education level comprises all stages of compulsory education in Libya which caters for all children aged 6 to 15. It is divided into nine grades and ends with a unified examination held at the national or regional level. The holders of the Basic Education Level Leaving Certificate can enroll in any type of secondary education. The education system is centralised, schools are government supported and curricula are uniform in all schools. Goals, objectives, content, textbooks, and other relevant documents are prescribed by the Secretariat of Education, which is the central authority. Teachers operate within the context of a structured set of prepared instructional and assessment materials. They are obliged to follow a certain annual instructional plan consisting mainly of the units or chapters that should be covered in certain time intervals. They are also required to use and follow the textbooks published by the Secretariat – the same textbooks are used by students and teachers – but they are free to choose the methods of teaching, activities, or audiovisual materials. Textbooks are still seen as the main, if not the only, source of knowledge and instruction by teachers, students, inspectors, and parents.

During the nine grades of this level, students study a number of compulsory subjects in each grade. The teaching of science at this level could be divided into two parts. The first part consists of grades one to six (the first cycle of the basic education level), in which science is taught as one subject, namely General Sciences and Health. The syllabus of each grade covers several units in natural and physical sciences. The second part consists of grades seven to nine (the second cycle of the basic education level), in which science is taught as three separate subjects, namely, Physics, Chemistry, and Biology. Each has its own goals, syllabus, textbook, time allocation, and assessment mark in each grade of this cycle. In each of these grades (7th - 9th) two class periods (40 - 45 minutes each) per week are allocated for physics teaching. This time represents about 5.5% of the total time of schooling in each grade.

The following goals have been set for physics teaching at this level (National Centre of Educational Research and Training 1995):

1. Deepening the students' belief in God through their conception of the coordination and harmony of the different physical phenomena.
2. Recognition of the role of scientists , their merit in the field of physics, and to develop students' appreciation of Arabic mentality and creativity.
3. Helping students to arrive at suitable physics concepts that will lead them to acquire belief in causality and recognise the role of physics in the development of human civilisation.
4. Enabling students to relate physical phenomena and concepts together and recognise their contribution to benefit of mankind.
5. Helping students to understand that physics concepts are changeable according to the development of research and measurement tools.
6. Acquisition of physics facts and concepts necessary to continue their studies in the following educational levels.
7. Enabling students to acquire the basic physics knowledge, which will help them to comprehend military knowledge and skills.
8. Accustoming students to be precise in their observations, measurements, and communication of their observations and findings.
9. Developing students' ability of scientific thinking and acquisition of the cognitive skills necessary to exercise socially appropriate behaviour.
10. Encourage students to use the available resources in their surroundings in order to design simple apparata or instruments to be used to carry out experiments, to develop their creative abilities, and to discover the talented students.

Research methodology

This study focuses on the content and end-of-chapter questions of the 7th, 8th, and 9th Grade physics textbooks, which include the following topics:
a – 7th grade: Measurements – Bodies in Motion – Matter
b – 8th grade: Thermal Expansion - Heat Energy – Sound
c – 9th grade: Generation of Electricity – Electric Current
 Transformation of Electric Energy – Light – Spherical Mirrors – Light Refraction – Lenses – Analysis of Light

The end-of-chapter questions in the three physics textbooks add up to 312 questions distributed as follows:
a – 7th grade: 68 questions.
b – 8th grade: 67 questions.
c – 9th grade: 177 questions.

A content analysis approach is used to determine the suitability of the content of the physics textbooks for the achievement of each of the stated physics goals for this level. This is achieved through a careful study of the goals and the content of each topic in the three textbooks to determine the aspects which are given clear attention and their relationship to the goals. Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives in the cognitive domain is used to determine the cognitive level required by each question in the textbooks. Thus, each question in the three textbooks is classified into the knowledge, comprehension, application or higher cognitive processes level according to the cognitive process required. For this study the three higher levels of the cognitive domain (analysis, synthesis, and evaluation) are grouped as one level, called higher cognitive processes level. The number and the percentage of the questions in each level is calculated for each set of textbook questions and for the total number of questions in the set of three textbooks to compare them with the proportions suggested by Zitoon (1990). A chi-square test is used to compare the observed and suggested proportions.

Achieving the stated goals of physics teaching

The results of the content analysis can be summarised as follows :

1. The physics textbooks' content cannot have any contribution to the achievement of the first and the second goals of physics teaching of this level. There are very few, limited and scattered remarks to some aspects associated with these goals, in spite of the suitability of many concepts in the physics textbooks that can be used to achieve them.

2. The third to the seventh goal can be considered together as one general goal as they are related to the acquisition of physics facts and concepts in a functional way and awareness of the importance of the subject to students and society. The textbooks of this cycle give a clear consideration to this general goal. They use the experiment – observation – conclusion approach to present most of the physics concepts, besides the explanation and the examples. The textbooks also give many applications of physics concepts and principles. Regarding this general goal, it is pertinent to remark that:

a. The presentation of observations and conclusions to the students and the teacher, who does not use suitable teaching methods, can lead to the acquisition of inert knowledge. If students are told what to observe or what conclusions should be reached, they will only tend to memorise certain steps or procedures,

observations and conclusions mentioned in the texts without really trying to understand.

b. The way 'experiments' are presented in the physics textbooks does not reflect the experimental method. They are, in fact, training students to follow certain steps or procedures to arrive at pre-determined results.

c. The introduction and clarification of the different applications of the physics concepts and principles should be related to the students' environment as much as possible so that they can perceive adequately the practical benefit of physics for the individual and society. This relationship between the applications and students' environment should also consider the personal benefit of students to develop their scientific interests and hobbies.

d. The direct exposition of physics facts, concepts and principles and their applications may hinder students from becoming acquainted with the stages of the development of scientific knowledge, the dynamic nature of science, the interdependence of different branches of science, or the relationship between science and technology.

e. The understanding of physics concepts is related to the students' cognitive development level and their experience. This relationship requires that the concepts should be selected and presented in accordance with the students' level of cognitive development and linked to their experience and environment.

3. The eighth goal is related to the practical side of physics teaching. The achievement of this goal depends on the type of activities carried out by students. If students do not make actual observations and measurements, and do not express their observations and findings, orally and in writing, it would be impossible to achieve this goal. The achievement of this goal requires giving students good models in their textbooks. The seventh grade textbook, for instance, which introduces physics as a new field of knowledge and covers the topic of Measurements and Units in its first chapter, does not present a good model to help students' achievement of this goal. Drawings and figures are neither clear nor accurate. The explanation of some concepts also lacks clarity and is sometimes doubtful, while the eighth grade textbook ignores completely the use of units in solving the problems.

4. The ninth goal is concerned with the development of students' scientific thinking, which is a very important aspect of physics teaching. The analysis of the three physics textbooks shows that none of the physics concepts in the textbooks

to solve the problem or interpret the situation. In spite of the fact that many questions are raised in the texts, many of them are either not clearly stated or they are answered immediately and directly in the text. This eliminates the opportunity for students to practice scientific thinking and the skills associated with it.

5. The tenth and last goal of physics teaching is related, to high extent, to the previous goal. The student's ability to design simple apparatus or instruments and using them to conduct experiments depends on his ability to think, perceive the different components of a problem or a situation and find the relationships between them. This requires a careful preparation of problems and situations that could help students to use their knowledge and cognitive abilities to design simple apparatus, instruments and experiments to solve the problems. The physics text-books do not give any consideration to this matter, though there are many concepts and situations that could contribute beneficially to the achievement of this goal. The discovery of talented students requires a clear consideration to the principle of individual differences from the curriculum planner, textbook writer, teacher and evaluation personnel in the educational system. The physics textbooks ignore this principle completely. They seem to be prepared to be used by all students in the same way, and do not include any additional activities that could be used to distinguish between students of different abilities and interests.

Analysis of the questions in the physics textbooks

Table 1 summarises the results of the analysis and classification of the end-of-chapter questions of the three physics textbooks. From the table, we can infer the following:

1. Most of the questions are in the level of knowledge by simple recall of Bloom's cognitive domain. The majority of questions (51.6%) fall into this level, while 30.1% are in the comprehension level, 15.7% in the application level, and 2.5% are in the higher cognitive processes level. These proportions show an imbalance when compared with the proportions suggested by Zitoon, except for the comprehension level where the proportions are the same. When a chi-square test is used to compare the observed proportions with the suggested proportions (Table 2), the results clearly indicates a statistically significant difference between the two proportions.

2. There is an increase in the knowledge level questions and decrease in the application level questions between the 7th and the 9th grade textbooks. This is against the expected trend, and it reflects the low consideration given to the students' maturation.

3. The high percentage of knowledge level questions reflects the importance

TABLE 1: Analysis and classification of the "end of chapter" questions according to Blooms's cognitive domain

TEXTBOOK	CHAPTER	KNOW.		COMP.		APPL.		HIGHER COG. PROC.	
		Freq	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%.
7TH GRADE	measurement	4		4		6		—	
	bodies in motion	12		10		17		1	
	matter	10		2		2		—	
Subtotal	**68**	**26**	**38.2**	**16**	**23.5**	**25**	**36.8**	**1**	**1.5**
8TH GRADE	thermal expansion	9		4		7		—	
	heat energy	10		5		5		2	
	sound	11		11		3		—	
Subtotal	**67**	**30**	**44.8**	**20**	**29.8**	**15**	**22.4**	**2**	**3.0**
9TH GRADE	gen. of elect.	31		13		—		3	
	electric current	10		12		6		1	
	transformation of elect. eng.	16		13		—		—	
	light	12		10		—		—	
	spherical mirrors	15		4		1		—	
	light refraction	5		2		—		1	
	lenses	11		2		1		—	
	analysis of light	5		2		1		—	
Subtotal	**177**	**105**	**59.3**	**58**	**32.7**	**9**	**5.1**	**5**	**2.8**
Total	**312**	**161**	**51.6**	**94**	**30.1**	**49**	**15.7**	**8**	**2.5**

given to the acquisition of the scientific knowledge as the most important – if not the only – goal of physics teaching. Questions are used mainly to measure students' memorisation of this knowledge, and seldom require a real thinking effort or search for answers outside the texts.

4. A consistency is observed in the comprehension level questions in the three textbooks, especially in the 8th and 9th grade textbooks. The average percentage of the questions in this level amounted to 30.1% of the total number of questions in the three textbooks, which is in agreement with the suggested proportion (30%).

5. Besides the low percentage of the application level questions compared to the suggested proportion, it is also observed that most of the questions in this level require an application of certain relations to solve simple problems. This is especially true in the 7th grade textbook which contains the highest proportion of the application questions among the three textbooks.

6. A very low percentage of questions in the higher cognitive processes level in the three physics textbooks is observed. Questions at this level accounted for only an average of 2.5% of the total number of the questions. This low percentage reflects the low priority given to the development of students' thinking and problem-solving skills by the physics textbooks.

7. The 9th grade textbook is the only one that contains some questions that are classified in the psychomotor domain. These questions occupied about 10% of the 9th grade physics textbook questions.

8. There is a complete lack of questions in the affective domain. This is not surprising, but it shows that no feedback is expected about the development of students' attitudes, interests and values especially as regards the first and second goals of physics teaching.

Recommendations

In light of the results of this study, the following recommendations are suggested for further discussion:

1. Serious thinking should be given to a review and re-writing of the content of the three physics textbooks, taking into consideration the accurate nature of science, the physics teaching goals and students' cognitive development level.
2. Teachers, supervisors and science educators should be given a more prominent role in the design of the physics textbooks, enabling them to participate in producing better textbooks for this cycle.
3. Establishing centres for the development and evaluation of science curricula

TABLE 2: *Comparison between the observed and the suggested proportions of questions*

	QUESTIONS				TOTAL	Chi-square Value
	KNOW	COMP.	APPL.	Higher Cog. Proc.		
Observed Freq.	161	94	49	8	312	146.52 p<.001
Suggested Freq.	78	93.6	78	62.4		

and providing them with the specialised personnel, especially trained teachers and supervisors.

4. Textbooks writing could be done through an open call to interested persons, taking in consideration that:
   a. Writers should be familiar with what is occurring in schools.
   b. Coordination should be stressed between the different writing committees.
   c. A booklet could be prepared containing all the scientific, educational and technical criteria which should be considered by writers.
   d. Textbooks should be tried out for at least one year in a small number of schools before they are used on the national level.
5. Consideration should be given to prepare teacher manuals for the three grades.
6. Thinking seriously of using one physics textbook for the three grades of this cycle of the basic education level, so that the 'Basic Education Level Leaving Certificate' examination in physics contains items from the different topics studied during the three years. This approach will help students to recognise the unity and continuity of the physics knowledge, construct the knowledge in an orderly way during their study and use it to acquire new knowledge.
7. More care should be given to the physics textbooks' questions, so as to consider a balanced distribution of the questions among the cognitive domain levels, and to include questions in the affective and psychomotor domains.
8. Care should be given to identify and develop the students' scientific interests

and hobbies through the content, teaching methods, activities, evaluation and programmes organised by the Secretariat of Education or other agencies.

9. Carry out studies that consider other aspects of the textbooks in the different educational levels, such as, textbook language, the correlation between the physics content in different grades and levels, the suitability of the presented concepts in the physics textbooks to the students' cognitive development.

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CONFERENCE REPORT

HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE MEDITERRANEAN: MANAGING CHANGE AND ENSURING QUALITY

RONALD G. SULTANA

A one-day conference organised by the Coimbra Group in conjunction with the University of Malta, and the support of the Foundation for International Studies and the European Union. Malta, 25 November 1996. Final Report of the Rapporteur General.

Introduction

$\mathcal{T}$ he aim of this report is to give an overview of the key themes that were raised during a one-day conference entitled 'Higher Education in the Mediterranean: Managing Change and Ensuring Quality', held in Malta on the 25th of November 1996, under the auspices of the Coimbra Group in conjunction with the University of Malta, and with the support of the Foundation for International Studies and the European Union. The present report synthesises the main contributions made by presenters, and connects these to the central questions that provided a framework for the meeting.

The conference brought together European and Mediterranean experts with the intention of facilitating an exchange of experiences, ideas and strategies in the management of change and particularly in the assurance of quality in higher education systems. The programme was structured in such a way as to provide opportunities for both European and Mediterranean countries to describe their countries' and/or their regions' reactions to issues that have a bearing on both change and quality management, namely the massification of higher education and the concomitant reduction of state budgets. At various points throughout the conference it became clear that despite the economic, social, political and cultural differences between European and non-EU Mediterranean countries, much the same concerns were being expressed. This facilitated the creation of a positive and productive environment, where issues raised by the different speakers and discussants resonated with the experiences of all the scholars present.

The report is presented in four sections. Addresses delivered in the opening session come first. This is followed by a section on the issue of networking in international education, where the information communicated by Dr. J. Divis in

the session dedicated to 'Transparency and Information in Higher Education' is also included. A further section summarises the main points broached in the commissioned papers dedicated to the themes of 'management of change' and 'quality assurance'. The conclusion identifies a number of transversal themes that emerged during the conference proceedings.

Opening session

The opening session of the conference consisted in four short addresses by the Rector of the University of Malta (Professor Roger Ellul Micallef), two representatives from the EU Commission (Mr. Giuseppe Massangioli of DGXII/C and Mr. P. van der Hijden of DGXXII/A), and the Maltese Minister of Education and National Culture (Mr. Evarist Batolo). After a brief overview of the historical development of the University of Malta from its beginning as a *Collegium Melitense* in 1592, Professor Roger Ellul Micallef noted that the concept of quality assurance was not new to universities. Whether one looks at the university from the tradition promoted by Humboldt, Newman, or Napoleon, one immediately has to recognise that academic auditing has always been of paramount importance. What has changed has been the repertoire of mechanisms and tools in the carrying out of such auditing, and such changes have largely been the result of new challenges that have arisen as higher education institutions everywhere have been transformed to mass education establishments. Together with access, the issue of mobility and increased inter-university collaboration has also put pressure on the higher education sector to ensure the transfer and recognition of study units, through systems of quality auditing. Drawing on his experience as chairperson of the Council of Europe's Committee for Higher Education and Research, Professor Ellul Micallef warned that in response to increased pressure for accountability exerted on universities both by government and society, one must beware adopting a technicist and petty-minded approach to quality auditing. Rather than, for instance, giving priority to the measurement of the length of study units in different universities, it is much more meaningful to focus on course content and curricula, and to ensure quality therein.

Such views were echoed by Mr. Giuseppe Massangioli, head of the Division within DGXXII/C of the European Commission responsible for relations with third countries in matters dealing with education and training. Mr. Massangioli noted that while tools and indicators had been developed by the OECD in order to evaluate higher education sectors, these were merely guidelines to be used within the context of individual countries as systems managers confronted their own establishments. 'Quality' did not have an absolute referent, and each country

had to remain sensitive to its own particular socio-economic and cultural context as it set about confronting the issue of quality assurance. It certainly was not the intention of the European Union to establish benchmarks which member states had to conform to, for the principle of subsidiarity in the fields of education and training was entrenched in the Treaty of Maastricht. However, the process of integration should bring with it added-value thanks to the sharing of experience and the transfer of knowledge that would help to encourage increased good practice, and in this regard programmes such as SOCRATES, *Leonardo* and *Youth for Europe* are prime facilitators. This knowledge and experience transfer is extended to countries that are not yet member states of the European Union, through a ripple effect that has embraced, among others, EFTA countries, Eastern European countries, and particularly after the Barcelona Conference of 1995, Mediterranean countries.

The Minister of Education and Culture for Malta, Mr. Evarist Bartolo, highlighted the usefulness of the conference in facilitating learning from the experiences of other countries. Each country, however, had to remain sensitive to its own specific context and challenges, and to ultimately take responsibility for the strategies it adopted. In this regard, Mr. Bartolo noted that for Malta for instance, the assurance of quality at the tertiary education level raised the issue of quality assurance at the earlier levels, that is in the primary and secondary school sectors. Indeed, he expressed his conviction that the University ought to be an educational leader and collaborate with other educational partners in order to promote the highest educational standards at all levels.

Mr. P. van der Hijden, responsible for the SOCRATES programme within DGXXII/A of the European Commission, considered the EU 'White Paper on Education and Lifelong Learning', placing this within the general context of the EU policy for education, and connecting it to the key themes raised at the conference. Like Mr. Massangioli, Mr. van der Hijden highlighted the subsidiarity principle that regulates EU action in the field of education, emphasising that a key strategy adopted by the Union is to encourage and support exchange of ideas between different education systems, a strategy which constitutes a 'soft instrument' with no legal and binding force, but which can nevertheless be very effective in bringing about change. Similarly effective is another EU strategy, namely the publication of memoranda, white papers, green papers and so on, which while generally contested, do start debate around themes which all accept as being central. A most recent White Paper concerning 'Competition, Growth and Employment', for instance, highlighted, among other things, the importance of education and training for the economic performance of Europe. The issues raised in this White Paper were taken up by Edith Cresson, the Commissioner in charge of Education and Training, who identified action fields as a programme for

activity for the future. Among these are questions related to the production of new knowledge, the development of linkages between education and industry, the provision of a second chance to low-achievers in schools, and the promotion of foreign language learning. Other issues connect directly with the themes central to the conference, such as the need for Universities to adapt to change, particularly to the challenge presented by the information society, by the demand for lifelong learning, and by the mobility of workers in a European context. The 'White Paper on Education and Lifelong Learning', while not imposing 'European standards' in quality provision, does encourage transparency and hence an effective form of accountability. Practices such as the European Credit Transfer System lead to information about courses and educational practices which, while allowing each institution to maintain its autonomy, nevertheless renders them open to examination and critique

Networking in international education

A key theme running throughout the conference concerned networking between higher education institutions as a vehicle for the development of common strategies in front of common challenges. Three speakers representing the COIMBRA group (Dr. P. Floor, Chairperson of the COIMBRA Steering Committee), UNESCO (Ms S. Uvalic-Trumbic, from the CEPES office), and the Council of Europe (Dr. Michael Vorbeck) addressed this theme, and highlighted their experiences in initiating and co-ordinating such networks. Dr. J. Nivis' address on the European experience in 'Transparency and Information in Higher Education' raised several points relevant to this section, and is therefore summarised here.

Dr. Peter Floor gave an overview of the different kinds of networks within the COIMBRA Group, namely personal networks, subject area networks, institutional networks, and purpose driven networks – all of which have as a main aim the creation of opportunities for added value, adding quality in processes and in output through sharing of information, facilitation of contacts, project development, lobbying and the involvement of members in specific activities, particularly through the creation of sub-networks with specific tasks to be carried out. Dr. Floor mentioned some of the challenges and difficulties that the COIMBRA Group had to face, among these being the tradition of autonomy in many universities, which keeps them from surrendering particularistic interests in favour of goals established by the network. Another challenge is the difficulty of generating enough financial resources to support the activities that are planned. With regards to Mediterranean universities, Dr. Floor outlined a number of

recommendations. Among these were the necessity for such Universities to have a higher profile internationally and to become known through networking, and through joining such organisations as the European Association of International Education. Dr. Floor suggested that Mediterranean Universities should specialise and try to achieve areas of excellence rather than attempting to spread themselves out too thinly and being more divergent than the human and financial resources allow. One good way of doing this is to establish linkages and networking in subject areas, which is very beneficial for educational co-operation, for teacher mobility, and for research in subjects related to Mediterranean problems, where they can establish themselves as leaders in the field.

Ms Stamenka Uvalic-Trumbic, programme specialist from UNESCO's European Centre for Higher Education (CEPES), shared her experience in networking in international education with the conference participants, highlighting the fact that UNESCO's conception of Europe was broader than that of several organisations since it included 49 states, stretching from Vancouver to Vladivostock, and hence was linked to other regions of the world. Ms Uvalic-Trumbic briefly outlined the main activities related to the recognition of qualification in higher education in Europe, noting that UNESCO was currently involved in elaborating a new joint convention with the Council of Europe on this matter. The convention will be further strengthened if the European Union eventually accepts the invitation to ratify the agreement. If this happened, 49 states will have one legal instrument for the recognition of higher degrees. This will have policy implications not only in the area of accreditation, but also in the monitoring of quality and in the management of new challenges such as the recognition of qualifications of refugee students. The CEPES office is also involved in the restructuring of higher education in a number of central and eastern European countries, striving to develop partnerships with Rumania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, and Ukraine. It participates actively in other networking structures, such as ENIC (a joint network of equivalence and mobility centres that works closely with a similar EU network, NARIC), the UNESCO chairs programme and UNITWIN, promoting linkages in interdisciplinary fields, particularly in teacher education, ecology, energy, environmental protection, rural development, gender issues and so on. Ms Uvalic-Trumbic finally drew the participants' attention to UNESCO's forthcoming World Conference on Higher Education, which is to take place in Paris in 1998, and which will produce a global document that will further develop the three key themes that had already been developed in UNESCO's 1994 paper on higher education, namely relevance, quality and internationalisation. CEPES is in charge of preparing the European input to the conference, and towards this end is networking with other organisations. A preparatory conference will be held in

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Palermo, while Greece has proposed to hold a conference in Thessaloniki to prepare a Mediterranean input for the world conference.

Dr. Michael Vorbeck presented the Council of Europe's experience in networking, with particular reference to the sector of higher education. Dr. Vorbeck noted that the Council of Europe, with 44 member states, laid a stress on the community of common values in Europe, as well as the continent's common culture and history over two millennia. The Higher Education Committee is one of the main bodies of the organisation, bringing together two representatives from each member state, one from government and another one from the university sector. The Committee deals with higher education policy, and the programme of activities concerns four main areas, namely [a] building the university of tomorrow: this includes redefining the research mission of the University in a democratic society, recalling the necessary combination of teaching and research, trying to get the academies of science closer to the university in Eastern Europe, improving the research training, and discussing different funding mechanisms [b] counseling the new member countries of the Council of Europe: through the provision of tools and policies for the academic recognition and mobility, through the facilitation of networking beyond national borders, and through the provision of expertise in the establishment of higher education legislation [c] the development of contents and methods in higher education: through the launching of a project to help social scientists in eastern and central Europe to modernise their teaching programmes, and to contribute to the state's attempts to meet the challenges of transition, while maintaining scholarly rigour and integrity; through the redefinition of European studies; through training for democratic leadership, particularly by identifying and developing university disciplines which can have the greatest impact on the political process, and by addressing the issue of student participation in higher education governance and political life in general [d] documentation and database networking: the running of a computerised European database of educational research projects, the EUDISED database with 16,000 items available on Internet. Access to information operates through a thesaurus, a tool of about 3,300 key words developed jointly with the European Commission's EURYDICE, and now available in 17 languages.

Dr. J. Nivis (NUFFIC, the Netherlands) spoke about a different, if related, aspect of international networking and cooperation, one that is directly linked to the issue of quality in the higher education sector, namely academic and professional recognition. Dr. Nivis noted a change in attitudes towards the exercise of recognition from the 1950s to the present, with the tendency being to move away from the concept of 'equivalence' to a more liberal and transparent approach, one where differences in qualifications between universities are welcomed – since these can enrich systems – as long as such differences are not

substantial. Currently, the burden of proving that differences are indeed substantial enough to warrant rejection of mobility between systems lies with the host institution. Dr. Nivis also highlighted a change in the methodology of academic recognition, over and above a shift in attitudes. Despite the great diversity between higher education systems, many countries use the same criteria in evaluating credentials, and it is only the weight they place on the different criteria that distinguishes them. An important development has been the intensification of contacts between credential evaluators, who have to explain why they have recognised, or failed to recognise particular qualifications or study units. This has led to much more transparency and accountability in the whole exercise, with time limits for decisions about recognition being established, and with applicants having a right to appeal. Dr. Nivis identified three key instruments that facilitate the exercise of academic recognition: [a] Conventions developed by the Council of Europe together with UNESCO-CEPES [b] EU directives, which began in the 1960s and dealt mainly with professional recognition, and which now concern the higher education sector and are based on mutual confidence between institutions and assumed comparability. The principle is that if a person has a degree obtained after at least three years of study from an EU member state, and that degree leads to a qualification in a regulated profession (e.g. engineer, teacher), this qualification has to be recognised in other EU member states, unless the difference in the duration of similar courses in the host country is more than one year [c] A third mechanism that facilitates academic recognition is the European Credit Transfer Systems (ECTS) which consists of an agreement between the host and sending university that a course of study, described in credits, is recognised for credentialling purposes by both institutions. Dr. Nivis concluded his address by highlighting the role of networks in the dissemination of information in this regard, and in the facilitation of transparency in the exercise of academic recognition. With reference to a European context, he mentioned in particular the role played by the EU network of 25 National Academic Recognition Centres (NARICs), and by the Council of Europe and the UNESCO-CEPES joint European Network of Information Centres on Recognition and Mobility (ENIC).

Commissioned papers on 'the management of change' and 'quality assurance'

Five of the commissioned papers read at the conference dealt with different aspects of the management of change and the assurance of quality in higher education. Two papers, one by Professor Claudius Gellert (Reading University, U.K.) and the other by Professor J. Veiga Simao (*Fundaçao das Universidades*

Portgugesas, Lisbon) focused more specifically on the experience of EU member states. Two other papers dealt with the situation of higher education in two Mediterranean states aspiring for membership in the European Union, namely Cyprus (with an address given by Professor Christos Theophilides from the University of Cyprus), and Turkey (with an address given by Professor Hasan Simsek, from the Middle East Technical University). Dr. Ronald Sultana, co-ordinator of the *Comparative and Mediterranean Education Programme* of the University of Malta, provided an overview of the situation of higher education in Mediterranean countries, thus establishing a wider context for the perusal of information from the Cypriot and Turkish colleagues. A summary of each of the five papers' main points is presented in the sections below. The European papers will be referred to first; these will be followed by the three Mediterranean papers, and a concluding section which pulls together the different themes and issues raised.

Experiences in EU member states

Professor Claudius Gellert addressed the theme 'Managing structural changes and relationships in higher education establishments in Europe: issues, experiences and constraints'. The speaker identified eight major changes in Europe, namely [a] quantitative expansion, with universities changing from enclaves of a small élite to mass institutions [b] institutional differentiation, with the development of new forms of higher education which facilitated the expansion of the higher education sector [c] functional modification, with the emergence of new tasks and purposes in higher education, such as in connection with demands made by industry and the labour market, or in response to the needs expressed by a differentiated student clientele [d] the development of new modes of teaching and learning, particularly through the introduction of stricter and more transparent curricula [e] the phenomenon of increased access and educational opportunity, through increased participation of mature students, but also through supportive measures such as mans-tests grants and loans schemes for students more generally [f] the intensification of research and graduate training, in response to a tendency for the funding base for fundamental research to move out of universities towards outside research organisations [g] the increase of governmental interventionism and the intensification of demands for accountability, with funding being the main mechanism in the exercise of influence [h] the tendency towards the Europeanisation of higher education systems, accentuated by the European Union's policy to promote exchanges between academics and students from different universities, and by a move in the direction of harmonisation in order to facilitate such exchanges.

In addressing these trends and shifts and in comparing the efficiency of different systems of higher education, Professor Gellert emphasised that one must focus not only on the output of institutions, in terms of number of graduates or volume of research and publications for instance, but also on the process of teaching and learning. Professor Gellert in fact noted that while there is some knowledge about the unfolding patterns of higher education in Europe, there is no generally agreed concept which enables the comparison of standards, competencies and qualifications, and there is no common understanding of what the efficiency of courses and study programmes consists in. This deficit in knowledge means that despite the European Community's 1988 directive on the mutual recognition of tertiary degrees, neither Universities involved in student exchange programmes, nor employers recruiting graduates on a European labour market have a real understanding of the kinds of educational experiences individuals from different universities are bringing with them, in terms of such parameters as work-load, intensity of supervision, input of individual effort, output in the form of papers and exams, as well as involvement in extra-curricular activities and in all those aspects of life in a higher education institution which facilitate personality development. Professor Gellert therefore proposed that the ultimate measure of the quality of higher education is more adequately caught by a focus on *how*, rather than *what* students are made to study. The Newmanian, liberal stress on character formation as an indicator of efficiency is vindicated by the value that European employers place on such personality characteristics as the ability to think, to adapt to a changing environment, to become involved in cooperative work tasks, and so on.

Professor J. Veiga Simao dealt with the challenge of 'Managing for quality at the operational level' within a European context. He noted how the last decade has seen increasing pressure exerted on the higher education sector to evaluate its three main functions, that of teaching, research and service to the community. Such pressures were coming from within the sector itself, and were also being exerted upon it from by external forces, be these government policies, public perception, or economic realities, including shrinking budgets and structural unemployment. The context in which these pressures have been exerted is worth highlighting: a massification of the sector due to increasing numbers of students, institutions and courses. Professor Veiga Simao noted that the call for the evaluation of higher education led to two main sets of policies and practices. While some countries and/or individual institutions opted for an auditing exercise carried out from within establishments, others preferred the inclusion of external actors in the evaluation process. Institutional autonomy can be safeguarded in both models of evaluation, but external power is linked in different ways in the two forms of practices. State power, for instance, reaches

the first through a sort of osmotic process, while it is more clearly and directly present in the second model.

Professor Veiga Simao noted the increasing globalisation of policies, accentuated by the process of European integration. The right for free circulation of people and services is linked to the recognition of diplomas and professional titles, and this has major implications for the higher education sector, and for the guaranteeing of quality education throughout Europe. The mobility of students and teachers, the new alliances that are being forged between universities, the building of networks on a regional and international level can all be considered as mechanisms that can breathe new life into the existing practices of the recognition of degrees and titles. Professor Veiga Simao made a case against what he referred to as the 'analytic' model of degree recognition, which entailed a case by case analysis of courses and curricular structures, and a practice that has tended to prevail up to the present. This was no longer practical in a 'learning society', given the rate at which new knowledge was being produced, and given the fact that modern career paths are characterised by frequent change in employment. In such a situation, a more 'organic' model of degree recognition was called for, one based on closer cooperation between universities, enterprises and services. Industry seems to be keen to establish such linkages with the higher education sector, as witnessed by the Round Table document, 'Education for Europeans', produced by a group of European companies representing 25% of Europe's GDP.

Within the context of such an information society, the category 'time' achieves a critical importance, so that as the 'World Competitiveness Report' pointed out in 1995, entities must focus on quality and speed in their conduct of administration and reforms. The higher education sector needs to find ways of guaranteeing both. Professor Veiga Simao gave an overview of quality assurance practices in different European countries, but argued in favour of a contractual model drawn up between political and university authorities, with a clear agreement as to a select set of indicators that are to be used as criteria in the evaluation process. This minimises the need for inspection models of quality assessment, where often the question arises as to whether auditors external to the university share its norms and values. Professor Veiga Simao stressed his belief that the success of any evaluation process depended on the involvement of the establishment in question, and argued in favour of the institutionalisation of a climate of quality, where constant self-evaluation is carried out on the basis of previously drawn-up guidelines and frameworks which are clear about the objectives to be reached, and the means by which they can be achieved. External evaluation by independent, self-governing agencies is only meaningful when it supports the development of the culture of quality. Noting that the university as an institution is in transition, Professor Veiga Simao concluded that the process of evaluation should be

characterised by an openness of spirit in order to help institutions make the necessary and creative decisions to respond to the challenges society must face in the next millennium.

Experiences in the non-EU Mediterranean

Dr. Ronald Sultana presented an overview of the current situation of higher education in Mediterranean countries. He immediately raised the issue that non-EU Mediterranean states and territories are different one from the other in political, economic, and socio-cultural terms, and that because of these disparities, it was difficult to develop a comparative perspective in any holistic manner, taking the region as a unit of analysis. Dr. Sultana presented different demographic, economic and educational indicators to show the extent to which the region represented 'many voices' in one sea, but he nevertheless argued that a political economic approach based on theories of the periphery and semi-periphery could be useful in identifying common trends in the higher education sector in Mediterranean countries. Such theories highlighted a number of different characteristics common to the developing regions of the Mediterranean (and elsewhere), including: the mismatch between the demand for higher education and its provision; the almost total reliance on the state for educational provision; the adoption of European discourse and models in the higher education sector without a concomitant attempt to remain sensitive to the specific needs of the context in which such models are applied; the closeness of Mediterranean universities to sources of power, be these religious or secular; and the absence or weakness of rational bureaucracies which leads to the engagement of personnel on the basis of patronage networks rather than formal qualifications and proven ability.

Dr. Sultana also made the point that within the Mediterranean region, certain 'connective tissues' were rather more evident than others when it came to carrying out comparative exercises. This was the case with Arab countries in the region, which provided a useful case study in the carrying out of comparative education work in the Mediterranean. In the absence of actual empirical and grounded research on higher education in the region, Dr. Sultana proposed a strategy that could generate insights about the theme under discussion. This consisted in identifying the characteristics of higher education in the Arab Mediterranean, since a number of studies already existed in this regard, and to then consider whether such elements and issues resonated with the situation prevalent in the non-Arab Mediterranean. The key characteristics that could be identified were: [a] the burgeoning of student numbers in Arab universities, with student enrollment figures increasing fivefold in most countries, leading to several attempts to direct

or control the surge for higher education, and a massive brain drain of graduates to more developed countries [b] the reliance on the state for the provision of higher education, with private universities often being viewed with suspicion and ambivalence, and considered as a threat to government control over standards, curricula and recruitment of personnel [c] such reliance on the state gives the latter enormous influence and control on the higher education sector, with genuine academic autonomy and freedom being largely absent [d] wages tend to be low compared to salary structures in the private sector, so that universities are obliged to allow staff, particularly in the science and engineering fields, to have additional employment, with negative repercussions for research, writing, supervision of students and class preparation [e] Arab universities tend to be rather more transmitters than producers of knowledge, and this is due to lack of sufficient resources, as well as heavy teaching loads, high student-teacher ratios, and reliance on metropole countries for research and training partnerships [f] teaching style tends to reflect the authoritarian relationships that prevail in society more generally [g] the language medium of instruction presents particularly difficult challenges, given that university teaching in science, technology and business is generally conducted in English or French, with students generally not being sufficiently proficient in these languages given the Arabisation policies adopted over the past two decades in the compulsory school sector [h] there is a tension between the adoption of European and 'western' higher education models, and the mounting concerns regarding the perversion of spiritual values and ideas [i] the rise of another sort of fundamentalism, this time exported by western societies, in the form of an economic fundamentalism that is increasingly being adopted by the higher education sector, where technocratic rationality and 'performativity' become the norm, and where universities are increasingly feeling obliged to tighten their links with the perceived needs of the economy.

Dr. Sultana suggested that several of these characteristics were common to other non-Arab Mediterranean countries, with superficial differences accounted for by the cultural form in which deeper processes are expressed.

Professor Christos Theophilides took up the consideration of higher education in the Mediterranean region by focusing directly on his *alma mater*, the University of Cyprus, and by addressing the theme 'Bridging the gap between policy and practice' in meeting the challenge of quality assurance. The University of Cyprus is one of the Mediterranean's youngest University, having been established in 1989, and having opened its doors to students in 1992. It now caters for 2000 students, and the number will be doubled when new schools are added and the University will be functioning in its full capacity. Professor Theophilides made the point that the organisational characteristics of academic institutions are central to the consideration of the provision of a quality service. He identified six such

characteristics, reflecting on the situation prevailing at the University of Cyprus in regard to each of these attributes, as follows: [a] goal ambiguity, which means that assessment becomes difficult since targets are not clearly established, nor related performance indicators spelt out [b] client service, in terms of student input in the evaluation of university activity [c] the use of 'problematic' – as opposed to simple or standardised – technology, in the University's attempts to meet the disparate needs of its clients [d] the tension between the employment of professional staff, who value autonomy, and the bureaucratic demands for quality assurance, that entail 'external' rather than peer evaluation [e] environmental vulnerability, in the sense that universities find themselves subject to demands and pressures made by powerful external forces [f] organised anarchy, given that universities do not function as bureaucracies since they tend to be fluid and flexible, and do not have either clear lines of authority or unambiguous and uncontested goals.

Having identified the organisational characteristics of academic institutions, Professor Theophilides went on to argue that considerations of 'quality' always entailed some form of measurement, which can be either summative and evaluative in nature, or formative and future-oriented in scope. The speaker identified four major issues that needed to be addressed in any evaluative exercise, namely [a] the ground that needed to be prepared so that the measurement of quality could be carried out effectively [b] the procurement of the administrators' genuine commitment to the quality assessment process [c] the effective handling of faculty resistance to a quality assessment project, and [d] the maintenance of momentum during the implementation of a quality assurance programme. Having presented this framework, Professor Theophilides then outlined the steps taken by the University of Cyprus to ensure quality, referring to such procedures as the use of internationally renowned external professors as members of the Interim Governing Board and of personnel selection and promotion boards, the intensification of selective measures to admit only top quality students, so that between 1992 and 1996 only one applicant out of every ten was admitted to the University, and the provision of an adequate budget by the State which enabled the University to implement its activities. Professor Theophilides concluded his address by noting the difficulties involved in expanding quality assurance programmes to include both process and outcomes. He proposed a model developed by R. Barnett as a useful strategy for confronting two crucial dilemmas in this field, namely the issue of who has control over the quality assurance programme (should the exercise be in the hands of academics, and therefore be collegial in nature, or should it be in the hands of the administrators, and be bureaucratic in orientation), what form the evaluation should take and what purposes it should serve (should it be carried out in an emancipatory framework,

generating self-enlightenment or should it be technicist in spirit, with external assessment agents being resorted to).

Professor Hasan Simsek from the Middle East Technical University in Ankara extended the Mediterranean focus by considering recent developments in Turkish higher education systems. Professor Simsek first provided a historical overview of this sector, starting from the first establishment founded in 1773, dwelling on the developments following the proclamation of the Turkish Republic in 1923, particularly the 1933 reform which gave rise to the modern university sector in the country, the 1946 law which granted universities autonomy in governance, the 1973 law which set up a Higher Education Council to coordinate and regulate the growing higher education sector in Turkey, a Council which largely failed to achieve its goals, and the 1981 law which provided a new framework for the regulated expansion of a consolidated higher education structure. Since 1981, the number of universities has increased by three times (from 19 to 68 in 1996), the number of enrolled students has increaded by five times (from 41,574 in 1981 to 199,571 in 1991), number of teaching staff has increased by 65%, and number of students per teaching staff has dropped from 46 in 1981 to 39 in 1991. The graduation rate increased from 50% to 80% in science and engineering, and from 70% to 90% in health sciences.

Professor Simsek located these developments within the context of international trends in the higher education sector, looking at developed and developing countries, and raising issues that had been broached by several other speakers at the conference, including the pressure on universities to adopt new roles, decreasing state budgets and increasing calls for transparency and accountability, and burgeoning student numbers. Drawing on key documents issued by the World Bank and UNESCO, Professor Simsek identified the key problems facing most higher education institutions the world over, including: low quality stemming from expansion in enrollment with limited resources, inefficiency in terms of waste of public resources, programme duplications and high drop out rates, inequity in terms of higher public subsidies in favour of higher education compared to primary and secondary education, and management and institutional leadership issues. Each of these problems or challenges required a response to a set of dilemmas, which Professor Simsek articulated in the form of choices between quality and quantity, centralisation and decentralisation, state monopolisation and diversification, specialisation and interdisciplinarity, public funding and cost sharing.

Despite the tardiness in the development of its higher education sector, it would seem that Turkey is facing similar problems and dilemmas. Five such problematic areas were identified by Professor Simsek: [a] There is, for instance, continued pressure for further expansion of the sector, with an inefficient

distribution of enrollment in various kinds of post-secondary institutions. As in other countries, while student numbers have increased, and indeed more than tripled between 1970 and 1996, the amount of recurring public resources allocated to higher education has only increased in real terms by about 15% to 20%. Strategies that are being considered in order to confront this challenge include increasing the number of higher education institutions, both public and private; increasing the capacity of current higher education institutions, increasing the capacity of non-formal education, and increasing the number of two-year programmes including two-year post-secondary vocational and technical schools. [b] Another problem is the lack of qualified teaching staff, relative to the increase in student numbers, and despite the fact that since 1984 there has been a 139% increase in academic staff with doctorates. Professor Simsek suggested three possible solutions with regard to the problem of faculty shortage: joint graduate programmes between advanced and newly established universities, provision of scholarships for postgraduate study overseas, and changing the mission of some high ranking universities into élite research institutions. [c] A third problem concerns shrinking public resources for higher education funding and the need to reform public funding schemes in such a way that resources are used efficiently and in a manner that is open to accountability. Between 1993 and 1996, the education share of the state budget decreased from 22% to 9.8%, and the share of higher education of the national budget was 4.1% in 1993, and 2.6% in 1996. In such a situation, the only way forward seems to be the diversification of funding, primarily through cost-sharing with students, particularly as private rates of return to higher education graduates in Turkey are estimated to be very high, much higher than is the case for many developing countries. [d] A fourth set of challenges concern organisational and management issues, with the Turkish higher educational sector currently being controlled by the State on the one hand, and by an academic oligarchy on the other. Professor Simsek argued that the situation calls for a reform in the direction of decentralisation and institutional diversification, in order to make the university system more aligned with market forces. Indeed, Turkey is presently considering flexible funding patterns, giving universities more autonomy in institutional and financial operations; shifting much of the decision-making to institutional levels, and creating intermediary bodies to make institutions more accountable to society; weakening traditional public dominance in higher education through encouraging privatisation and through allowing the private and non-governmental institutions to enter the higher education sector. [e] A final major issue for the Turkish higher education sector concerns quality, which is generally considered to have deteriorated between 1980 and 1995 given the leap in enrollment figures. Lower quality provision has

affected instruction, undergraduate and graduate programmes, faculty staff, research and publications, student services, educational materials, and physical facilities. Professor Simsek proposed that among the ways quality issues could be addressed, one could highlight the development of more efficiency in the higher education sector, and the streamlining and channeling of resources towards specified strategic priorities.

Concluding comments

The one-day conference was premised on the value of the exchange of information and ideas between experts from the European and non-EU Mediterranean higher education sector. It very quickly became clear that the issues raised with reference to the former context were of relevance – and indeed, were often applicable – to the latter. It would seem that irrespective of the level of economic development, the higher education sector in most countries is facing similar challenges, including massification, reduced budgets, and internal and external pressures for the auditing and assurance of a quality educational service. Due to the different levels of development in the different countries, as well as to disparate economic, cultural and political contexts, some higher education systems faced the aforementioned challenges earlier, or more or less abruptly. Processes of globalisation and internationalisation have, however, seen a tightening of the world system, and the tendency has been for educational policies, as well as problem-resolution strategies, to cross national borders. The process of European integration has accelerated this trend, but other countries are also caught up in the centrifugal forces that increasingly characterise the contemporary information society.

Quality, its definition, measurement, and assurance, represented the key transversal themes of the conference. Quality auditing was considered by all participants to be a necessary activity. However, several of the keynote speakers and discussant raised questions related to *why* the exercise of quality assessment should take place, *what* it is that should be evaluated, *how* the exercise should take place, and *who* is best placed to carry out the evaluation. All four issues are interrelated, and an organic view of quality assessment remains sensitive to the questions *why?*, *what?*, *how?* and *who?*, and to the particular social, political and economic contexts in which these questions are posed. While different points of view were expressed, and reference was made to different mechanisms and structures that have been adopted in different countries in Europe and beyond it, there nevertheless emerged a set of consensual views that I will attempt to outline in a schematic manner:

- Quality auditing is necessary, not only because of the problems associated with increasing student enrollments, but also because the higher education sector has to respond to new demands and pressures, which oblige it to constantly examine its function and roles, and to render itself more transparent and accountable to stakeholders.

- Universities have always been concerned with the issue of quality and excellence, so that the current focus on auditing signals the intensification of challenges that already have a history in the institutional traditions of the university.

- Quality assurance practices have as much to do with the evaluation of educational effectiveness as much as with issues of power and control. This is at least partly due to a concern with the costs and hoped-for benefits – in individual and national terms – in connection with the higher education sector.

- Among the reasons given in response to the rationale behind the carrying out of a quality evaluation exercise, the ones most often mentioned were: accountability (to students, government, stakeholders, society generally); improvement of service, and reshaping of roles and functions in response to new realities and societal transformations. Formative assessment, where evaluation is carried out with the intention to identify weaknesses and to address them in the future, seemed to be preferred over summative forms of evaluation, where the goal is to judge a performance, possibly with a view to making decisions regarding financial budgeting.

- The issue of *what* ought to be evaluated was also covered by many speakers and discussants, and important distinctions were made between technicist and fragmentary approaches, and more holistic ones where attention was mainly given to the formal curriculum taught, as well as to character-building and the socialisation of students into the kinds of citizens required in a society that values economic well-being, and democratic government.

- Much attention was given to the *mechanisms* that could be used to carry out a quality assessment exercise, and as to *who* should use such mechanisms. Examples were presented from several different countries, but there generally seemed to be a preference for evaluative exercises that were carried out by the academic community itself, or in conjunction with it, rather than by an external agency *on* the academic community in question. The best practice is one that leads to the institutionalisation of a culture of quality and excellence in the higher education sector, and in order to facilitate such a culture, constant self-evaluation along clearly outlined criteria should be encouraged. External and impartial evaluating bodies or agencies can, and in some case *should* have a supportive role to play.

Participants expressed a general appreciation of the goals, process and outcomes of the one-day conference. They felt that it had provided a valuable opportunity for the exchange of information and ideas about a set of issues which were clearly topical and of great moment in the different countries represented at the meeting. The view was also expressed that the presence of representatives from other Mediterranean countries would have enriched the gathering, and ensured a more thorough portrayal of the diversity of the region, as well as of the challenges that it currently faces. Many speakers at the conference placed a lot of emphasis on the need for international cooperation and networking in order to help universities develop appropriate strategies for the assurance of quality and the management of an environment characterised by constant change. Such linkages are of great importance to third Mediterranean countries, and the present one-day meeting facilitated new contacts, both in a south-south and in a south-north direction. Such opportunities for exchange should be extended and reinforced through the creation of other fora where a structured dialogue can develop, with firm objectives and goals in mind.

BOOK REVIEWS

Esteve Oroval Planas (ed.), *Economia de la Educación (Economics of Education)***, Barcelona, Ariel Educación, 277 pp., 1996, ISBN 84-344-2601-3.**

This book is intended to introduce Spanish-speaking readers, particularly undergraduate education students enrolled in Spanish universities, to the international literature on the economics of education. The Editor's strategy to achieve this goal is to present *"the main issues faced today by economics of education in the form of texts selected from the most outstanding authors at the international level"* (p.9). 'International' is, in this case, a restricted term. Of the thirteen articles included in this collection, all but one have been previously published exclusively in U.S. or British journals, and their authors work in U.S. or British universities. The remaining article deals with educational financing in Spain, and its author is a professor from the Universidad de Barcelona. That restriction notwithstanding, the book supplies an excellent overview of the discipline by providing a good sample of its main theoretical and methodological approaches.

In the short history of the economics of education as an independent field, its debates have been concentrated on three major areas: the relationship between education and labour markets, the contribution of education to economic growth and social development, and the comparative analysis of alternative models of educational financing. Issues of equity, efficiency, productivity, private and public investments and rates of return, labour forecasting, market mechanisms, unemployment, decentralization, etc., tend to be discussed in the context of these three major thematic areas. This is also the case with most of the contributions to this volume.

Indeed, three of the five sections of the book correspond directly with these areas: section 2 ('education, occupation and the labor market'), section 3 ('education and growth'), and section 5 ('educational financing'). Section 4, although entitled 'equity and education', deals in reality with issues of educational financing (and its two articles would fit better in section 5), and the first section provides a good discussion of the discipline's state of the art.

The main criterion to select the articles was that they had not yet been translated into Spanish. Originally published in English between 1981 to 1994, five of them were published during the 1980s, and the other seven during the early 1990s. Thus, Spanish students are accessing works which English-speaking readers have read and discussed years ago, and which have been superseded by newer

books and articles that contain more recent information and address more updated developments.

This is not a fault of the editor of the book; if anything, it shows how difficult it is for Spanish-speaking academics and translators to keep pace with the large number of works published in English year after year. This is not to say that the discussions presented in the readings of this book are obsolete. Rather, many of the articles provide conceptual and theoretical frameworks that are necessary starting points upon which to build, and some of them are classics that will probably overcome the passing of time.

This is the case of the article selected as the opening piece (very appropriate, in my view). It is by Mark Blaug (University of London) and is entitled 'Where are we now in the Economics of Education?' This famous work, originally published in 1985, reviews the main assumptions of the first and second waves in economics of education, and examines the arguments of human capital theory and segmented labour markets theory, the shortcomings and insights of Bowles and Gintis' contribution in *Schooling in Capitalist America* and the relationship between labour forecasting and educational policy. Mark Blaug reappears in chapter 6 (becoming the only author with more than one contribution to the anthology) with 'Education and the employment contract' (1993), in which he further develops the analysis of the incomplete employment contract examined in the first article. Although this second article is insightful, its overlap with the first one makes one question the wisdom of selecting it, instead of a work by a different author. The selection of the critical response by Steven Klees to the first Blaug article, entitled, as a tribute to Blaug, 'The economics of education: a more than slightly jaundiced view of where we are now' is clearly appropriate, although surprisingly not inserted immediately after Blaug's article, but as chapter 3.

A number of articles throughout the book deal with the concept of human capital (Becker, Hashimoto, Weale), others with the monetary and non-monetary contributions of education in the context of other (noneducational) variables (Psacharopoulos, Levin and Kelley), and others on the financing of vocational education and training (Carnoy), of higher education (Leslie and Brinkman, Barr), of independent schools (Le Grand) and of the Spanish educational system (Calero).

The success of an introductory book like this depends on an adequate selection and translation of paradigmatic works in the field. By and large, both objectives were successfully achieved. The articles selected constitute a good representative sample of the diversity of the discipline. The article by Hashimoto, however, is excessively technical and probably inaccessible to the intended readers, who have no background in economics. Moreover, although space limitations always constitute a serious constraint, the volume would have benefited from a better

balance in the number of contributions by English speaking and non-English speaking authors.

The latter could have been particularly from Europe and also from Latin America. This would in turn have helped to expand the book's potential readership. The translations by Santanachs and Calero are commendable. As a minor detail, it is not clear why English terminology is kept when there are corresponding terms in Spanish (for example, using 'input' and 'output' instead of 'insumo' and 'producto').

Spanish students will not find, in this book, the development of an argument, or a systematic overview of diverging perspectives. They will find, however, the Spanish version of several important articles originally published in English. This is an achievement in itself. Nevertheless, the volume could have been further improved by including short biographical notes on the authors, a glossary of the most relevant terms, and a concluding analytical chapter. Indeed, although the Editor's prologue is useful for pedagogical purposes in summarizing the chapters, it could have been useful to end the book by placing all the works in perspective, and updating the evolution of the field with a short review of more recent contributions.

This is particularly important in the contemporary context of globalization dynamics, the retrenchment of the welfare state, structural adjustment, neoliberal policies, and the increasing commodification of cultural goods.

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Rifat Okçabol, Halk Egitimi [Yetiskin Egitimi] (People's Education [Adult Education]), Istanbul, Der Publication, 198 pp, 1994, ISBN 975 353 063 3.Cevat Celep, Halk Egitimi: Kavramlar, *Ilkeler, Yöntemler, Teknikler [second edition] (Adult Education: Concepts, Principles, Methods, Techniques),* **Ankara, PEGEM, 134 pp, 1995, ISBN 975 7251 14 3.Firdevs Günes***Yetiskin Egitimi [Halk Egitimi] (Adult Education [People's Education]),* **Ankara, Ocak Publication, 207 pp, 1996, ISBN 975 422 088 3.**

These three books, in Turkish, are the most recent introductory adult education texts to be published in Turkey. They introduce the reader to the concept of adult education and examine historical developments and current practices of adult education in Turkey. The works can certainly be regarded as important contributions to the literature on adult education in Turkey. They are of benefit to adult education students and student teachers, even though they do have their limitations and weaknesses.

I would like to make it clear, at the outset, that adult education has different meanings and refers to different practice in different societies, since it is socially constructed, culturally bound and politically driven. It constitutes a contested terrain of theory, policy and practice. In Turkey, people's education (*halk egitimi*), adult education (*Yetiskin Egitimi*) and non-formal education (y*aygin egitim*) are used synonymously. However, nonformal education refers to the organisational aspects of adult education policies and practices. People's education, which reflects the impact of one of the six principles of Ataturkist ideology, had a populist theme during the early period of the Republic. In 1932, Mustafa Kemal Ataturk and his colleagues founded the People's Houses as the adult educational establishments of modern Turkey.

The People's Houses were abolished in 1951 and, four years later, People's Education centres, i.e. adult education centres, were set up by the Ministry of National Education (Duman 1997). It would be relevant to remark that colleagues in Turkish University adult education departments also employ the term 'popular education' with reference to people's education. Reflecting such a difference in the use of terminology, Okçabol has opted to use the term *'halk egitimi'* first, while Günes has preferred *'Yetiskin Egitimi'*.

Okçabol's book is divided into ten sections. The first three sections deal with the conceptualisation of adult education: adult education concepts, 'why is adult education important and necessary?', philosophical foundations of adult education and the concept of adult learning. Section Four focuses on the methods and techniques used in adult education. The author discusses such approaches as

individual, group and mass teaching in adult education. In section five, he attempts to examine the role of adult educators and the process of curriculum development in adult education. Section Six focuses on the historical development of adult education in the US, Britain and other European countries. Later in the book, he outlines the general characteristics of the historical development of adult education by classifying countries in terms of 'developing' and 'developed'.

The last four sections, which, to my mind, constitute the most successful and significant part of the book (about one third of the whole book), are on adult education in Turkey. They deal with: historical developments, the legislative and institutional bases, programmes and practices, issues and trends. The analysis in the last four sections is carried out on the basis of a comprehensive review of policy documents. Okçabol draws attention to the following developments regarding adult education in Turkey: the high rate of young people in the overall population, the increasing rate of life expectancy, the development of the women's movement, migration from the rural areas to the urban metropolis and the increasing number of adult educators trained at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels.

Okcabol's book could be considered a useful text for adult education students and would constitute essential reading for anybody interested in Adult Education in Turkey. It provides a rather clear picture of adult education in Turkey. However, the book provides a limited, and therefore not comprehensive, review of the current literature on adult education in Turkish and other languages. Conceptual debates on adult education are narrowly framed in the early sections. For example, only non-formal education and adult education were defined in section one. And then an attempt was made to define the concepts of continuing education, recurrent education, lifelong education and community development in two pages! The conceptual framework of adult education is over complicated and we find numerous different concepts that are classified as 'core' and 'qualifying' by Malcolm Tight (1996). The conceptual framework of adult education entails well researched and well presented work. The quality of translation would also be an important factor here. The translation of new concepts and the name of educational institutions should be made carefully. The term 'Local Education Authorities', used in Britain, was badly translated into Turkish in Rifat Okçabol's book. The book is readable and interesting and provides a comprehensive account of the historical developments and future trends in adult education in Turkey. The last four sections are the book's strongest part and, therefore, this publication will be of interest to anyone looking into the practice and theory of adult education in Turkey.

Celep's book is divided into eight short chapters. The first four chapters focus on the conceptual framework. It provides a discussion around: the importance of

adult education; such basic concepts as lifelong education, recurrent education, community education and education for all; the purpose, function and principles of adult education; lifelong education; characteristics of adult learning and the motivation of adults. In Chapter Five, the author discusses the development of adult education programmes by stressing the importance of needs assessment in adult education. The methods and techniques of adult education were mentioned in Chapters Six and Seven. He highlights distance education, community development and public relations as important areas of concern within adult education. In the final chapter, he examines historical developments and the organisational structure of adult education in Turkey. This is the strongest and longest part of the book.

One can hardly say that Celep's book provides a useful and diverse collection of national and international accounts of adult education. In other words, this book represents neither a national nor an international review of the literature. The text deals specifically with adult education practices in Turkey rather than with an illustration of what is adult education, both nationally and internationally. With regard to readership, the book is targeted at students who attend the compulsory undergraduate level lecture in adult education. Günes's book is divided into ten chapters. She begins with a brief account of concepts and definitions of adult education, mainly employing the formal/non-formal/informal classification in education. Chapter Two deals with the philosophies of adult education promoted at UNESCO conferences in Western, Eastern and Third World countries. Chapter Three considers theories related to adult education which are classified as 'basic' and 'additional' theories of adult education. She sees Thorndike, Knowles, Cross, McClusky, Knox, Mezirow and Freire as basic theorists of adult education. In the fourth chapter, she examines the organisation of adult education by using 'western', 'eastern' and 'third world' as her terms of classification. Chapter Five considers adult education programmes and their content. Chapter Six provides a summary of motivation theories, approaches to the motivation of adults for participation and examples of such approaches. Chapter Seven discusses the methods employed in adult education, while Chapter Eight is entitled 'Counseling in Adult Education'. In this chapter, she indicates the purposes, target groups, roles and contents of adult counseling. She also describes counseling techniques in adult education, providing examples from Ireland, France, Germany and Turkey. Chapter Nine focuses on the training and employment of adult educators as discussed at the UNESCO adult education conferences and as they occur in such countries as Austria, Germany, Belgium, Denmark, Spain, Britain, Sweden, France and six more European countries. The last chapter focuses on supervision and evaluation in adult education and contains some international reflections.

A few points ought to be raised here. In the first place, Günes's book draws on adult education literature written in French. The reader can easily feel that the text is mainly based on translation. Such translations are quite important and the task involved is not an easy one, especially when translating such basic concepts as Jack Mezirow's 'perspective transformation' or Paulo Freire's 'conscientizacao'. Secondly, any analysis of Mezirow, Freire, Knowles and other thinkers which is based on secondary sources should be viewed with caution. It is not fair to judge Freire, his radical pedagogy and his thoughts on conscientizacao without reading his books or the critiques made by leading experts on Freire's works. I believe that leading theorists of adult education should be analysed and interpreted through the reading of primary sources. Otherwise, misinterpretation, poor translation and unfair criticism are likely to occur. My third point of criticism concerns the author's classification of societies as 'western', 'eastern' and 'the third world'. 'North-South', 'Developed-Developing-Underdeveloped' or 'regional – continental' are the mostly used classifications. It is quite difficult to understand the logic behind Günes's classification of societies. My final point concerns the comparative analyses in Okçabol's and Günes's books. Methodological debates in International Comparative Adult Educational studies are quite complex. Such studies are concerned not only with the gathering of data on one or more aspects of adult education in two or more countries or regions but also with the identification of differences and similarities. Furthermore, these studies aim to generate an understanding of why the differences and similarities occur and to explore their ramifications and significance for other countries. It is therefore argued that real comparative studies in the social sciences are very rare. Most of these studies consist of juxtaposition and not comparison. A juxtaposition on the basis of one or two secondary sources might prove useless. There would be no significance in such juxtapositions and comparisons.

In conclusion, academic interest in adult education is a recent occurrence in Turkey. When I was an undergraduate, there was only one introductory adult education text. Now there are many. This is quite salutary, even though these texts have their limitations and weaknesses. The time is ripe for the production of an edited adult education text which would be the fruit of cooperation and collaboration among adult educationists in Turkey.

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Ahmet Duman, University of Ankara.

Giovanni Pampanini, *Il Pedagogista Scalzo (The Barefooted Peda-gogue),* **Catania, Latessa, 109 pp, 1996.**

Is it possible, given the complex society in which we live, to find a new way of educating and conceiving of a new philosophy of education? This is the poser that Pampanini grapples with in his essay, Il Pedagogista Scalzo. *This is not an easy book. On the contrary, it presupposes a sound philosophical background on the reader's part, but it is to this book's credit that it encourages the reader to problematise western culture and to explore the basis for a meaningful encounter between Western values and those of 'the other'.*

At the outset, the author enquires about the meaning of education in this day and age and, above all, whether there can be an educational theory removed from practice. In answering this question, Pampanini maintains that it is not possible to formulate a new educational philosophy which bears no relationship to practice. With this in mind, he gleans useful ideas from the thought of different authors. The author stresses the importance of engaging critically with educational issues and with society in general. He shows that contemporary society is a global and multiracial one where different races are looking for a way to live in common. In a similar context, it is surely a difficult task to educate people for a reciprocal responsibility. The educator must help the person *"to be ethically able to combine his/her own happiness with that of the whole of humanity"*. To reach this aim, the educator should help develop in persons an open mind and a great sense of tolerance; but nowadays these intentions sound very commonplace or rhetorical.

Pampanini explains that Kant very much helped to remove rhetoric from pedagogical reflections. In *Critica della Ragione Pratica*, the German philosopher asserts that persons live with the aim of gratifying their own desires in order to achieve happiness. *"But happiness is a complex word"* says Pampanini who demonstrates that it is not possible to identify tout court happiness with the satisfaction of one's own needs. Kant dwelt a lot on the inborn struggle between desires and ethics. A strong sense of morality leads us to recognise happiness in the well being of humanity at large. Pampanini understands Kant's message and underlines that the human being has to learn to struggle to achieve the necessary freedom from external conditioning. Human beings can master their own passions by using reason and by refining their ethical sense. In this way they acquire what Kant calls *'tugend'*, that is: moral intention which is not acquired once and for all, for one must constantly struggle to maintain it. Today it is said that education, which entails information and the process of forming, should aim at *"facilitating social communication, the free access to the rights of citizenship, and international comprehension"*. From the Kantian point of view, it is quite difficult to attain these aims. Pampanini concludes that education is characterised by *'difficilizzazione'*.

'*Difficilizzazione*' means that education entails the onerous task of revealing the complexity of the set goals. Pampanini points to the example of the so-called 'third generation of human rights'. He refers, in this context, to Human Rights Education, Peace Education, Education for Development, Health Education and Environmental Education. They are all interconnected, so that peace permits development, but the latter must occur in a manner that is not harmful to the environment and therefore to our health. Educators must analyse all the elements, bearing in mind their reciprocal influences, and then identify the tools which would be useful for them to realise their objectives.

So Pampanini examines the theories of Apel. Starting from the Apellian principle of the 'unlimited community of communication', he shows that, in a mixed group, composed of people of different race and culture, a common linguistic tie on its own cannot resolve the social problems of a multicultural community. Such a community is characterised by different ways of thinking. Arabs and Europeans have different conceptions of education, justice, law, human rights and so forth.

The educator should set an example by engaging in comparative practice, the critical cognitive vehicle for a truly meaningful process of intercultural education. Drawing from Apel, Habermas, Derrida, Marx, Bion, Freud and others, and taking on board psychological and social viewpoints, Pampanini lucidly and synthetically explores the ingredients for a comparative approach that can engender a genuine dialogue between cultures. In this context, he utilises Huxley's metaphor of the home. Human beings, whatever their culture may be, are driven by a constant desire to learn: this thirst for knowledge matches the desire to make ourselves, and our philosophy of life, known to the other people. This human characteristic gives one the appearance of a *"door which is left ajar, lying open between home and street"*.

The educator must encourage such broad-mindedness, preventing the subject from remaining entrapped within his/her cultural boundaries. In so doing, Pampanini accords pedagogy a new definition. It is a pedagogy of research and communication. Pedagogy is research because it has to *"be improved to improve the relationship with difference"*, whatever the latter may be: different race, different language, different religion and so on. The educator must understand and explain every aspect of this reality. So, the author maintains that pedagogical research must measure up to every human science: *"the pedagogical research... is a cultural ...research, that includes very different spheres of knowledge: psychology...philosophy, history.."* This way, pedagogy must remain true to its mission, that of not being a barren form of erudition but a process whereby one obtains the tools for understanding oneself and others.

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Jorge Calero, *Financiación de la educación superior en España: Sus implicaciones en el terreno de la equidad (The Funding of Higher Education in Spain: Its implications for the field of equity),* Fundación BBV. Bilbao, 121 pp, 1996, ISBN 84-88562-63-2.

A substantial part of the current debate about the relationships between government and higher education is concerned with the impact of the funding of higher education on the distribution of income. This book describes the regressive effect of the Spanish method of funding, although the modifications introduced during the last decade have slightly reduced the regressivity of the system. The study by Calero begins with a theoretical and methodological outline of the main components of a thorough analysis on the redistributive effects of the funding of public higher education (Chapters 1 and 2). In these chapters, the author examines the specific nature of the analyses carried out from the area of the Economics of Education and the possible options between which the researcher can choose in undertaking a research of this type. Among these options, Calero examines the way families are classified, the treatment of taxes, the intergenerational transfer problem or the use of age group limitations with the purpose of identifying the potential users of higher education. The third chapter introduces the main traits and results of the analysis. Here, Calero confirms the regressivity of the current method of funding public higher education, showing that, during the past decade, there has been a slight decrease in the regressive effect. According to the author, the regressivity arises mainly from the lack of a private higher education sector in Spain, from the difficulties of access to higher education of lower income groups and from the limited effects of the grant system. In the nineties, however, there has been an improvement in the access of lower income families, but it has been accompanied by a greater participation of middle classes in public educational services. The author, then, demonstrates that his initial hypothesis, that there has been a growing use by the middle classes of educational services, has been supported by the evidence, and that the grant system has only slightly alleviated the regressivity of the method of funding. In that sense, the fact that the cover rate of the grant system is between 22% and 42% for the lower income groups and around 16% for the highest income classes suggests that there are problems with the design and application of the system, which interfere with the equity objective of making the distribution of income more equal.

In general, the regressive effects described in many studies carried out from the area of the Economics of Education have been accompanied by alternative proposals to change the current systems of funding, and specifically, to reduce public participation in the funding of higher education. Therefore, having

described the real redistributive effects, Calero analyses the impact of a set of proposals outlined by the Spanish University Council addressed to change the current system of funding, covering areas such as fees, grant policies, and loan programmes. By using regression-based techniques, Calero concludes that modifications in fees would have a limited but not irrelevant effect on the access to higher education of lower income families. Specifically, 2.45% of students coming from these groups would have less opportunity to enter higher education. In fact, major redistributive effects of the reforms analysed - grant policies and loan programmes included - would fall on the middle classes. For the author, this would happen as a consequence of the following factors: firstly, the impact of economic variables – changes in fees – on the access would only affect lower income groups; secondly, the current grant system and the modifications proposed by the Spanish University Council, mainly designed to increase the amount of resources, would not change the favourable impact of the system on the middle classes; and finally, the proposed loan programme – commercial loans, instead of income-related loans – would only affect these groups, making the participation of lower income families in higher education more difficult. In brief, the redistributive effects of the reforms analysed would fall on the middle classes, and, in a limited way, on the lower income classes. In the light of these results, Calero provides a number of recommendations for Spanish policy makers. For example, he proposes changes in the grant system in order to ensure that resources are directly addressed to lower income groups and considers the possibility of introducing income-related loans in the current system of funding. In general, Calero stresses the need to intensify the redistributive character of the Spanish system of funding. Unfortunately, the description and treatment of these proposals are brief and for that reason, most educational economists who read this book could feel that their appetite has been whetted but not satisfied. On the other hand, some other issues remain to be explored such as the growing importance of the private sector, which has reduced the participation in public institutions of higher income classes in recent years or the impact of pupil performance at the school before entering higher education as a variable to take into account in analyses of access.

The strength of the book lies in the meticulous treatment of alternative methods, the accuracy of the analysis and the novelty in the Spanish context of a study of income redistributive effects specifically focused on the educational field. In brief, Calero offers us a considerable amount of useful information and a conceptual framework that is very helpful in understanding the current complexities of government-higher education relationships.

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Rabeh Sebaa, *L'Arabisation dans les Sciences Sociales: le Cas Algérien (Arabization in the Social Sciences: the Algerian case)* – **L'Harmattan: Collection: Histoire et Perspectives Méditérannéennes, 1996.**

In Algeria, the publication of a book has become a rather unusual event. Instead of being a somehow normal activity, publishing seems like attempting the impossible. 'That's one published and saved', we always say after each birth. Saved from oblivion. Another book which will help re-establish our memory in the face of the overall amnesia. We have become oblivious of what we were: a people full of contradictions, of hope and history, but also a people unable, at the threshold of the third millennium, to extricate itself from the ascendancy of orality. But which vernacular are we talking about, when one knows that the country is still struggling against real/false linguistic problems it wants to solve with profuse government decisions, decrees and laws, away from the socio-cultural, linguistic and psycholinguistic realities of the country?

Rabeh Sebaa's book freezes in words, scalpel-words, a fraction of this memory which is lacking, not because of a certain inadequacy, but because we have been violated. Is there a more extreme violence than to go counter nature? That is what Sebaa has tried to describe in his book by tackling, in a very convincing way, the problem of arabization at university level from a general view point to a narrower case study: i.e. arabization of social sciences. He paints with vitriolic words past and present policies of arabization seen as a crusade towards the *"recovery of the lost Linguistic Paradigm"*. Such is the problematic identified by Sebaa: the relationship between a society and its *parole* through a study of the linguistic mediation in the context of social sciences. Besides, the scenery is established outside the usual binary opposition between the institution and the academic. Sebaa tackles the academic in order to avoid the trap of the good mannered justifications of certain academics fond of compromises instead of truths, or, at least, denunciations of the corruptions (political, linguistic and social) undertaken towards and guided by objectives which are not always clear, to say the least.

The generalisation of the national language which means for many the acquisition of an appropriate Arabic terminology, has been on the agenda of political and educational authorities since independence. The slogan about this supposed generalisation is misleading because it is built on a double lie: on the one hand there is no generalisation because this presupposes a daily use of the language, on the other hand, the term 'national' implies a certain unity of the process of arabization, which is far from being the case. In this endeavour, several contradictions have appeared: the focal dichotomy which is proposed, is that

between language and knowledge. This is all the more true that in the learning context considered (that of social sciences), it is about a *"situation of a double learning of language and knowledge"* (p.112). In such a framework, Sebaa proceeds methodically and sets the stakes of *'Comment-dire'*, *'Comment-se-dire'*, *'Comment-nous-dire'* to go beyond the 'politico-ideological layout' (which is intrinsically speaking desirable, but a shade idealist):

"It is then in the complexity of the simultaneity of this double learning: learning of a language and acquisition of a knowledge, that we set out to read in that thrust of anxiety, some aspects of what is conventionally referred to by crisis of social sciences, and hence of the university in Algeria in relation with a policy of a new language planning, badly secured because badly accepted" (p.28).

The book is divided into three chapters. The first one studies the types, contents and conditions of the learning of a so-called conventional language (a label which does not suit us because all languages are sets of conventions), i.e. the standard one. In relation with the situations where Arabic is learned, the epistemological aspects (problems of terminology and lexis) are studied in the second chapter. As for the last chapter, it expounds the anthropological aspects in relation with to situation of learning.

Thus, chapter One entitled *'Formes d'Apprentissage et Contraintes d'Usage Linguistiques'*, undertakes to lay down the linguistic, pedagogical and scientific conditions of arabization. Launched in September 1980, the process of arabization at university level took a false start since generalisation of Arabic meant only acquisition of an appropriate and specialised language. The other underlined aberration was the systematic shunning of the francophones who were amongst the most qualified cadres of the country, and who had then to find refuge-places (e.g. institutes of foreign languages or centres of research) far from the torment of arabization. However, the various means of training in learning Arabic will reveal their limits: the centres for intensive learning of languages, CEIL (which showed a pathetic inefficiency, on the pedagogical and scientific planes); the linguistic stays in the Arab countries (confronted themselves with the problem of using Arabic in scientific and technical domains, but rather less psychologically 'blocked' by the use of dialects), finally, the ridiculous is reached when a special type of teaching called 'individual teaching by dubbing' is offered as an alternative.

Sebaa offers then a very interesting dichotomy between 'arabophones of filiation' and 'arabophones of affiliation' to distinguish between the professionals of the language who master Arabic from the amateurs who gibber the language. This phenomenon, he posits, ends up in a triple 'exteriority' of the language: in relation to the teacher-apprentice, in relation to the university community (research being made mostly in French). and finally in relation to society (by a phenomenon which we would call language schizophrenia).

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The tone of the book becomes more caustic when the author takes up in the second chapter entitled *'Arabisation entre Modernisation de la Langue et Instrumentalisation de la Terminologie: Aux Origines du Terminologisme Total'*, the study of the epistemological aspects concerning the 'how-to-say' and the capacity of the 'know-how-to-say' ('How to express in a language the contents of another', p. 176). If we share the idea of a 'slumber of Arabic linguistics', we diverge on the so-called 'laziness of the mind' of the Arabs, to explain the former point. On the other hand, what is worth our interest is the description made of the ambivalent rapport of arabophone teachers with a scientific milieu they search eagerly(in France), and a language they hate (French).

As to the contribution of Middle-East teachers, Sebaa considers it insignificant, because not responding to the objectives set to the latter. They are also accused, justly, to be doubly incompetent, because of their incapacity to respond first to a 'pedagogical expectation' and then to a 'linguistic demand'. School has thus been transformed from a 'giver of knowledge into a place of Arabic learning'. As for the universities, they have become 'centres of linguistic literacy' where scientific matters have but the meanest share. If one feels here a certain bitterness in the author's analysis, it is because he has been able to measure the extent of the damages done at the pedagogical and scientific levels, in the face of an arabization made extremely instrumental. The best illustration of this narrow vision of things is brought by a thought-provoking study on the problem of borrowing in the semantic field. The author distinguishes between three types of borrowing: *'Eddakhil'* (or 'intruding' words of occasional use), *'El moua'reb'* (or arabized foreign words), and *'El mouwallad'* (or words of Arabic origin with a modified meaning). One desideratum would be that the explanations be accompanied with illustrations for a better understanding. This part is likely to appear too theoretical to those who do not know Arabic, and the illustrations would have been most welcomed.

In addition, Sebaa posits rightly that arabization for the educational authorities has become a problem of *'moustallah'* (terminology), hence the reduction of the chances for the success of the process. Arabization has thus become an atomisation of the language, not the mastery of its discourse in specialised domains. The result is that *"the learning of the terminology takes precedence over the learning of the language which itself prevails over the learning of knowledge"* (p.90). This 'total terminologism' has become the keystone of the policy of arabization hence the mushrooming of glossaries in the book market, products of apprentice-linguists. The same statement can apply to the Arab world where a concern for standardisation and internationalisation of glossaries remain wishful thinking. Sebaa then shows through a revealing study the level of terminological spreading in the Maghreb (though the peoples are supposed to be close historically

and linguistically), justifying the popular saying which states that: 'the Arabs are agreed not to get on'. Besides, the author puts forward the idea that the development of the glossaries without arabization of knowledge was such that the *"effort of translating is substituted for the effort of reflection"* (p.120). The budding linguists are content with the development of a terminological culture in relation with modernity to which they want to adhere while expressing it piecemeal.

The third chapter entitled *'Arabisation et Parole Sociale: Perspectives Anthropologiques'*, studies the procedure of the learning of Arabic by the teachers by considering the anthropological aspects. Sebaa underlines in a very pertinent way the idea that the debate about arabization is first and foremost dependent on the solving of the opposition between language of instruction and language of knowledge. Besides, arabization is not one but many, because it reflects the existence of different communities (university, judicial...). The university teachers being always obsessed by the Absolute Norm (the language of the Koran), this has led to the fact that *"science has become secondary with regard to the forms of its expression"*. Thus, in sociology, as for the other university subjects in a situation of double learning, the problematic between *"thinking and naming"* might last as long as the university teacher does not venture boldly and in a definite way into creation. If not, sociology as a discipline will remain in a *"permanent state of incompletion"*. The process of imitation has to be reduced to a minimum to allow research to leave the ghetto (scientific as well as linguistic) in which administration has confined it. The obstacles being many-sided, it is difficult for the social sciences to solve in a satisfactory manner the real dilemma (language of teaching and language of knowledge). If the different methods of arabization have showed their limits, it seems to us that this is more due to this *"arabization through negation"* advocated by the nihilists and the defenders of the Norm. The adoption of a systemic approach to the process of arabization is as much for us as for the author, the less partisan means to materialise it:

> *"To accept the project of a type of arabization which does not associate the Algerian vernacular, French, Tamazight (Berber), and the large spectrum of the medial and intermediary languages, it is to accept, in the long term, the idea of its non-attainability"* (p. 174)

As for the future of sociology as a science, it seems to be caught in a stranglehold between the Linguistic (lying fallow) and the Institutional (in constant disequilibrium). Only an objective and realistic arabization could put an end to the formalist and prescriptive approach advocated to solve the debated process. In addition, it would consider the usual vernaculars not as linguistic aberrations, but as authentic manifestations of a people in harmony with itself.

This approach will move away this linguistic schizophrenia the learners are imposed today through a de-structured school, and a popular media (TV), in constant break-up, at the linguistic level, with the average Algerian.

One can find the tone of this study a bit critical (even severe), but the book never shifts to counter-productive polemic. If there is absence of complacency towards those who have led the enterprise of arabization to run aground on the reefs of their political and personal interests, this is due to the starts of a conscience which refuses to keep silent in the face of the mess it is witnessing.

However, if John Milton has had his *Paradise Recovered*, Sebaa announces that we cannot regain the *'Lost Linguistic Paradigm'*. This observation is made not because the author is not optimistic – all teachers are – but because the problem is to be found elsewhere than in the characteristics of the language of teaching the individuals endure more than they master. Thus, it is through a language naturally internalised that the teacher can become Prometheus in the scientific domains. The book by Sebaa has succeeded in lighting up a small fire of hope. Let us burn in it our hesitations, our erring ways, the extremely prescriptive attitudes, and 'the duty-to-say', for a natural language found again, and if need be, for our own rectitude.

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• *All the quotations are translated by the reviewer.*

Peter McLaren and Peter Leonard (eds.), *Paulo Freire A Critical Encounter*, New York and London, Routledge, 194 pp, 1993, ISBN 0-415-08792-9 (pbk), 0-415-03895-2 (hbk).

Peter McLaren and Colin Lankshear (eds.), *Politics of Liberation. Paths from Freire*, 229 pp, New York and London, Routledge, 1994, ISBN 0-415-09127-6 (pbk), 0-415-09126-8 (hbk).

1997 has had its share of commemorative events worldwide. And a number of these centred around personalities who have made an impact in the area of education, including personalities whose work, though influential in different parts of the globe, is rooted in a Mediterranean context. One should mention here the Italians, Antonio Gramsci (1891-1937)[1] and Lorenzo Milani (1923-1967). The former's ideas are very influential in the field of education and, this year, there have been a number of symposia and conferences marking the 60th Anniversary of his death. 1997 also marks the 30th anniversary of Lorenzo Milani's death. Like his compatriot, Danilo Dolci, Milani[2] is one of Italy's better known critical pedagogues who, among other things, set up a radical school for working class students (mainly 'drop outs' of the formal educational system) at the remote village of Barbiana in Tuscany . One hopes that the work of these two figures, particularly that of Lorenzo Milani, who is certainly not as well known internationally as Gramsci, will feature prominently in future issues of this journal.

With regard to commemorative events, though, their work in the context of education was suddenly overshadowed, in the latter part of 1997, by that of the Brazilian, Paulo Freire (1921-1997). This is owing to the unexpected death of the remarkable Brazilian thinker and educationist at the Albert Einstein Hospital in São Paulo, Brazil in the early hours of May 2nd. The field of education has thus lost arguably its greatest figure of the last thirty years, a person whom I have described elsewhere as one of this century's greatest voices of human emancipation. In the first of the two books under review, Cornel West describes him as *"the exemplary organic intellectual of our time."* In the Preface to a most recent publication (Freire et al, 1997), Joe L Kincheloe writes: *"I suppose Paulo Freire is the closest thing education has to a celebrity. Known or loved (or not) throughout the world, Paulo commands a presence unequalled by anyone who calls himself or herself an educator."* (p. vii).

However, despite the several commemorative events focusing on Freire at this time of the year, it has to be said that publications and conferences celebrating his

ideas and evaluating their relevance to different fields and forms of social activism, never ceased throughout the last twenty years or so. Freire himself boasts a considerable output of published work, some of which has just seen or still has to see the light of publication. Three books by Freire, including one which is co-authored and another co-edited, were published in 1997. Another, a series of reflections on his life and work in the form of letters to his niece (this invites comparisons with the letters by Gramsci and Milani), was published in 1996. And there are works that Freire wrote in either Portuguese or Spanish which are currently being translated into English. In addition to Freire's own work, which includes several papers published in a variety of journals and ideas expressed on video and audio tape, the last seventeen years or so have witnessed a series of studies concerning the application of Freire's ideas in different contexts, including the ones by Shor (1987) and Kirkwood & Kirkwood (1989). We have seen three comprehensive critical studies in English, namely the ones by Taylor (1993), Elias (1994) and Gadotti (1994), besides a number of edited volumes comprising different studies. Shor's book features among these edited volumes and among the best known works of this type is Robert Mackie's *Literacy and Revolution – the Pedagogy of Paulo Freire* But the two books edited by Peter McLaren, one with Peter Leonard and the other with Colin Lankshear, are, to date, the most comprehensive and up to date edited volumes of papers on Freire.[3] A review of these two books can easily develop into a fitting commemoration of Freire's work.

The first volume, *Paulo Freire A Critical Encounter*, brings together some of the best British and American names in that area of educational practice and thinking on which Paulo Freire has exerted the greatest influence and of which he is arguably the finest exemplar - critical pedagogy. Ever since the publication of *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* , Freire's exerted an enormous influence on educators who recognise the politics of education (no longer conceived of as a neutral activity) and who choose to act as educators on the side of the oppressed (the politically subaltern, the disenfranchised) in an attempt to contribute to social change. Among the finest white male exponents of this approach in North America, we find Henry Giroux, Roger I. Simon, Michael Apple, Peter McLaren, Ira Shor and Donaldo Macedo, three of whom are represented in this volume. Afro-American and women writers are hardly evident in this volume, bell hooks being the only one to contribute a chapter, with Cornel West writing a very brief, one page preface. As far as gender is concerned, the situation in the second volume is much better. There are six of the many women who engage with Freire's ideas in their work. Three of them co-author their pieces with male contributors. There are enough good writers on or engaging with Freire worldwide to enable editors to provide volumes which can be very inclusionary in the voices they represent. And the whole issue of an inclusionary politics, while pertinent to any discussion

on education and social change, has been central to Freire's thinking in his later work. This is partly a positive response to the numerous critiques of his earlier work, made primarily by North American feminists, because of its disregard for gender politics. The issue of an inclusionary politics constitutes an important theme in the two books under review and Freire is the first to introduce it in the Foreword to the first volume. The Foreword is translated by Donaldo Macedo who constantly raises this issue in his numerous dialogues with Freire, including the very revealing one in the first of these two volumes. The issue of an inclusionary politics is taken up by many of the contributors to the two volumes but particularly by bell hooks. hooks constantly embraces Freire's ideas, finding them instructive and inspirational despite the "phallocentric paradigm of liberation" they reflect. With regard to gender, the issue is discussed in depth by Kathleen Weiler, in her memorable 1991 paper from the *Harvard Educational Review*, which reappears in slightly modified form as the first chapter in *Politics of Liberation*. After underlining the important absences in Freire's project of liberation and outlining as well as analysing the different strands within feminism, Weiler explores possibilities for a fusion of Freire's insights and those of a feminist pedagogy. The same theme is taken up, in the same volume, by Jeanne Brady who, however, draws too much on Weiler's paper in her discussion on critical literacy, feminism and the politics of representation. She therefore repeats some of the arguments made in the first paper in the volume. Brady however broadens the discussion to incorporate insights from the literature on postcolonialism and critical literacy, drawing primarily on Henry Giroux, Cornel West and Abdul JanMohamed.[4]

The theme of postcolonialism features prominently in Henry Giroux's essay in the first volume. Giroux is one of the most prolific writers in the areas of critical pedagogy and cultural studies and is one of the most cited authors not only within the educational field but also outside it. In my view, he has provided one of the best essays in English on Freire that I have ever read, namely his introduction to Freire's *Politics of Education* which has also reappeared in Giroux's *Teachers as Intellectuals*. One of the concepts he develops is that of border pedagogue, a recurring one in his later work, forcefully developed in his 1992 book *Border Crossings* but also in other works. And, in the essay under review, he refers to Freire as a fine example of a border pedagogue. Through a variety of experiences, including that of exile, Freire managed to cross the boundaries of the cultural domains in which he initially operated (these domains relate to his location as white, male, heterosexual, Latin American etc.) to enter *"the terrains of Otherness..."* Freire's constantly recognised that there is a limit to the extent to which one can understand the terrain of the Other (see his response to the writings of academics and practitioners in Freire et al, 1997). And yet one winces at

a statement he makes in the dialogue with Macedo (first volume),: *"I am too a woman"* (p. 175). Freire made this statement to express his solidarity with women in their struggle for liberation from patriarchal, *machista* oppression. I would argue that, 'to be a woman', one has to feel the pain and share the knowledge of gender oppression. Can men feel such pain and share such knowledge, despite their solidarity with women? Isn't there a limit to the degree of border crossing in this regard? The same question can apply to the issue of 'class suicide', the concept Freire borrows from Cabral. There is one's *habitus* that stands in the way of committing 'class suicide'.

The limits to border crossing are , of course, stressed by Giroux in his paper and elsewhere. He cautions white academics from the First World against acting in bad faith by appropriating *"the work of a Third World intellectual such as Paulo Freire without mapping the politics of their forays into other cultures, theoretical discourses, and historical experiences"* (p.184). This raises the issue of postcolonialism and the embeddedness of Freire's work and thought in a postcolonial politics. The contexts which influenced the emergence of Freire's ideas are those whose fortunes have historically been guided by colonial and neo-colonial interests. He has dealt with issues relating to what I would call 'direct colonialism', to distinguish it from the broader concept of 'colonialism' which has gained currency in recent years. Writings like *Pedagogy in Process. The Letters to Guinea Bissau* and numerous other pieces regarding former Portuguese colonies in Africa contain several discussions by Freire around this theme. His contact with the European and North American contexts, during his period of exile, also brought home the new colonial arrangements resulting from the displacement of people from colonised countries and regions[5] of the world, to create a 'Third World' within the 'First World'.

Freire offers us signposts for a pedagogy which can serve to 'decolonize the mind', to use the phrase Freire attributed, in a 1985 interview with Macedo, to the then Cape Verde President, Aristides Perreira. Freire's emphasis on listening to and learning from the oppressed, without romanticising their views, takes on the form of listening to, recuperating, learning from, as well as building upon, the subjugated knowledge of the colonised. Such knowledge is left out of official curricula since it does not represent the 'cultural arbitrary' of dominant colonial powers. This process of a decolonizing education entails, among other things, the provision of curricula that are not eurocentric but which valorise indigenous knowledge and perspectives emerging from the 'Third World'. It entails the valorisation of indigenous approaches to different forms of knowledge, including mathematical knowledge, as indicated in Marilyn Frankenstein and Arthur B. Powell's excellent piece on ethnomathematics in the second volume. It can be argued, from the standpoint of those living in the area covered by this journal, that

Mediterranean Studies, provided that it is representative of different areas within the region and not just Southern Europe, offers an outlet for a post colonial approach to knowledge.

Giroux's paper, as well as other works in the area of postcolonial studies, makes one want to explore how the work of such influential figures as Freire has been taken up and 'reinvented' (Freire would not have it otherwise) in contexts with long histories of direct colonialism. It is important to see compendia of studies centering around Freire's ideas which celebrate not only privileged white anglo American voices but also those from the 'majority world'. What does it mean to 'reinvent' Freire in a country seeking to 'decolonize the mind' following centuries of direct colonisation, characterised by the presence of school curricula obscuring, if not denigrating, that which is indigenous and exalting that which is foreign (read: white, western and eurocentric)?

The books under review allow space for such voices, mainly those emanating from Latin America, the context in which Freire worked before and after his exile. Hence the first volume features the Brazilian sociologist, Tomaz Tadeu da Silva, who co-authors, with McLaren, two pieces, including one concerning the reception of and reaction to Freire's work in his native Brazil. One of the alternatives to Freire's pedagogy in Brazil is provided by Dermeval Saviani who draws on a 'conservative' reading of Gramsci not different from that provided by Angelo Broccoli and Italia de Robbio Anziano in Italy, and Harold Entwistle and Guy B. Senese in the Anglo-North American literature. Then we have a re-publication of that much cited paper by Carlos Alberto Torres, a close friend of Freire's, originally published in 1982 in the University of Botswana journal, *Education with Production*. Torres' paper provides excellent background material for an appreciation of Freire's work and he has updated his earlier piece to incorporate, among other things, an exposition and of discussion around Freire's recent work as Secretary of Education in the PT Municipal Government of São Paulo. This aspect of Freire's work is also taken up by Torres in an interview with Freire, published in the second volume under review.

Excellent background material concerning the Latin American context, which influenced the genesis of Freire's work and the way it has been taken up in countries in this region, notably Mexico and Guatemala, is provided by Edgar Gonzalez Gaudiano and Alicia de Alba. This piece, in *Politics of Liberation*, provides quite an overview which complements the Torres piece in the first volume. The authors indicate that Freire forms part of a great tradition of intellectuals and educators from Latin America which includes Simon Rodriguez (Bolivar's teacher), Josè Vasconcelos, Josè Mariategui, Julio Antonio Mella, Farbundo Martì and Augusto Cesar Sandino.[6] I found Josè Marti to be a surprising omission.

Equally revealing , especially in relation to the climate in Latin America in the 1960s and 70s, is Adriana Puiggros who replies to questions posed to her by Peter McLaren in a series of interviews and written correspondence. The focus of this interview is her native Argentina, and Freire's work is here discussed against the backdrop of the history of education in this country, characterised by such historical developments as the process of nation building, relations between Church and state, populist regimes, dictatorships etc. Like Freire, the Puiggros family suffered repression at the hands of military dictatorships, having been a target of several assassination attempts, culminating in the killing of Adriana's brother and a period of exile in Mexico. This invites parallels with Freire's own life which makes the interview even more pertinent and revealing.

Issues relating to struggles for social change in the first world feature prominently in the two books being reviewed. Peter Leonard, for instance, derives insights from both Gramsci and Freire to develop a critical approach to social work at the University of Warwick. The complementary aspects and striking parallels between the work of Gramsci and Freire have often been referred to in the educational literature and have been the focus of studies by Paula Allman and the undersigned.

Freire has constantly been an advocate of a process whereby educators should not act in isolation but explore spaces offered by social movements. The issue of social movements featured prominently in his later 'talking books'. Peter Findlay takes up this issue in relation to social movements in Canada He sees conscientisation as relevant to social movements in view of their potential to unveil ideological positions and challenge hegemony in significant ways, but he also stresses the fragmentation that such movements create. He argues, echoing many others, that the task is to build coalitions which would constitute the basis for an effective counter-hegemonic force. I have argued elsewhere (Mayo, 1996) that Freirian pedagogy of the kind that evolved in Freire's later work, and which constantly takes into account the intersections between different forms of oppression, can contribute to coalition building. Codification and decodification strategies would serve as a means of interrogating popular experiences in terms of how one is implicated in as well as suffers from processes of structural oppression - how, for example, one is implicated in gender and race oppression while being located in a position of subordination within the class structure. Freire has dealt with this issue in various places and, most recently, in the discussion 'Layered and Multiple Identities: People as Oppressor and Oppressed' (Freire et al, 1997, pp. 311, 312).

The whole discussion on Freire and social movements in a First World context indicates that his approach can be 'reinvented' in contexts which are markedly different from those in Latin America. For Freire offers us a philosophy and an

approach to learning intended to cultivate in us the disposition to engage in a dialectical relationship with knowledge and society. This is part and parcel of a critical reading of the world. The elements which constitute such a critical reading of the world are carefully delineated by Ira Shor, one of the better known Freire 'disciples' in North America, in his piece 'Education is Politics. Freire's Critical Pedagogy' (first volume). This piece provides echoes from Shor's acclaimed 1992 book, *Empowering Education*. Given the political dimension and dynamic nature of Freire's approach, which ought to be 'reinvented' in different contexts, one would be adulterating his work were one to reduce it to a Method. Alas, many educators reduce Freire's work to a mere set of techniques or Method, therefore missing out on the core of his pedagogical philosophy and approach. It is for this reason that regimes, diametrically opposed to the politcs that informs Freire's approach, sponsored programmes whose organisers claimed to have used 'Freire's method'. This was the case with the same regime in Brazil which banished him from his homeland for sixteen years! The tendency to reduce Freire's work to a method is discussed in the two books being reviewed, notably by Stanley Aronowitz in his piece on Freire's 'Radical Humanism' and by Macedo in his Preface to *Paths from Freire*. It is a point which Freire has been at pains to make in several of his writings, including the first part of his 'A Response' in Freire et al, 1997. The political dimension of his work, which is predicated on a struggle against all forms of structural oppression, is also that which distinguishes his pedagogical approach from such purportedly 'value neutral' exercises as the Matthew Lippman inspired 'P4C' (Philosophy for Children) programme in Guatemala which Marguerite and Michael Rivage-Seul criticise in their contribution to the second volume.

The struggle against all forms of oppression is conceived of by Freire as an ongoing process which entails a neverending process of learning as people strive collectively to become more fully human, the theme from Freire's work which is taken up by Michael Peters and Colin Lankshear in their discussion on 'Education and Hermeneutics'. The relevance of Freire's work to different developments in social thought is also taken up by Peter McLaren and Tomaz Tadeu da Silva in a very long essay, in the first volume, which relates aspects of Freire's work to different strands of postmodernist writing. They of course recognise and retain the strong emancipatory dimension found in Freire's pedagogical politics which, it is argued in another piece by McLaren (second volume) , allows us a reprieve from the kind of nihilism and paralysing politics found in different strands of postmodernist thought. The essay by McLaren and da Silva in the first volume relates Freire's pedagogy to the concept of 'redemptive memory' associated with writers like Walter Benjamin and taken up in a variety of works, including Frigga Haug's *Female Sexualization A Collective Work of Memory* and Roger I. Simon's

Teaching against the Grain . Texts for a Pedagogy of Possibility. There is nothing explicit in Freire's writings in English about the politics of redemptive remembrance. However, his pedagogical approach allows possibilities for engaging in the recuperation of collective histories, a process through which history is conceived of *"not as a constraint on the present but rather as 'source or precondition of power' that can illuminate our project of emancipation"* (p. 75). I would argue, taking my cue from McLaren and da Silva's chapter, that a critical analysis of a codified situation, a distinctive characteristic of the process of conscientisation involving praxis, advocated by Freire, would be incomplete unless the situation is analysed and placed in its historical context. For this process involves a critical engagement with historically accumulated concepts and practices. This would involve moving between present and past to contribute towards a transformed future.

It is impossible, in the space available, to do justice to all the papers in the two volumes. These two books provide us, to date, with the most comprehensive appraisal of Freire's pedagogy to be published in English. They incorporate some of the most important themes which come to mind when discussing Freire. Perhaps the book would have been more comprehensive had it included a chapter on the relationship between Freire and liberation theology, an important feature of Freire's work. Two of the finest discussions on this theme in English are provided by Retamal (1981) and Elias (1994). The omission of this theme is surprising given that one of the contributors to the second volume, Michael Rivage-Seul, is a moral theologian who specialises in liberation theology.

But this is perhaps carping on my part. The two volumes are rich in background information and critical analyses and, together, constitute a fitting tribute to Freire's memory, even though they were published four years and three years respectively before Paulo Freire's passing away last Spring.

Notes

[1] He is cited widely in a section of the literature on education and is the most influential Marxist theorist in popular education in Latin America. Several studies on the relevance of his ideas to education have been published or are about to be published, including the ones by Mario Manacorda, Angelo Broccoli, Harold Entwistle, Timothy Ireland, Italia De Robbio Anziano, and others currently in press or in the pipeline. A number of papers have also appeared and an entire conference on this aspect of the Sardinian's work was held in Rome in May as part of a series of events commemorating the 60th anniversary of his death.

[2] His work and ideas are captured in a series of publications in Italian , including letters to and from his students and in a well researched biographical volume by Neera Fallaci (1993).

[3] One eagerly looks forward to the promised publication of a similar volume, comprising papers from the annual 'Pedagogy of the Oppressed' Conference in Omaha, Nebraska. One also looks forward

to the special tribute to Freire, by *Convergence,* the journal of the International Council for Adult Education, scheduled for 1998.

4   The last mentioned is the author of critical essays on Freire centering around the concept of 'border intellectual', one of which appearing in Giroux and McLaren's *Between Borders* .

5   One such area is Italy's *Meridionale* (the South) which, acording to Gramsci, is subjugated to the industrialised North through a process of 'internal colonialism'

6   The last mentioned is the Nicarguan nationalist figure who led the revolt against the U.S. marines in the late twenties and early thirties before being assassinated, and from whom the FSLN derived its name (Sandinistas) and inspiration. See Robert F. Arnove's *Education and Revolution in Nicaragua* (Praeger, 1986).

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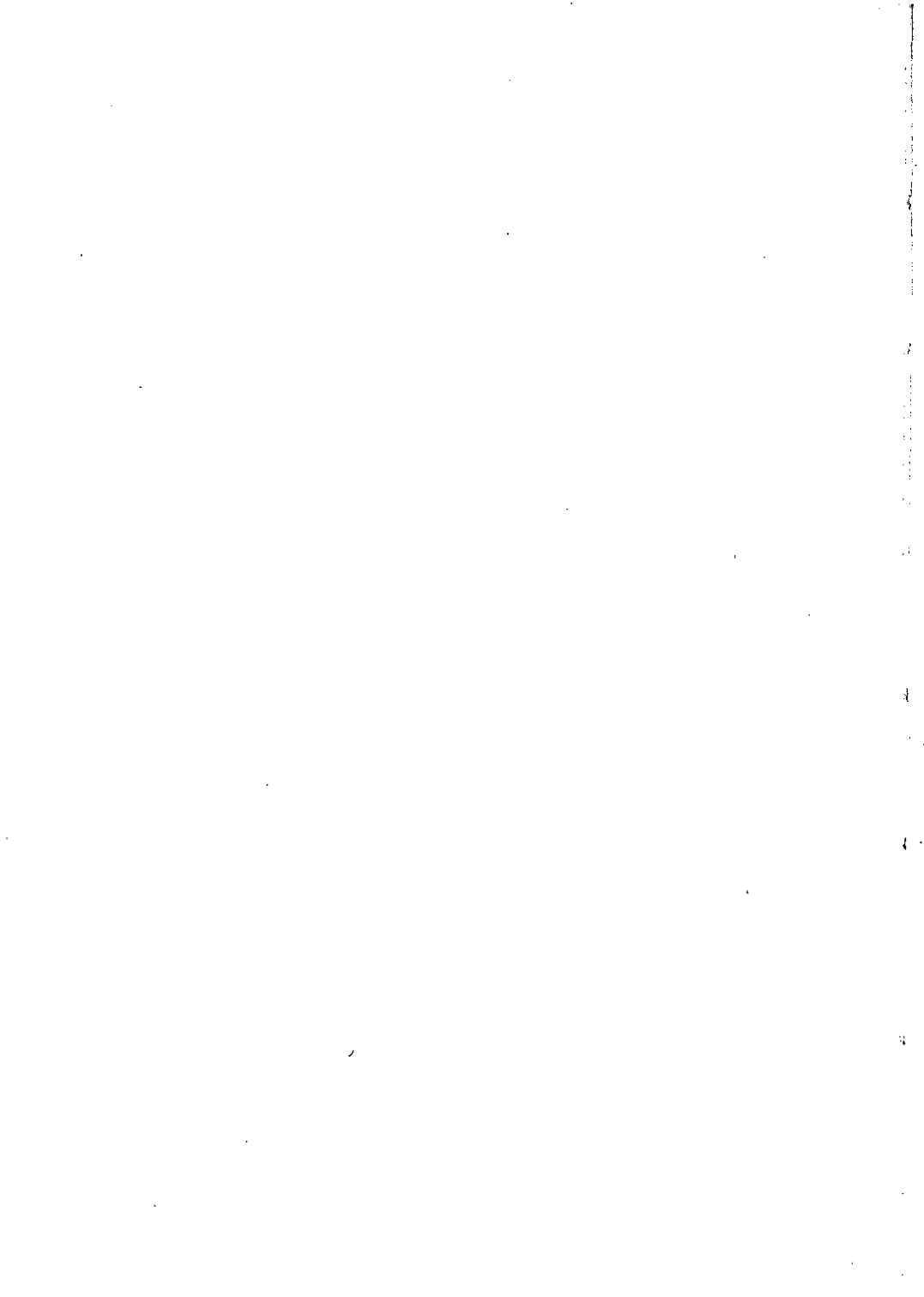
CONFERENCE ANNOUNCEMENTS

'Education Innovation for Sustainable Development'

Conference organised by ACEID and APPEAL, in partnership with the office of the National Education Commission of Thailand (NEC), 1-4 December 1997, at the Imperial Queens Park Hotel, Bangkok, Thailand. Conference registration closes on 31 October 1997. Please address all correspondence to UNESCO-ACEID, P.O. Box 967, Prakanong Post Office, Bangkok 10110, Thailand. Tel. (662) 391.0577; Fax: (662) 391 0866; E-mail: rmaclean@mozart.inet.co.th

'The Mediterranean: Cultural Dialogue and Prospects for Intercultural Dialogue'

International conference organised by Europe House Zagreb, CULTURELINK/IMO, in collaboration with The Robert Schuman Institute for Europe and the E.U.R. de la Mémoire et de l'Identité Culturelle, 5-7 December 1997, in Dubrovnik, Croatia. Please address all correspondence to: Europe House Zagreb, Jurisiceva 1/1, 10 000 Zagreb, Croatia. Tel. +358.1.4813.414, 4813.960; Fax: +385.1.4813.419, 4813.956. E-mail: european-movement-croatia@zg.tel.hr

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Xth World Congress of the World Council of Comparative Education Societies, hosted by the South African Comparative and History of Education Society, at the University of Cape Town and University of Western Cape Town in Cape Town, South Africa, from 13-17 July 1998. Conference chairperson: Dr. Crain A. Soudien. Please address all correspondence to: The WCCES 1998 Congress Co-Ordinator, School of Education, University of Cape Town, Privat Bag Rondebosch 7700, Cape Town, South Africa. Tel. +27.21.650.2768; Fax. +27.21.650.3489. E-mail: cs@education.uct.ac.za

'Imagine, all the Education... The Visual in the Making of the Educational Space through History'

Twentieth Session of the International Standing Conference for the History of Education, 15-18 August 1998, at the Catholic University of Louvain, Belgium. Proposals for papers should be submitted by 15 January to: Professor Dr. M. Depaipe, Chairman ISCHE XX, KU Leuven, Vesaliusstraat 2, B - 3000 Leuven, Belgium. Tel. +32.16.326202; Fax: +32.16.326200; E-mail: marc.depaepe@ped.kuleuven.ac.be

'State-Market-Civil Society: Models of Social Order and the Future of European Education'

Eighteenth CESE (Comparative Education Society in Europe) Conference, 5-10 July 1998, Groningen, The Netherlands. Please address all correspondence to: Secretariat, c/o Vangroep Sociologie, Rijks*universiteit* Groningen, Faculteit der Psychologische, Pedagogische en Sociologie Wetenshappen, Grote Rozenstraat 31, 9712 TG Groningen, The Netherlands. Tel. +31.50.363.6283: Fax: +31.50.363.6226; E-mail: cese-org@icce.rug.nl Internet site: http://www.icce.rug.nl/~cese.

IN GRATEFUL ACKNOWLEDGEMENT OF *MJES* REFEREES

Like every other academic review that aspires to make a solid contribution to the advancement of knowledge, the *Mediterranean Journal of Educational Studies* relies on its referees to ensure the publication of quality articles that are scientifically rigorous, informed by the theoretical debates that mark the field, and related to the goals that give the journal its specific character. The Executive Editors would therefore like to gratefully acknowledge the services rendered to the *Mediterranean Journal of Educational Studies* and its readers by the following referees. Their only remuneration has been the knowledge that they have contributed to the international community of scholars in its search for better educational practice.

MODERN LANGUAGES AND INTERCULTURALITY IN THE PRIMARY SECTOR IN ENGLAND, GREECE, ITALY AND SPAIN

FERNANDO CEREZAL

Cet article présente differents aspects, problèmes et préoccupations liés à l'enseignement et l'apprentissage des langues modernes dans l'éducation primaire de trois pays méditerranéens (la Grèce, l'Italie et l'Espagne) et puis l'Angleterre. Cela constitue une partie du travail réalisé par le Projet Européen de Coopération Oxymoron (Programme LINGUA). Une attention particulière est prêtée à la question de l'âge le plus convenable pour l'apprentissage des langues modernes. Dans le cas précis des pays méditerranéens on tient compte aussi des réformes éducatives qui sont en marche dans chacun des ces trois pays en relation avec l'apprentissage de langues et l'interculturalité. Finalement plusieurs conclusions et recommandations sont tirées de cette étude comparative.

Este artículo se ocupa de la situación y de algunos aspectos, problemas y preocupaciones relacionados con la enseñanza y el aprendizaje de lenguas modernas en educación primaria en tres países mediterráneos (España, Grecia e Italia) e Inglaterra, como parte del trabajo realizado por el Proyecto Europeo de Cooperación Oxymoron (Programa LINGUA). Se presta atención a la cuestión de la edad más adecuada para el aprendizaje de lenguas, así como a las reformas educativas puestas en marcha en cada uno de esos países mediterráneos en relación al aprendizaje de lenguas y a la interculturalidad. Se extraen algunas conlusiones y recomendaciones de este estudio comparativo.

يعالج هذا المقال الوضعية والمشكلات والقضايا المتعلقة بالتعلم والتعليم الحديث للغة بالمدرسة الابتدائية (الاساسية) فى ثلاث دول متوسطية (اليونان ، ايطاليا ، اسبانيا) وانجلترا ، وهو يمثل الجزء الاولي فى مشروع التعاون الاوروبي – اوكسيمورون (برنامج LINGUA). اعطي اهتمام خاص للسؤال المتعلق بالعمر الامثل لتعلم واكتساب اللغات ، والاصلاحات التربوية التي اجريت فى كل من هذه البلدان المتوسطية والمرتبطة بالتعلم والتعليم الحديث المبكر للغات(EMLTL) والبينثقافية. وخلصت هذه الدراسة المقارنة الى بعض الاستنتاجات والتوصيات.

GLOBAL DIMENSIONS IN THE EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION, SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM AND TEXTBOOKS OF GREEK COMPULSORY EDUCATION (GRADES 1-9)

GEORGE FLOURIS

Dans cette étude, une analyse dU contenu de la législation éducative, du curriculum scolaire et les livres scolaires concernant les études sociales en Grèce, a été réalisée pour chercher l'existence ou non de thèmes globaux et d'éléments supranationaux, et voir jusqu'à quel point on les retrouve dans le savoir à transmettre. L'analyse de contenu des textes a montré que ces dimensions sont présentes mais qu'elles ne sont pas adaptées pour correspondre aux déclarations officielles et à la nouvelle réalité Européenne et internationale. Les dimensions globales concernent principalement les aspects géophysiques du monde et moins les aspects et les problèmes politiques et socio-culturels. Cette étude propose que la Grèce ainsi que les autres Etats-nations réexaminent sérieusement leurs programmes et leurs livres scolaires, spécialement dans le domaine des études sociales, afin qu'ils puissent maintenir l'équilibre entre la conscience et la cohésion nationales et la conscience globale.

ΠΕΡΙΛΗΨΗ. Στη μελέτη αυτή πραγματοποιήθηκε ανάλυση περιεχομένου στην εκπαιδευτική νομοθεσία, το αναλυτικό πρόγραμμα, και τα σχολικά εγχειρίδια των κοινωνικών σπουδών στην Ελλάδα προκειμένου να εξεταστεί κατά πόσο ενυπάρχουν σ' αυτά οικουμενικά θέματα και υπερεθνικά στοιχεία, καθώς και σε ποιο βαθμό μετατρέπονται σε διδάξιμη γνώση. Η ανάλυση έδειξε ότι οι παραπάνω διαστάσεις υπάρχουν σε ικανοποιητικό βαθμό, αλλά δεν έχουν υιοθετηθεί επαρκώς έτσι ώστε να ανταποκρίνονται στις εξαγγελίες της Ελληνικής εκπαιδευτικής νομοθεσίας και τις νέες πραγματικότητες του Ευρωπαϊκού και του Παγκόσμιου πεδίου. Οι οικουμενικές διαστάσεις που εντοπίσθηκαν αφορούν κυρίως θέματα και προβλήματα της γεωφυσικής και λιγότερο της ανθρώπινης, της πολιτικής και κοινωνικο-πολιτισμικής διάστασης .
Προτείνεται ότι η Ελλάδα, όπως και άλλα έθνη κράτη, οφείλει να προβεί σε ουσιαστική επανεξέταση τόσο των αναλυτικών προγραμμάτων όσο και των σχολικών εγχειριδίων της και ειδικότερα στον τομέα των κοινωνικών σπουδών, έτσι ώστε να στηριχθεί ένα εξισορροπημένο και οικουμενικό Α.Π. στα πλαίσια της οικοδόμησης της εθνικής συνεκτικότητας και της διεθνούς ενημέρωσης.

تتضمن هذه الدراسة تحليلا لمضمون التشريع التربوي اليوناني ولمناهج وكتب الدراسات الاجتماعية
بايونــان بغـرض تحديــد مـا إذا تضمنـت هــذه المــواد مواضيــع عالميـة وعنــاصر فوقوميـة·
(Supranational)، ومدى ترجمتها الى معرفة قابلة للتعليم . الظهر التحليل وجود هذه الابعاد بدرجة مـا
ولكنها لم تكيف بشكل ملائم لينسجم مع أراء المؤسسة التربوية اليونانية والواقع الجديد للفضاء الاوربي
والدولي. وتتصب الابعاد العالمية الموجودة فى هذه المواد اساسـا على الجوانب الجيوفيزيائية للكرة
الارضية، وبدرجة افل على القضايا والمشكلات الانسانية والسياسية والثقافية الاجتماعيـة. واوصـت
الدراسة بـان تشرع اليونـان، وغيرهـا مـن الـدول، بفحص معمـق لمناهجهـا وكتبهـا، وخاصـة فـى مجـال
الدراسات الاجتماعية، لتطوير منهج متوازن وشامل (عالمي).

MISMANAGEMENT, AMBIGUITY AND DELUSION: TRAINING PRIMARY TEACHERS IN GREECE

BRYAN J. COWAN
EMMANUEL KOUTOUZIS

La formation des enseignants du primaire en Grèce est un secteur plein d'ambigüité et de frustration pour de nombreux étudiants. Cette étude cherche à montrer l'influence des origines sociales, des caractéristiques et des qualifications de ceux qui entrent dans l'enseignement primaire ainsi qui son rôle dans la mobilité sociale. L'étude est basée sur une recherche originale parmi des élèves-maîtres de première année ainsi que sur des recherches non publiées venant de source governementale. Les résultats de cette recherche montrent un plus grand besoin de planification créative et stratégique dans la formation des enseignants du primaire.

Το άρθρο αυτό συζητά την κοινωνικοοικονομική θέση των πρωτοβάθμιων δασκάλων στην Ελλάδα. Εκτός από μια ιστορική προσέγγιση όπου δίνεται η ευκαιρία να εξεταστεί η εξέλιξη του επαγγέλματος τον τελευταίο αιώνα και να αναλυθούν κοινωνικές σχέσεις απένταντι σε αυτό, παρουσιάζεται επίσης και η σύγχρονη εικόνα του δασκάλου. Αυτό γίνεται μέσα από την ανάλυση του κοινωνικού, μορφωτικού και οιονομικού χώρου από τον οποίο προέρχονται οι σημερινοί φοιτητές των Παιδαγωγικών Τμημάτων των Ελληνικών Πανεπιστημίων -και μελλοντικοί δάσκαλοι-, καθώς και μέσα από την Ελληνική πραγματικότητα που αντιμετωπίζουν οι δάσκαλοι σήμερα σύμφωνα με τις προοπτικές απασχόλησής τους.

Επιτυγχάνεται έτσι μια αρχική κατανόηση της θέσης του δασκάλου σήμερα. Σε μελλοντικό άρθρο θα συζητηθούν αναλυτικότερα οι στάσεις, οι επιλογές, οι γενικότερες προοπτικές και το ενδιαφέρον των φοιτητών για το επάγγελμά τους, έτσι ώστε να κατανοηθούν μερικά από τα φαινόμενα που χαρακτηρίζουν το συγκεκριμένο επάγγελμα στον Ελλαδικό χώρο.

اعداد معلمي التعليم الابتدائي (الاساسي) فى اليونان مجال فيه الكثير من الغموض والاحباط لكثير من الطلاب. وتسعى هذه الورقة الى اظهار اثر كل من الاصول الاجتماعية وخصائص ومؤهلات الداخلين الى مجال التعليم لهذه المرحلة ودورها فى الحراك الاجتماعي. واعتمدت هذه الورقة على بحث اصلي مع الطلاب المعلمين بالسنة الاولى وبحث غير منشور من مصادر حكومية. وتظهر نتائج البحث الحاجة الملحة للتخطيط الابداعي والاستراتيجي فى تدريب معلمي التعليم الاساسي.

TEACHING AND LEARNING IN MIDDLE SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES IN TURKEY: AN ANALYSIS OF CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

ALI YILDIRIM

Cette étude cherche à savoir comment les professeurs et les élèves évaluent la mise en pratique des programmes d'éducation civique au collège en Turquie. A travers un questionnaire-sondage, professeurs et élèves se sont vus demander d'exprimer comment ils perçoivent les directives du programme, les objectifs des cours, la documentation et les procédures d'instruction et d'évaluation. Les résultats ont indiqué que les directives du programme aident les professeurs pour la sélection des thèmes et leur succession dans tous les cours d'instruction civique. Toutefois elle ne laissent pas assez de place à la flexibilité chez chaque professeur pour ces aspects. Les professeurs trouvent moins d'aide dans les directives en ce qui concerne la détermination des méthodes d'instruction, de la documentation et des stratégies d'évaluation qu'ils utilisent en classe. Le programme se concentre surtout sur la transmission du savoir tandis que d'autres buts importants comme le développement d'une capacité à réflechir, d'attitudes postives envers la matière sont moins accentueés et cette orientation semble se refléter aussi dans la pratique. L'approche la plus commune en ce qui concerne l'enseignement en classe pour l'éducation civique est la récitation et le cours magistral suivies par la présentation d'un élève. L'utilisation de matériel autre que le manuel scolaire du livre scolaire (ex: la lecture) sont le genre habituel de travail à la maison donné à l'élève. Les tests comportent de courtes réponses et les examens oraux, sont la façon la plus commune d'évaluer les élèves en classe d'education civique.

Türkiye'deki ortaokul sosyal bilim derslerinin (Tarih, Coğrafya ve Vatandaşlık Bilgisi) programlarının ve öğretiminin öğretmen ve öğrenciler tarafından nasıl değerlendirildiği bu çalışmanın temel konusudur. Bir anket yoluyla öğretmen ve öğrencilere ders programları, amaçlar, materyaller, öğretim ve değerlendirme yöntemleri ile ilgili sorular sorulmuştur. Sonuçlar programların, öğretmenlere ders konularının seçiminde ve öğretim sırasının belirlenmesinde yardımcı olduğunu ancak bu konuda kendilerine fazla bir esneklik bırakılmadığını göstermektedir. Ayrıca programların öğretim yöntemlerini, materyallerini ve değerlendirme yöntemlerini belirlemede öğretmenlere fazla yardımcı olmadığı ortaya çıkmaktadır. Öğretmenler programların daha çok bilgi transferine ağırlık verdiğini ve düşünme becerilerinin geliştirilmesi, derse karşı olumlu tutumların geliştirilmesi gibi diğer önemli amaçların ihmal edildiğini belirtmektedirler. Sosyal bilimler öğretiminde daha çok düz anlatıma ve öğrenci sunusuna dayalı yöntemlerin kullanıldığı, ders kitabı dışında materyal kullanımının fazla olmadığı ve ders kitabına dayalı etkinliklerin (okuma gibi) ev ödevlerinde kendini ağırlıkla hissettirdiği ve kısa cevaplı testlerin ve sözlü sınavların en çok kullanılan ölçme yöntemleri olduğu ortaya çıkmaktadır.

تستقصي هذه الدراسة كيفية تقييم المعلمين والطلاب لعملية تنفيذ المنهج في مقررات الدراسات الاجتماعية بالمدرسة المتوسطة بتركيا. وقد طلب من المعلمين والطلاب، من خلال استبيان مسحي، التعبير عن ملاحظاتهم حول توجيهات المنهج واهداف المقرر والمادة الدراسية واجراءات التدريس والتقويم. بينت النتائج أن توجيهات المنهج تساعد المعلمين في اختيار المواضيع وتسلسلها في جميع مقررات الدراسات الاجتماعية، ولكنها لا تترك مجالا كبيرا من المرونة للمعلم الفرد في هذه الجوانب. كما يجد المعلمين مساعدة محدودة لهذه التوجيهات فيما يتعلق بتحديد طرق التدريس والمادة الدراسية واستراتيجيات التقويم التي يستخدمونها في فصولهم. ويركز المنهج، تخطيطا وتنفيذا، في الغالب على نقل المعرفة ويعطي قليلا من الاهتمام للاهداف الاخرى المهمة كتنمية مهارات التفكير والاتجاهات الايجابية نحو المقرر. اما اكثر اساليب التدريس الصفي شيوعا في الدراسات الاجتماعية فهي الالقاء والمحاضرة ويليها عروض التلاميذ. كما ان استخدام مواد اخرى غير كتاب المقرر فهو محدود جدا، وان الانشطة المرتبطة بالكتاب (كالقراءة) هي اكثر اشكال الواجبات المنزلية التي تعطى للتلاميذ استخداما. ويمثل اختبار الاجابات القصيرة والامتحانات الشفوية اكثر اساليب تقويم التلاميذ استخداما في فصول الدراسات الاجتماعية.

TRADITIONS VERSUS CHANGING BEDOUIN ATTITUDES TOWARD HIGHER EDUCATION: HOW DO BEDOUIN COLLEGE STUDENTS PERCEIVE THEIR FAMILY'S ATTITUDES TO HIGHER EDUCATION?

BLOSSOM WIESEN

En 1997, le Collège de Formation d'Enseignants d'Oranim a adopté un programme de formation d'élèves-maîtres pour étudiants bédouins du nord d'Israel. Les objectifs du programme sont de pourvoir les écoles bédouines en personnel enseignant bédouin, et d'élever le niveau d'éducation de la communauté. La participation à ce programme du collège par des communautés bédouines culturellement insulaires montrent un changement dans les valeurs traditionnelles qui méritent un approfondissement. L'origine socio-économique des étudiants est explorée pour déterminer les transformations dans leas attitudes qui permettent l'approbation familiale et classique pour leur participation. Il est devenu apparent qu'au fur et à mesure que la tribu se modernise, des transformations s'ensuivent, touchant le status des femmes et la vie de famille. En conséquence, cette étude se concentre sur les attitudes envers l'éducation des étudiants bédouins, de leurs familles nucléaire et étendue. Les résultats indiquent des changements d'attitudes accélérés à l'intérieur de la tribu dans le sens de l'éducation, en particulier pour les femmes. De plus, on a aussi exploré l'attitude des étudiants face à leur propre rôle en tant qu'instruments d'innovation éducative. On considère les ramifications puisqu'elles font partie de la société bédouine.

בשנת 1991 מכללת אורנים אימצה תכנית חדשה בהכשרת מורים לסטודנטים בדואים מצפון ישראל. מטרות התכנית כללו העלאת רמת החינוך, במגזר הבדואי· על ידי הכשרת מורים מן המגזר עצמו, לעבודה בתוך בתי הספר.

השתתפות הקהילות, שבעבר היו מבודדות ואינסולריות בתכנית זו, מצביע על שינוי בערכים מסורתיים, ומצדיק מחקר. הרקע הסוציו-אקונומי של הסטודנטים, נחקר כדי לבדוק את השינויים בגישות החינוכיות. תמיכתם של המשפחות והשבטים הבדואים בתכנית, אפשרו את השתתפות הסטודנטים. מכיוון שהשבטים נמצאים בעיצומו של תהליך מודרניזציה, יש נכונות לקבל שינויים שמשפיעים גם על מעמד האישה וחיי המשפחה. מסיבות אילו, מחקר זה מתמקד בגישות החינוכיות של הסטדנטים ומשפחותיהם הגרעיניות ומורחבת.

התוצאות מצביעות על שינויים מזורזים בתוך השבט בכל הנוגע לחינוך, ובמיוחד לגבי נשים. בנוסף לכך, נחקר נכונותם של הסטודנטים לשמש כמובילים להפעלת חידושים חינוכיים. לצעדים בהם ינקטו סטודנטים אלו, יהיו וההשלכות על עתיד החברה הבדואית כולה.

في عـام ١٩٩١ قامت كليـة دار المعلمين في أورانيم بتبني برنامج إعـداد معلمين للطلاب البدو في منطقة الشمال، تتضمن أهدافه تزويد المدارس البدوية بمعلمين بدو، ورفع المستوى التعليمي في هذا المجتمع.

إن مشـاركة المجتـمع البدوي المعزول في برنامج الكليـة هذا يشـير إلى تحـولات في قيـم تقليـدية جديرة بالدراسة والبحث. فخلفيـة الطالب الاقتصادية-الاجتماعية تدرس بتمعن لتحديد تلك التحـولات في التـوجه، والتي تمكن العائلة وكذلك المحمولة من تقبل مشـاركتـهم في هذا البرنامج. فـقد أصبح من الواضح أن عصرنة القبيلة تحدث تحـولات تترك أثرها في مكانة المرأة وكذلك في حياة العائلة. وعليـه، فإن هذه الدراسة تتمحور حول المفاهيم التربوية لدى الطلاب البدو، وكذلك لدى عائلاتهم وحماتلهم.

إن نتـائج هذه الدراسة تشـير إلى تزايد السـرعة في تحول التـوجه لدى القبيـلة بالنسـبة للتـعليم وخاصة تعليم المرأة. وبناء عليـه، فـقد أجريت دراسة تتعلق بتوجه الطلاب في أمـر كونهم وسطاء في عملية التحديث التربوي. كما تبحث النتائج من حيث علاقتها بالمجتمع البدوي.

STATE, SOCIETY, AND HIGHER EDUCATION IN CYPRUS: A STUDY IN CONFLICT AND COMPROMISE

ANTHONY A. KOYZIS

En pus du fait que c'est un étude sur l'éducation post-secondaire dans la République de Chypre, ce document explore le rapport entre l'Etat et la société quand ils touchent le post-secondaire. Au début, l'étude se concentre sur le développement de l'Université de Chypre, la première université publique de la République, le tout suivi par une étude de la nature et de la structure de l'éducation supérieure dans son ensemble. Le secteur post-secondaire privé, proportionnellement grand, présente un intérêt particulier; il est complètement commandé par le marché et fournit des opportunités d'éducation aux cypriotes et étudiants étrangers principalement avec des programmes d'anglais. L'éducation post-secondaireà Chypre est examinée ensuite dans le contexte des 'traditions de connaissance'. Ces 'traditions de connaissance' ont influencé à la fois la construction du secteur post-secondaire et les perceptions de la société à propos de l'éducation post-secondaire.

Εκτός από τη μελέτη της τριτοβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης στη Δημοκρατία της Κύπρου, το άρθρο ερευνά και την σχέση μεταξύ κράτους και κοινωνίας στην επιρροή τους στην τριτοβάθμια εκπαίδευση. Η εργασία αρχικά εστιάζεται στην ανάπτυξη του Πανεπιστημίου της Κύπρου (το πρώτο πανεπιστήμιο που ιδρύθηκε στη χώρα) και στη συνέχεια μελετά τη φύση και δομή της ανώτατης παιδείας στο σύνολό της. Ιδιαίτερο ενδιαφέρον παρουσιάζει ο συγκριτικά ευρύτερα αναπτυγμένος ιδιωτικός τομέας, ο οποίος οδηγείται αποκλειστικά από την αγορά και παρέχει σε Κύπριους και αλλοδαπούς σπουδαστές ευκαιρίες μάθησης σε προγράμματα κύρια στην Αγγλική γλώσσα. Η τριτοβάθμια εκπαίδευση στην Κύπρο μελετάται περαιτέρω στο πλαίσιο των "Παραδόσεων Γνώσης". Τέτοιες "Παραδόσεις Γνώσης" έχουν επηρεάσει και την οικοδόμηση του τριτοβάθμιου τομέα αλλά και τις κοινωνικές αντιλήψεις περί τριτοβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης.

تستكشف هذه الورقة، اضافة الى كونها دراسة للتعليم مابعد الثانوي في جمهورية قبرص، العلاقة بين الدولة والمجتمع لتأثيرهما في توفير التعليم مابعد الثانوي. وتتناول الورقة في البداية تطور جامعة قبرص كأول جامعة حكومية في قبرص، ثم تدرس طبيعة وبنية التعليم العالي اجمالا. والجدير بالاهتمام الارتفاع النسبي للقطاع الخاص الذي يحركه السوق بشكل تام في التعليم مابعد الثانوي وتوفيره الفرص التعليمية للطلاب القبارصة والاجانب في برامج باللغة الانجليزية في الغالب. وعلاوة على ذلك، بحث التعليم مابعد الثانوي في قبرص ضمن اطار" تقاليد المعرفة" والتي أثرت على كل من تركيب هذا القطاع والادراك المجتمعي له.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE CONTENT AND QUESTIONS OF THE PHYSICS TEXTBOOKS OF THE BASIC EDUCATION LEVEL (AGES 13-15) IN LIBYA

SULEIMAN KHOJA
FRANK VENTURA

Le but de cette étude est de déterminer jusqu'à quel point les manuels de physique contribuent à atteindre les objectifs fixés pour l'enseignement de la physique à ce niveau. La demande cognitive du contenu des manuels scolaires des classes de niveau 7, 8, et 9 et les questions à la fin de chaque chapitre sont analysées. Les tests 'chi-square' sont utilisés pour comparer la distribution des questions des manuels parmi les niveaux du domaine objectif de Bloom, avec une distribution suggérée à partir de la littérature. Les résultats montrent que la contribution du contenu à la réussite des objectifs mentionnés est limitée à l'acquisition de faits et de concepts de base pour les élèves. La plupart des questions (51,6%) font appel à un savoir qui est un simple rappel – cela les places au premier niveau du domaine cognitif – tandis que les niveaux supérieurs ne sont testés que par 2,5% de toutes

les questions. Il y a une différence significative (p<0,001) entre la distribution observée et suggérée des questions parmi les niveaux. Les résultats montrent l'importance des objectifs concernant l'acquisition de savoir scientifique spécifique donné par le contenu et les questions des manuels scolaires aux dépens d'autres objectifs de l'enseignement de la physique, tels que le développement d'une pensée, d'intérêts et d'attitudes scientifiques. En conclusion, des suggestions sont faites pour promouvoir l'acquisition d'objectifs dans les plus hauts niveaux du domaine cognitif.

إستهدفت هذا الدراسة التعرف على مدى مساهمة كتب الفيزياء للشق الثاني من مرحلة التعليم الأساسي في ليبيا في تحقيق أهداف منهج الفيزياء المعتمد، والتعرف على مدى تناسب الأسئلة التقويمية التي تضمها هذه الكتب مع النسب التي يقترحها التوبويون العلميون في المجال العقلي. وقد تكونت عينة الدراسة من محتوى كتب الفيزياء للصفوف السابع والثامن والتاسع من مرحلة التعليم الأساسي والأسئلة التقويمية التي تقع في نهاية كل باب من أبواب هذه الكتب، وتمثلت أدوات البحث في كل من تحليل المحتوى للتعرف على مدى مناسبة محتوى كتب الفيزياء الثلاثة لتحقيق أهداف منهج الفيزياء وتصنيف بلوم للأهداف التربوية في المجال المعرفي/العقلي لتحديد مستوى الأداء العقلي الذي تستجره الأسئلة التقويمية التي تضمها كتب الفيزياء الثلاثة. واستخدمت النسب المئوية ومربع كاي لتحديد النسب التي تمثلها أسئلة الكتب في كل مستوى من مستويات التصنيف ومقارنتها بالنسب المقترحة ومن ثم معرفة دلالة الفروق بين النسب الملاحظة والنسب المقترحة. وقد توصلت الدراسة إلى أن محتوى كتب الفيزياء لا يسهم إلا بشكل محدود في تحقيق أهداف المنهج – الهدف المتعلق باكتساب التلاميذ للحقائق والمفاهيم الفيزيائية يكاد يكون الهدف الوحيد الذي يمكن أن تسهم هذه الكتب في تحقيقه وتبين أن 51,6% من الأسئلة التقويمية التي تضمها هذه الكتب تقع في مستوى المعرفة لتصنيف بلوم بينما بلغت نسبة الأسئلة التي تقيس المستويات العقلية العليا 2,5% فقط من هذه الأسئلة..كما تبين وجود إختلافذي دلالة إحصائية عند مستوى 0,001 بين توزيع أسئلة كتب الفيزياء وتوزيع الأسئلة المقترحة من قبل التربويين. وتعكس هذه النتائج الإهتمام الكبير الذي توليه كتب الفيزياء، في محتواها وأسئلتها، لاكتساب المعرفة العلمية، واهمالها لجوانب تنمية التفكير العلمي واكتساب طرق العلم وعملياته وتنمية الميول والإتجاهات العلمية والتقدير العلمي لدى التلاميذ. وقدمت الدراسة بعض التوصيات التي قد تسهم في تحسين مناهج وتدريس الفيزياء في هذه المرحلة.

استهدفت هذه الدراسة التعرف على مدى مساهمة كتب الفيزياء للصفوف السابع والثامن والتاسع من مرحلة التعليم الاساسي بليبيا فى تحقيق اهداف تدريس الفيزياء المعتمدة لهذه المرحلة. وقد تم تحليل المحتوى المعرفي لهذه الكتب والاسئلة التقويمية التى تقع فى نهاية كل باب من ابواب الكتب الثلاثة للاجابة على اسئلة الدراسة. استخدم اختبار مربع كاي لمقارنة نسب توزيع اسئلة الكتب بين مستويات تصنيف بلوم للمجال المعرفي مع نسب مقترحة من الادب. تعكس نتائج الدراسة الاهتمام الكبير الذي توليه كتب الفيزياء، فى محتواها واسئلتها، لاكتساب المعرفة العلمية على حساب الاهداف الاخرى لتدريس الفيزياء كتنمية مهارات التفكير العلمي والميول والاتجاهات العلمية. وقدمت الدراسة بعض التوصيات التى قد تسهم فى تحسين مناهج وتدريس الفيزياء فى هذه المرحلة.

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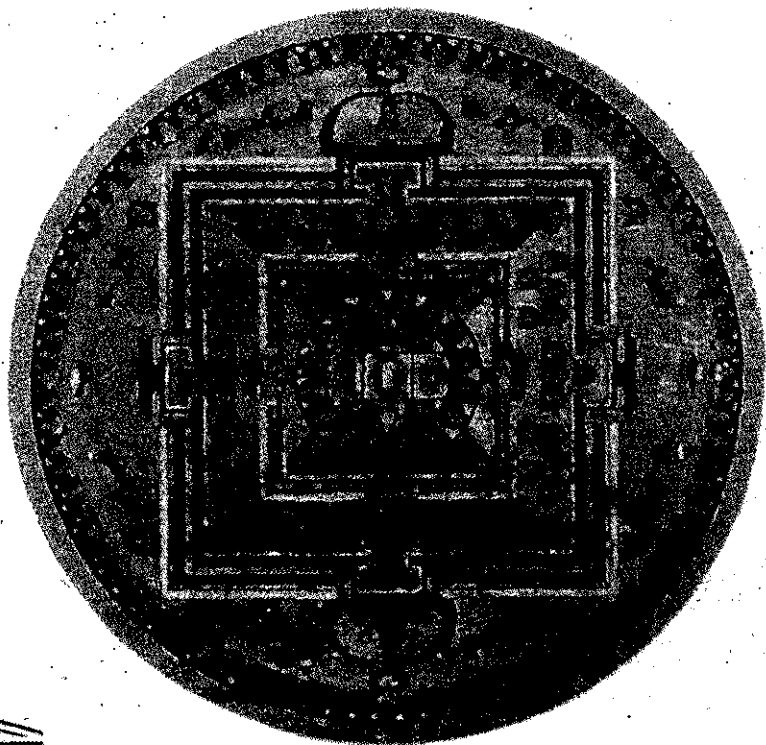on Education for
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Article in Journal: Surname, Name initials (date of publication) Title of article, *Title of Journal,* Volume(issue), pages.

Chapter in Book: Surname initial/s, Name initials (date of publication) Title of chapter. In Nameinitials and Surname of (editor/s) *Title of Book.* Place of Publication: Publisher.

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