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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 strong 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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MOTIVATIONAL ORIENTATIONS, SELF-EFFICACY, ANXIETY AND STRATEGY USE IN LEARNING HIGH SCHOOL MATHEMATICS IN MOROCCO

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Abstract - *A self-report questionnaire was administered to 289 high school students in order to explore their perceived motivational orientations, strength of self-efficacy, level of test anxiety and strategy use, in learning mathematics. A factor analysis of the motivational items produced one factor for intrinsic orientation, and three factors for extrinsic orientation which were labelled 'grades', 'social status' and 'pleasing others'. Students appeared to be predominantly oriented towards obtaining good grades and gaining more social status, and reported using passive trategies more frequently than active strategies. However, correlational analyses showed that students with a stronger intrinsic orientation reported stronger self-efficacy, lower test anxiety and more frequent use of active strategies. By contrast, those with a stronger orientation towards grades reported higher perceptions of test anxiety, and greater use of passive strategies. Interestingly test anxiety related negatively to self-efficacy and to use of active strategies.*

Introduction

*I*n recent years researchers have explored various motivational aspects of learning such as goal orientations, self-efficacy and anxiety, and have sought to investigate how these factors related to performance or strategy use. Research on achievement motivation has identified different types of goal orientation among learners. For example, Dweck (Dweck, 1986; Dweck and Leggett, 1988) suggests that learners pursue two mutually exclusive goals: learning goals and performance goals. In a learning goal orientation, students are interested in gaining competence while students pursuing a performance goal seek to gain a favourable judgement of their competence. Nicholls (Duda and Nicholls, 1992; Nicholls, Patashnick and Nolen, 1985) has suggested that students pursue two contrasting goals: task orientation and ego orientation. Students who adopt a task orientation are interested in attaining mastery while an ego orientation involves striving to establish one's superiority over others. Finally, Pintrich (Pintrich, 1989; Pintrich and Garcia, 1991; 1992) has suggested that goals may be characterised by: a) an intrinsic desire to learn out of pure interest/curiosity, and b) an extrinsic reason such as good grades or teacher approval.

Subsequent research has suggested that students pursuing different goals exhibit different learning or achievement patterns. Nolen (1988) found that deep processing but not surface-level processing was associated with task but not ego orientation. Ames and Archer (1988) showed that students who perceived an emphasis on mastery goals in the classroom reported using more effective strategies. Similarly, Pintrich and De Groot (1990) found that higher levels of intrinsic motivation were associated with higher levels of students' achievement across various types of tasks.

Self-efficacy - an individual's judgements of his/her capabilities to perform given actions - is a concept that is closely related to motivation. Bandura (1977) hypothesised that self-efficacy affects an individual's choice of activities, effort, and persistence. This suggests that people who believe they are capable, will work harder, and persist longer at a task when they encounter difficulties than those who do not believe that they can perform the task. Various studies support the View that perceived self-efficacy in a certain field influences people's performance and strategy use. Wood and Locke (1987) showed that perceived self-efficacy influences students' course grades. Pintrich and De Groot (1990) found that self-efficacy was positively related to cognitive and metacognitive strategies use.

Anxiety is considered by Pintrich (1989) as a motivational component which concerns students' affective or emotional reactions to the task. In a school learning context, test anxiety seems to be an important aspect of anxiety. The undesirable effects of test anxiety on memory, attention, and performance have been well documented (e.g., Tobias, 1985; Wigfield and Eccles, 1989). Researchers invoke two different interpretations to account for the poor performance of highly test anxious students: the interference and the skills deficit explanations (e.g., Tobias, 1985). The interference interpretation assumes that test anxious students tend to do less well because the threat posed by the evaluative situation interferes with students' ability to retrieve what is learnt. It is argued that test anxious students tend to do less well because their attention is divided between the task at hand and negative self-preoccupations. They typically engage in self-absorbing thoughts such as thinking of themselves as stupid, foolish and likely to fail, or considering themselves as likely to panic and hence unable to use whatever skill/knowledge they do have (e.g., Sieber, O'Neil and Tobias, 1977). The skills-deficit interpretation assumes that students' reduced performance is attributable to poor test taking skills, or inadequate study habits at the stage of encoding and storage of the material to be learnt.

Pintrich and De Groot (1990) had seven graders judge test anxiety and use of various strategies, including effort management and persistence. Interestingly, they found that test anxiety was not significantly related to strategy use, but it was negatively related to performance on examinations and quizzes. The authors pointed

out that the effects of test anxiety are related to retrieval problems at the time of testing rather than to lack of effective cognitive strategies for encoding or organising.

Few studies have attempted to identify the general profile of students' motivational orientations, self-efficacy, and anxiety, in the special field of high school mathematics. To my knowledge, no such study has as yet been conducted in Moroccan schools. Yet, it is important to note that achievement in maths plays a crucial role in determining the future of Moroccan students. In the first place, achievement in maths is the principal criterion used to orient students towards science or mathematics sections at the start of high school. Second, mathematics is an important subject on the curriculum for students in both science and mathematics sections, and it is allocated a very high coefficient in the baccalaureate examinations. Third, many higher education institutions are highly selective and take only students who pass the baccalaureate in sciences or mathematics with distinction. Accordingly, many parents make great sacrifices to provide their children with coaching in maths, which could maximise their chances to have access to a prestigious school or faculty, and aspire to interesting job opportunities in the future.

Given the high pressure put on these students to perform well throughout their high school years, it was felt that aspects of their motivation and behaviour needed to be addressed. Accordingly, a major purpose of this study was to explore students' perceived motivational orientations, self-efficacy, test anxiety, and strategy use. Another purpose was to explore the potential relations among the variables involved.

Method

Subjects

The sample consisted of 289 students (134 female and 155 male) coming from five high schools in Rabat, the capital city of Morocco. They were all studying for the baccalaureate exams and were specialising in maths and sciences. The questionnaire was written in Arabic, which is the medium of instruction in high schools.

Measures

The students responded to a 36-item questionnaire which included scales for self-efficacy; anxiety; motivational orientations; and a list of 10 selected learning strategies. The scale for self-efficacy included 6 items assessing students' perceptions of their competence, and expectations of success in

mathematics (e.g., *'compared with other students in this class I think I am a good student in maths'*). Perceived test anxiety in maths was assessed using 6 items tapping students reported emotional reactions to taking tests in maths (e.g., *'I have an uneasy, upset feeling when I take a test in maths'*). The items for the self-efficacy and test anxiety scales were inspired by the literature and were also adapted to the students' educational context.

The scale for the motivational orientations comprised: 1) a 7-item sub-scale for measuring intrinsic orientation, concerned with a desire to study mathematics out of pure interest, enjoyment and preference for challenge, and 2) a 7-item sub-scale for assessing the students' extrinsic reasons for learning, such as a desire to obtain good grades, to gain social status and to please the teacher or parents (see Table 1 for actual items). All the items were extracted from data collected through an open-ended question which asked a group of 103 students, similar to the subjects in the present study, to give the reasons for which they were studying mathematics.

In addition to the scales, the questionnaire comprised a list of 10 leaning strategies selected from data collected through an open-ended question which asked 103 students, similar to the subjects in the present study, to give a list of the strategies they were using to study mathematics. Six strategies involved deep and elaborate cognitive engagement as well as greater deployment of effort, in studying (e.g., *'I try to solve difficult problems to test my ability'*). They were therefore referred to as active strategies. Four strategies involved shallow or passive cognitive engagement (e.g., *'I memorise the rules and properties'*), so they were labelled passive strategies (see Table 4 for actual items).

The students rated each item on the scales on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 'very true of me' to 'not at all true of me'. They also rated the strategies on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 'always' to 'never'.

Scores for the motivational orientations, self-efficacy and test anxiety scales were obtained by computing factor scores from the respective factor analyses. Scores for the passive and active strategies were computed by averaging item scores.

Results

Motivational orientations

Factor analysis procedures including a Principal Components Analysis and a varimax rotation were applied to the 14 motivational orientation items in order to delineate clusters that would indicate the students' orientations for learning mathematics. Four factors were extracted accounting for 33%, 16%, 10% and 8% of the variance, respectively. There were virtually no cross-loadings on the factors. Results are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1: Factor loadings for the goal orientation scales

No.	Items	Intrinsic	Grades	Social status	Pleasing others
4	I am interesting in maths	.84			
2	I fing great satisfaction in learning maths	.82			
8	I derive satisfaction from solving problems	.81			
11	I prefer challenging lessons and problems	.79			
6	I want to discover new things in maths	.77			
14	I want to enhance my skills in maths and apply them to other disciplines	.67			
10	I want to please the teacher		.82		
7	I want to please my parents		.76		
12	I want to impress my peers		.60		
5	I want to pursue good university studies			.86	
9	I want to get important/lucrative jobs in the future			.81	
3	I want to pass exams				.85
1	I want to obtain good grades				.84

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As can be seen, factor 1 receives quite heavy loadings from seven items mainly concerned with a strong desire to study mathematics out of interest, curiosity and enjoyment; and to seek challenge in order to Excel in this subject. This factor, therefore, corresponds to what is considered as an intrinsic orientation.

Factor 2 evidences substantial loadings from three items having to do with expending efforts in mathematics in order to please the teacher, the parents and to impress peers. So this factor can be given the label 'pleasing others'.

Factor 3 exhibits appreciable loadings from two items concerned with making efforts in mathematics to be able to pursue good university studies and to aspire to high and lucrative posts in the future. It can therefore be labelled 'social status'.

Factor 4 is defined by two items concerned with obtaining good grades and passing exams. It is then labelled 'grades' orientation.

The Cronbach's alphas for the 'intrinsic'(.90) 'grades'(.67), 'social status'(.63) and 'pleasing others'(.60) orientations were adequate for research purposes.

Given the mixture of orientations that emerged in this study, it was thought appropriate to evaluate the level of endorsement of each orientation by the students. This was computed by taking the average score (minimum = 1; maximum = 5) for those items shown to load on each factor. Results showed a strong endorsement of the 'grades' (M = 4.68, SD = ..61) and 'social status'(M =3.89, SD = 1.14) orientations, a moderate endorsement of the 'intrinsic' orientation (M = 3.50, SD = .98), and a weaker support for the 'pleasing others' (M = 2.78, SD = 1.10) dimension. These results suggest that the students' drive towards studying mathematics was primarily to obtain good grades in order to pass exams and gain social status later in life. Less value seemed to be attached to purely intrinsic reasons or to pleasing significant others.

Self-efficacy

Factor analysis procedures were applied to the 6 self-efficacy items, using principal components analysis, followed with a varimax rotation. As was expected, a one-factor solution was extracted, which gives support to the adequacy of the items. The factor matrix appears in Table 2. The reliability of the scale proved acceptable (Cronbach's alpha: .80).

Test anxiety

The 6 test anxiety items were subjected to factor analysis procedures, including a varimax rotation. As shown in Table 3, a one factor solution emerged. The alpha

TABLE 2: Factor loadings for the self-efficacy scale

No.	Item	Factor loading
8.	Compared with other students in this class I think I am a good student	.82
2.	I think I can understand the maths program taught in this class	.76
6.	Compared with other students in the class I think I know a great deal	.76
10.	My study skills are excellent compared with other students in this class	.71
12.	I am sure I can do an excellent job on the problems and tasks assigned for this class	.69
4.	Compared with other students in this class I expect to do well in maths	.51

TABLE 3: Factor loadings for the test anxiety scale

No.	Item	Factor loading
5.	I have an uneasy, upset feeling when I take a test in maths	.83
1.	I worry a great deal about exams in maths	.76
9.	When I take a test in maths I keep thinking about how poorly I am doing	.72
11.	I am so nervous during tests that I cannot remember things I have learnt	.69
3.	When I take a test I am afraid of making mistakes in solving problems	.64
7.	I feel nervous about going to the blackboard to solve exercises	.46

coefficient for the scale (.76) was acceptable. The mean scores for self-efficacy (M = 3.57, SD = .90) and test anxiety (M = 3.42, SD = .92) were approximately similar. However, test anxiety and self-efficacy were negatively correlated with each other ($r = -.28$), suggesting that some students who reported higher levels of self-efficacy also reported lower levels of test anxiety.

Table 4 displays the rank-order of the 10 learning strategies according to the percentage level of students who reported using these strategies 'always' or 'very frequently'. The figures indicate that the four passive strategies were the most widely used strategies, with an average percentage of 76%. By contrast the six active strategies appeared to be less frequently used, with an average percentage of 18%.

TABLE 4: Items comprising passive and active strategies

	Items	% level of response
Passive strategies	1. In class, I pay attention to teacher explanation	95%
	2. When studying maths, I read the lessons over and over to myself	84%
	3. In class, I follow all the steps of the lesson	75%
	4. I memorise the rules and properties	67%
Active strategies	5. When work is hard, I never give up or do simple things	60%
	6. I discuss ambiguous points with the teacher and peers	55%
	7. When studying, I try to simplify the material to help me understanding and remember	47%
	8. I try so solve difficult problems in order to test my ability	43%
	9. I look for extra information from various books in order to increase my understanking	34%
	10. When studying, I try to connect new information with things I already know	32%

Variation in students' motivational orientations, self-efficacy, test anxiety and strategy use across gender

The mean scores for the various variables were computed and a series of *t*-tests were applied to highlight significant differences between sexes. Results in Table 5 indicate that boys scored significantly higher on self-efficacy, and lower on test

anxiety, than girls. Thus boys appeared to think of themselves as being more capable and less test anxious than did girls.

As concerns motivational orientations, males scored significantly higher than females on two goals, 'intrinsic' and 'pleasing others'. However, there appeared to be no significant differences between the sexes on the 'grades' and 'social status' goals. Such results suggested that whereas boys and girls were both committed to getting good grades and gaining social status later in life, boys tended to be more passionate about maths and more keen on pleasing the teacher/ parents or impress their peers.

Differences between males and females in respect of strategy use reached significance only in the case of active strategies, where males indicated more frequent use of active strategies than did females. This may suggest that whereas both boys and girls engaged in using passive strategies, boys tended to make greater use of active strategies. So, in comparison with their female peers, male students tended to show more interest in mathematics, perceived themselves as more capable, less test anxious, and reported using a wider repertoire of strategies. Girls scored higher than boys only in perceived test anxiety.

TABLE 5: Results of t-tests for self-efficacy, test anciety, motivational orientations and strategy use across gender

	Means Females	Means males	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig.
Self-efficacy	3.37	3.73	-3.32	269	.001*
Test anxiety	3.62	3.26	3.39	277	.001*
Intrinsic orientation	3.19	3.76	-5.08	240	.001*
Grades	4.69	4.68	.11	283	.9
Social status	3.83	3.95	-.89	282	.3
Pleasing others	2.64	2.90	-1.99	282	.05*
Active strategies	3.13	3.33	2.41	278	.01*
Passive strategies	4.31	4.25	-.89	281	.3

* : significant differences at $p<.05$

Even though females in the Moroccan context have gone a long way towards breaking the barrier between the sexes, in terms of academic and job pursuits which require high standards in mathematics, they do not seem to derive as much enjoyment from studying this discipline as do their male counterparts. Interestingly, in a previous study (Benmansour, 1996) conducted on students' motivation towards studying English as a foreign language in Moroccan high schools, girls showed a significantly stronger desire to learn English for intrinsic purposes than did boys. This picture seems to match the commonly held stereotype according to which males favour mathematics, whereas females prefer languages.

Correlational analyses among the variables

Pearson correlations were computed between motivational orientations scores and self-efficacy, test anxiety, and strategy use measures. The results presented in Table 6 suggest that the intrinsic and extrinsic orientations showed different patterns of relations with perceived self-efficacy. Higher intrinsic scores were strongly associated with higher self-efficacy scores. By contrast, higher scores on 'grades' and 'social status' showed no relation with self-efficacy, whereas 'Pleasing others' exhibited a positive though weak correlation. These results suggested that intrinsically motivated students tended to exhibit higher perceptions of their abilities than did extrinsically motivated students.

Results also indicated that goal orientations exhibited different patterns of relations with test anxiety. Stronger intrinsic orientation showed a negative relation with test anxiety, whereas the extrinsic dimension of 'grades' exhibited a positive relation. No relationship was observed between scores on 'social status' or 'pleasing others' and perceived test anxiety. These results suggested that intrinsically motivated students were less likely to experience test anxiety than the extrinsically motivated students. Not surprisingly, students who were driven by grades appeared to be more prone to experience test anxiety.

On the other hand, motivational orientations appeared to relate differently to strategy use. The extrinsic dimensions all exhibited relatively weak associations with strategy use, but whereas 'grades' correlated with both types of strategies, 'social status' correlated with passive strategies, and 'pleasing others' correlated with active strategies. By contrast, the intrinsic orientation was related to both types of strategies, and it showed a particularly strong association with active strategies. This suggests that intrinsically motivated students tended to use both types of strategies, but they were more likely than extrinsically oriented students to make use of active strategies.

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TABLE 6: *Correlations between goal orientations self-efficacy, test anxiety and reported strategy use*

	Active strategies	Passive strategies	Self-efficacy	Test anxiety
Intrinsic	.58***	.21***	.46***	-.23***
grades	.11*	.22***	.10	.13**
social status	.07	.20***	.08	.11
pleasing others	.14**	.10	.15**	.11
Test anxiety	-.22***	.00	-.28***	—
Self-efficacy	.38***	.09	—	-.28***

* *p*<.05   ** *p*<.01   *** *p*<.001

Thus, intrinsically motivated students appeared to be advantaged over extrinsically oriented students. They tended to perceive themselves as more capable, less test anxious, and appeared to be more sophisticated strategy users. By contrast, students driven by grades were more likely to exhibit higher levels of test anxiety and tended to be poor strategy users.

Finally, results in Table 6 revealed that higher levels of test anxiety were negatively associated with both self-efficacy and active strategies. In other words, students who exhibited higher levels of test anxiety tended to use less active strategies and perceived themselves as less capable.

Conclusion and discussion

A major aim of the present study was to delineate the profile of high school students' motivational orientations, self-efficacy, test anxiety, and strategy use in studying mathematics. The students generally seemed to pursue two types of goals: extrinsic and intrinsic. Contrary to what was expected, the extrinsic orientation was divided into three more precise sub-goals or reasons for learning mathematics: to obtain good grades, to gain social status and to please significant others. These three extrinsic dimensions represented distinct pursuits for the students, and as such they were given different weight by the students. The

'grades' orientation was the most strongly endorsed orientation, followed by the 'social status' orientation. 'Pleasing others' was given only a marginal role by the students. By contrast, the intrinsic orientation emerged as a global unitary goal. Intrinsic reasons for studying mathematics such as curiosity, enjoyment, preference for challenge, and the view that mathematics is an important discipline were perceived by the students as belonging to the same goal. Yet the intrinsic goal was not endorsed as strongly as the two extrinsic dimensions, 'grades' and 'social status', suggesting that students' primary goals were generally extrinsic in nature.

On the other hand, the majority of students (76%) tended to engage in passive strategies more frequently than in active strategies. Results revealed that only a minority of students (18%) reported using active strategies 'frequently' or 'always'.

Correlational analyses revealed that different motivational orientations were associated with different characteristics and behaviours in terms of strength of perceived self-efficacy, test anxiety and strategy use. Higher scores on intrinsic orientation were associated with stronger self-efficacy, a decrease in experiencing test anxiety and an increase in the use of both types of strategies and particularly the active ones. The intrinsic motive appeared to be a powerful predictor of higher perceptions of self-efficacy, lower perceived test anxiety and a larger repertoire of strategies, namely those involving deeper cognitive engagement, and greater deployment of effort .

By contrast, a stronger orientation towards 'grades' was related to higher levels of test anxiety and greater use of passive strategies. Unsurprisingly, students driven by grades appeared to be more prone to test anxiety and tended to exhibit a deficit in their study skills. This implies that working under the pressure of obtaining good grades may be anxiety provoking and detrimental to students' study skills and performance.

The two extrinsic orientations, 'social status' and 'pleasing others' behaved differently from one another. The social status orientation was, like the orientation towards grades, primarily associated with use of passive strategies. This suggests that some students who studied mathematics in order to gain social status also tended to expend the minimum of effort to achieve their goal. By contrast a stronger orientation towards 'pleasing others' was associated with a weak, though positive relation with self-efficacy and active strategies. In this respect, an orientation towards 'pleasing others' exhibited more similarity to intrinsic than to extrinsic learning goals.

Of the four motivational goals that emerged in this study, the intrinsic motive appeared to be the most desirable goal, as it seemed to be conducive to greater use of active and potentially effective strategies. This finding parallels the work of Meece *et al.* (1988), who found that a mastery orientation was positively

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correlated with perceived competence, and active strategy use, while a performance orientation was not related to strategy use.

Results in this study further indicated that self-efficacy was related to higher intrinsic orientation, lower test anxiety and use of a wider repertoire of strategies, namely the active ones. Thus, perceived self-efficacy appeared to be a powerful predictor of stronger motivation, positive affect and use of effective strategies. These findings are to a large extent consistent with findings from previous research which suggested that self-efficacy was positively related to student cognitive engagement and performance (e.g., Pintrich and De Groot, 1990).

However, in contrast with Pintrich and De Groot's (1990) finding that no significant relation was observed between test anxiety and strategy use, the present study revealed that test anxiety was negatively related to active strategies but showed no significant relation with passive strategies. In other words, test anxious students appeared to be less likely to use the active strategies which are presumably more effective than the passive ones. This finding suggests that, for this sample of students, elevations in test anxiety during evaluative situations may be accounted for by a deficit in their study skills. As was observed by Tobias (1985), increase in test anxiety during evaluative situations may be due to students' awareness that they are poorly prepared.

Within the body of motivational research, goals are typically thought of as being fostered by the environmental context in which the learner is placed (e.g., Ames, 1992; Boggiano and Katz, 1991). For example, research has shown that students who find themselves in competitive, performance oriented learning environments tend to be less likely to use learning strategies, have a less positive attitudes towards class, and less likely to prefer challenging tasks (Ames and Archer, 1988). Consistent with previous research, the present study suggests that students' strong extrinsic orientation towards grades and 'social status' may have been shaped by an education system which puts great emphasis on evaluation and selectivity.

The results from this paper all point to the conclusion that an emphasis on evaluation may promote extrinsic goals in students, induce higher levels of test anxiety in them, decreases their strength of self-efficacy and inhibit their use of effective strategies. Therefore, a host of implications suggest themselves for high school educators. In order to counterbalance the emphasis placed on grades, teachers need to cultivate in students more intrinsic interest and self-efficacy, which are potentially conducive to the use of effective strategies and better performance. If the teacher establishes a positive relationship with the students and creates an enjoyable atmosphere in the classroom, students are more likely to develop a spontaneous interest in the subject and engage in more effective strategies. In particular, care should be taken to arouse students' curiosity, and create in them the need to learn.

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There may also be room for mathematics teachers to use a teaching style aimed at demystifying and humanising the subject, for example, by emphasising its applicability in various domains and making the contributions of the great mathematicians more salient to the students. The personal enthusiasm teachers show about the subject they teach often translate into more student interest and motivation.

Additionally, making students feel good about themselves is at the very heart of education. Seifert (1997) observed that 'improvement in education may rest not on technology or curriculum developments or administrative reform, but on finding ways of making students feel good about themselves by helping students feel capable and independent.' (p. 336). Feelings of self-assuredness come primarily from contact with teachers who treat their students with respect, help them understand the material and give them opportunities to experience success. One way of giving students a sense of satisfaction and success is by setting them proximal and attainable goals. An empirical study conducted by Bandura and Schunk (1981) demonstrated that children who set themselves attainable sub-goals progressed rapidly in self-directed learning, achieved substantial mastery of mathematical operations, heightened their perceived self-efficacy and interests in activities that initially held little attraction for them.

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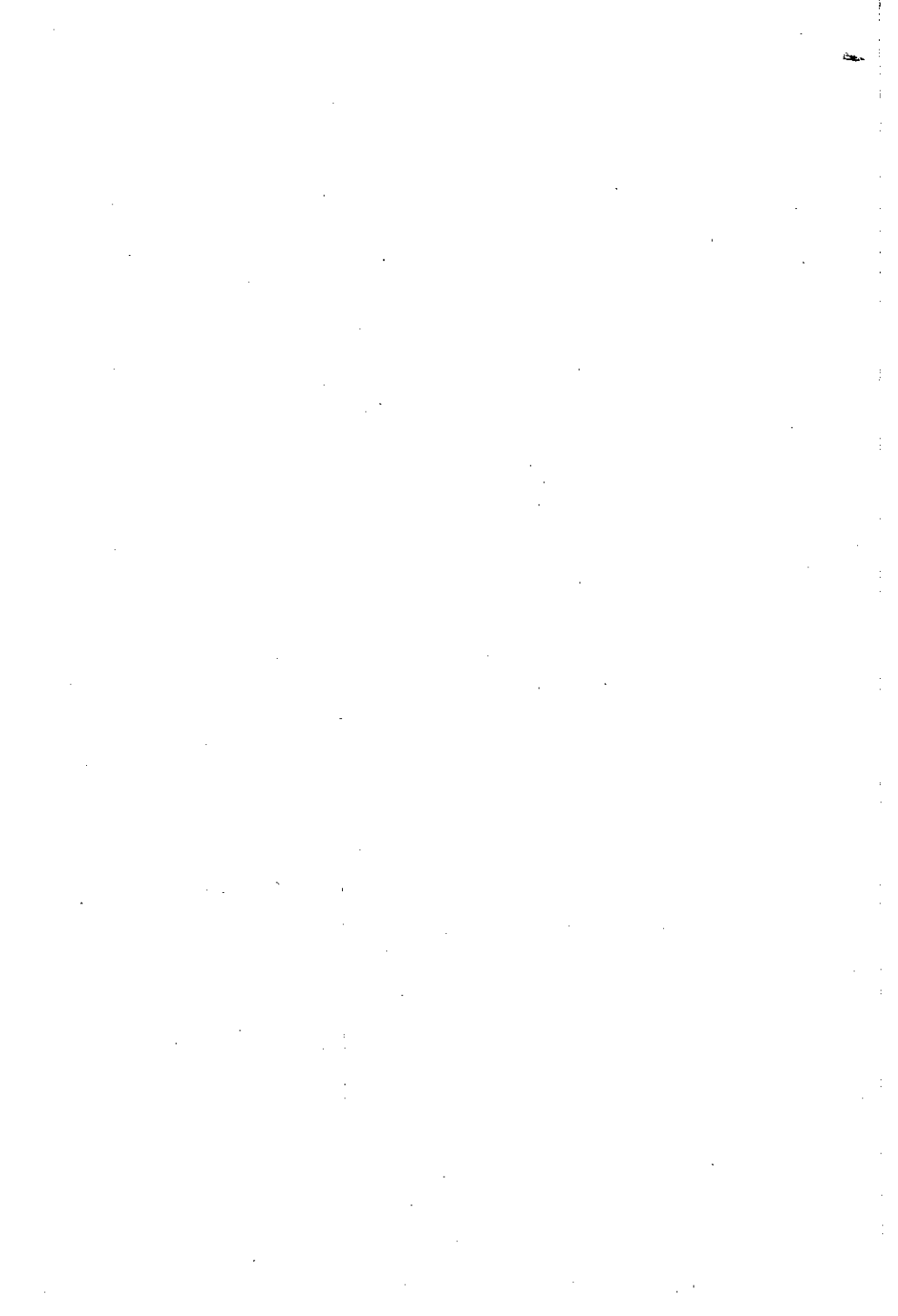
STRUCTURE AND IDENTITY OF THE EUROPEAN AND THE MEDITERRANEAN SPACE: CYPRIOT STUDENTS' PERSPECTIVE

CHRISTOS THEOPHILIDES
MARY KOUTSELINI-IOANNIDES

Abstract - *The purpose of the present study was firstly to describe how university students in a teacher education program perceive the structure of the European Union region as well as of three Mediterranean sub-regions (European, African, Asian) and secondly to examine students' attitude towards Mediterranean people. The data for the study were collected through a self-developed questionnaire from freshman, sophomore and junior students. Students' responses to 17 statements relative to the features of the above regions were factor analyzed through a principal components analysis. The results indicated that the European Union region was defined by three factors (Economic and Political Affairs, Cultural Production, Geomorphology) while each of the three Mediterranean sub-regions was defined by four factors (Economic and Political Affairs, Peoples' Mental States, Geomorphology, Cultural Production). Concerning students' attitude towards Mediterranean people it emerged that the respondents were more positive towards European Mediterranean people than towards people coming from the remaining two Mediterranean regions. When the comparison referred to African and Asian Mediterranean, the analysis favored African Mediterranean people.*

Introduction

*T*he signing of the Treaty of Rome by the first six member-states of the then European Common Market and the extensively publicised statement that the ambition was to create a people's Europe extending from the Atlantic ocean to the Ural mountains signaled people's hope for development, prosperity, and common understanding. Joining the European Union became a national objective for a number of countries. As a result, the six-member European Common Market developed into a fifteen-member European Union (EU) with member states scattered all over Europe. The slogan 'unity in diversity' became the ideal, giving substance to cooperation, initially for economic and vocational reasons and, more recently, for political, cultural and educational issues.

After three decades of struggle for a unified Europe, one is tempted to ask 'what has been the outcome?'. Did the idea of a European entity materialise? Is

it possible for somebody to identify certain features which turn the European Union into a region with its own structure and identity? Do those features appear to be valid for European sub-regions as well? The present investigation was launched to answer the above question.

The study relates to two streams of thought: a) how are regions conceptualised and b) what is the essence of the European dimension in education? One interpretation of how regions are conceptualised has been proposed recently by the Maltese sociologist Ronald Sultana (1996, 1998). Sultana looks at regions as 'constructs' rather than as facts. A region may be historically and culturally disparate and still be considered a region because people have 'constructed' it in their minds as such. Sultana (1996, 1998) uses the example of Europe, pointing out that although disparate on a number of criteria (political, cultural, economic), Europe is viewed by quite a few people as a region. According, then, to this line of thinking, a region is constructed and possibly constructed differently by different people. Sultana (1996) puts it this way: 'Behind these varied constructions lie important ideological, political and economic considerations ... In other words, a 'region' should not be considered in a reified manner; it can become one, or fail to become one as a result of vested interests by those doing the naming' (p.v.).

The purpose of the present investigation is exactly this: to describe how university students of Cyprus in a teacher education program perceive the structuring of the European and the Mediterranean space. Does each of the two regions have its identity formulated by a given set of characteristics and, if that is the case, which are those characteristics and how are they formulated in students' minds?

The European dimension in education, the second stream of thought of the present study, is one of the directives of the EU for its member-states; it is not a school subject but rather a set of experiences which aim at enabling young people to operate comfortably in Europe. Tulasiewicz and Brock (1994) point out that the European dimension in education relates to cognitive enrichment (knowledge about Europe), skill development and affective disposition (living and working with other European people). To what extent has the European dimension in education influenced the understanding and behavior of university students with respect to common understanding and living together in a united Europe? A second purpose of the study is to answer the above question.

In summary form, then, the present investigation purports to answer the following two questions: How do students in a teacher education program at the University of Cyprus perceive the unique features and identity of the European Union and the Mediterranean regions? How does this same group of respondents view people from three Mediterranean sub-regions?

Since the study refers to the perceptions of Greek Cypriot students, it is important that we present a brief sketch of the recent history of the island; such a reference to the history of the island may prove useful in interpreting the outcomes of the study.

Cyprus remained under the Turkish rule for the period 1570-1878. In 1878 the island was sold to the British who controlled the island until 1960. During both the above periods the Greek national ideal prevailed as a supreme value among Greek-Cypriots. The policy and aspirations of the Greek community were defined according to national visions. The most important of those visions was unification with Greece.

The island gained its independence in 1960. The constitution which accompanied the independence provided for separate municipal administration and educational and religious institutions for the two main communities - Greeks and Turks – of the island. As a result, in the years which followed and until the Turkish invasion in 1974, both the Greek and the Turkish school systems adopted an education whose primary objective was to strengthen ethnic conscience.

In 1990, Cyprus applied to become a member of the European Union.

Methodology

The research was launched as a comparative study between the University of Athens and the University of Cyprus. All freshman, sophomore and junior students majoring in education at the two institutions were the subjects of the study. The students were asked to complete a questionnaire developed by the authors and their colleagues (Elias Matsaggouras and John Roussakis) from Athens University. However, the present investigation is based only on the data obtained from the Cyprus sub-population.

Population and sample

The population of the present study consisted of all 1995-96 freshman, sophomore and junior Greek Cypriot students in a teacher education program at the University of Cyprus (N=477). In terms of age, the population was a homogeneous group with ages ranging between 18 and 21 years. The gender distribution of the population favored female students.

All the members of the population were included in the sample. The response to the questionnaire amounted to 70.8% (N=338 usable questionnaires). A goodness of fit test indicated that the sample was representative of its population.

Instrumentation

The study was of an exploratory nature, based on an *ex post facto* research design. A specifically developed questionnaire was administered to all the members of the sample during the last two weeks of April 1996. The questionnaire required students to provide personal data as well as to decide whether each of seventeen statements was a decisive factor in defining the following four regions: the European Union (EU) region (consisting of its fifteen member-states) and three Mediterranean sub-regions, namely European Mediterranean (EM) (i.e. Greece, Italy, Spain), African Mediterranean (AFM) (i.e. Libya, Algeria, Morocco) and Asian Mediterranean (i.e. Turkey, Syria, Lebanon, Israel). The assessment was made separately for each region using a five-point interval scale (0= not at all valid to 4=valid to a very great extent).

The respondents were also asked to use a semantic differential scale in order to describe their feelings of the people coming from the above three Mediterranean sub-regions, using 10 criteria. To examine further student's feelings for the people coming from the above regions, the subjects were asked to state whether they were positive, neutral or negative for them assuming that they found themselves in the following four life situations: sharing the same table for lunch, living in the same neighborhood, sharing the same room, being married to someone; a separate assessment was made for each life situation.

Data analysis

The study was based on both descriptive and inferential statistics. Students' responses to the 17 statements relative to the unique features of each of the above four regions were factor analysed in order to identify students' perception of the unique features and the identity of each region. Thus, a separate factor analysis was performed for each region. The purpose of conducting factor analysis was to group the items around major factors and thus identify the region's major features. The criterion for this grouping was each item's unique loading on a certain factor. For a clear picture of the structures of each region, the factors identified were rotated to the varimax criterion.

To decide the extent to which each factor identified through factor analysis was present for the region, mean scale scores were computed for those factors whose alpha reliability scale coefficient was relatively high (i.e. beyond .65) by adding each student's response to the items loading heavily on each factor and dividing by the number of items. To study students' perceptions of people coming from the three Mediterranean sub-regions, the mean value for each bipolar

variable was plotted graphically. Differences among the means for each region on each variable were tested for statistical significance using paired t-tests. To assess students' views of the people coming from the three Mediterranean sub-regions, the percentage ratio representing positive attitude for each life situation was used.

Results

Structure and identity of the European and the Mediterranean space

The first research question dealt with students' perception of the unique features of the European Union region as well as of the three Mediterranean sub-regions. To identify those features, four principal components factor analyses were performed, one for each region, using seventeen items covering various aspects of the region. The factor solution for each region appears in Table 1.

Table 1 shows that the factor analysis produced three factors for the EU region and four factors for each Mediterranean sub-region. Based on the content of the items which loaded heavily on each factor, four titles were suggested in order to capture the content of each factor. In essence, the four factors can be looked at as dimensions alongside which one may describe the unique features of each region. The titles proposed were: Economic and Political Affairs, Cultural Production, Geomorphology, and Mental States.

The first factor was labeled 'Economic and Political Affairs' (EPA) because it consisted of items having to do with the economy of the region (e.g. per capita income, extent of industrialisation) as well as with its politics (e.g. current political affairs, state governance, organization and administration, history of the region). Six items, with an alpha reliability coefficient ≤.80, loaded uniquely and heavily on this factor.

The second factor was named 'Cultural Production' (CUP) since it was defined mainly by items which referred to various forms of artistic production and expression (e.g. literature production, music tradition, esthetic production). Three items loaded heavily on this factor; its alpha reliability coefficient was ≤.70.

The third factor – 'Geomorphology' (GEO) – originated from items which referred to the physical characteristics of the region; it included items such as physical geography, climate conditions, flora and fauna, and geographic location; it consisted of four items and its alpha reliability coefficient was ≤.65.

The last factor was labeled 'Mental States' (MST); it was defined by four items which have to do with the way of everyday living (e.g. the way people live together, the way of approaching everyday problems). The alpha reliability coefficient for the factor was ≤.67.

TABLE 1: *Students' perception of the European Union region as well as of three Mediterranean subregions according to the results of factor analyses*

Factor	European Union region	Mediterranean regions		
		European Mediter.	African Mediter.	Asian Mediter.
Economic and Political Affairs				
Current political affairs	.81	.80	.77	.82
Organization and administration				.81
system	.70	.80	.65	
State governance	.81	.73	.76	.74
Extent of industrialization	.81	.72	.75	.73
History of the region	—	.60	.49	.64
Per capita income	.73	.60	.62	.51
Mean scale value	2.59	2.69	2.41	2.32
Standard deviation	.96	.82	.78	.87
Alpha realibility scale	.85	.82	.80	.84
Variance explained	16.20	31.90	28.30	31.00
Cultural production				
Literature production	.85	.85	.80	.83
Esthetic production	.84	.81	.83	.84
Music tradition	.73	.75	.62	.64
Mean scale value	1.78	1.95	1.67	1.57
Standard deviation	.92	.95	.85	.91
Alpha realibility scale	.85	.82	.70	.77
Variance explained	34.90	16.30	8.10	16.20
Geomorphology				
Physical geography	.70	.81	.82	.74
Climate conditions	.78	.80	.80	.83
Geographic location	.69	.70	.61	.60
Flora and Fauna	.60	.54	.69	.64
Mean scale value	1.49	2.22	2.13	2.05
Standard deviation	.92	.93	.83	.80
Alpha realibility scale	.65	.75	.76	.71
Variance explained	8.10	7.70	15.60	9.30
Mental States				
People's mentality	—	.76	.84	.85
The way people live together	—	.75	.77	.76
Way of approaching everyday				
problems	—	.51	.53	.57
Mean scale value	—	2.35	2.22	2.08
Standard deviation	—	.84	.83	.88
Alpha realibility scale	—	.67	.72	.75
Variance explained	—	7.40	7.30	6.60
Total variance explained	59.20	63.30	59.30	63.00

Table 1 also shows that while the European Union region was defined by three factors – Economic and Political Affairs, Cultural Production, and Geomorphology – the Mediterranean sub-regions were defined by all four factors. The three factors which defined the European Union region explained together 59.2% of the total variance. The four factors which defined the three Mediterranean sub-regions explained together a total variance which ranged between 59.3 - 63.3%.

It is also important to examine the extent to which each region was defined by each factor. As Table 1 shows, the mean scale values ranged between 1.49 (i.e. *almost valid,* when considering the assessment scale used) and 2.59 (*almost valid to a great extent*). The mean scale scores for each factor were graphically depicted in Figure 1. It is immediately apparent from Figure 1 that the subjects of the study thought that the most important feature of the European Union

FIGURE 1: Students' perception of the European Union space as well as of three Mediterranean subregions

EPA = Economic and Political Affairs   EU   = European Union
CUP = Cultural Production   EUM = European Mediterranean
GEO = Geomorphology   AFM = African Mediterranean
MST = Mental States   ASM = Asian Mediterranean
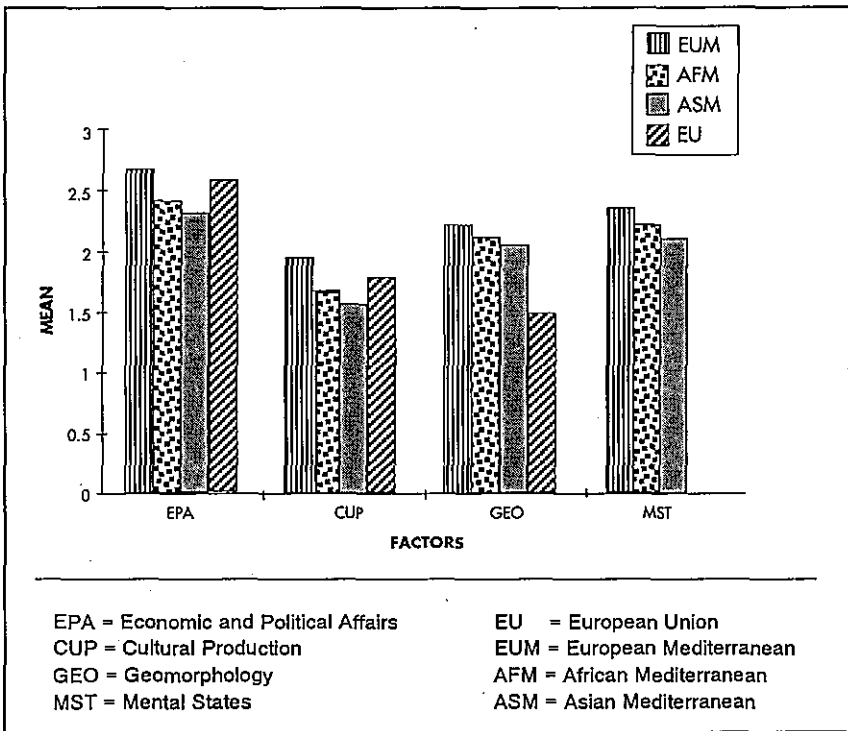
region is the economic and political relationships among the member states. This feature was thought by the respondents to be present to a *considerable extent* (the mean scale value was 2,59).

It is also worthy to note that all three Mediterranean sub-regions were thought to be defined by the same factors and in the same rank order. Three features of each region appeared to be present to a considerable extent; in rank order, these were: the economic and political affairs that prevail in the countries which comprise the region, people's mental states and their way of everyday living, and the geomorphology of the region. The fourth feature – cultural production – was *present to some extent.*

Student perceptions of the Mediterranean people

The second research question referred to the way students view people coming from three Mediterranean sub-regions. Figure 2 presents the profile of people coming from three Mediterranean areas, as perceived by the subjects of the study on the basis of ten criteria. These three profiles indicate that the students who participated in the study view more positively, on all ten criteria included in Figure 2, people coming from the European Mediterranean region than people coming from the other two regions. When the comparison concerns African Mediterranean and Asian Mediterranean, the respondents of the study appeared to be more positive towards African than for Asian people. When the differences among the three regions on each variable were tested through paired t- comparisons, they turned out to be in all cases except one statistically significant (t values ranging between 2,89-13,32, d.f.=between 211-230, p<between .001-.004).

Figure 3 shows students' attitude towards people coming from the above three Mediterranean sub-regions when faced with the following four life situations: sharing the same table for lunch, living in the same neighborhood, sharing the same room, getting married to someone. The information presented in Figure 3 warrants two major observations. Firstly, students are more positive towards people coming from the European Mediterranean region than the African and the Asian Mediterranean regions. Secondly, when considering the above four life situations the percent of students looking positively at people from other areas diminishes as the relationship becomes more intimate; while 84% (4 out of 5 students) appeared ready, for example, to share the same table for lunch with somebody from the European Mediterranean region, only 40% (2 out of 5 students) were ready to get married to someone from this same region. This trend appears present in the case of the other two areas as well.

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FIGURE 2: *Students' vision of people coming from various Mediterranean subregions*

Figure 2: Students' vision of people coming from various Mediterranean subregions

European Mediterranean

Asian Mediterranean

African Mediterranean
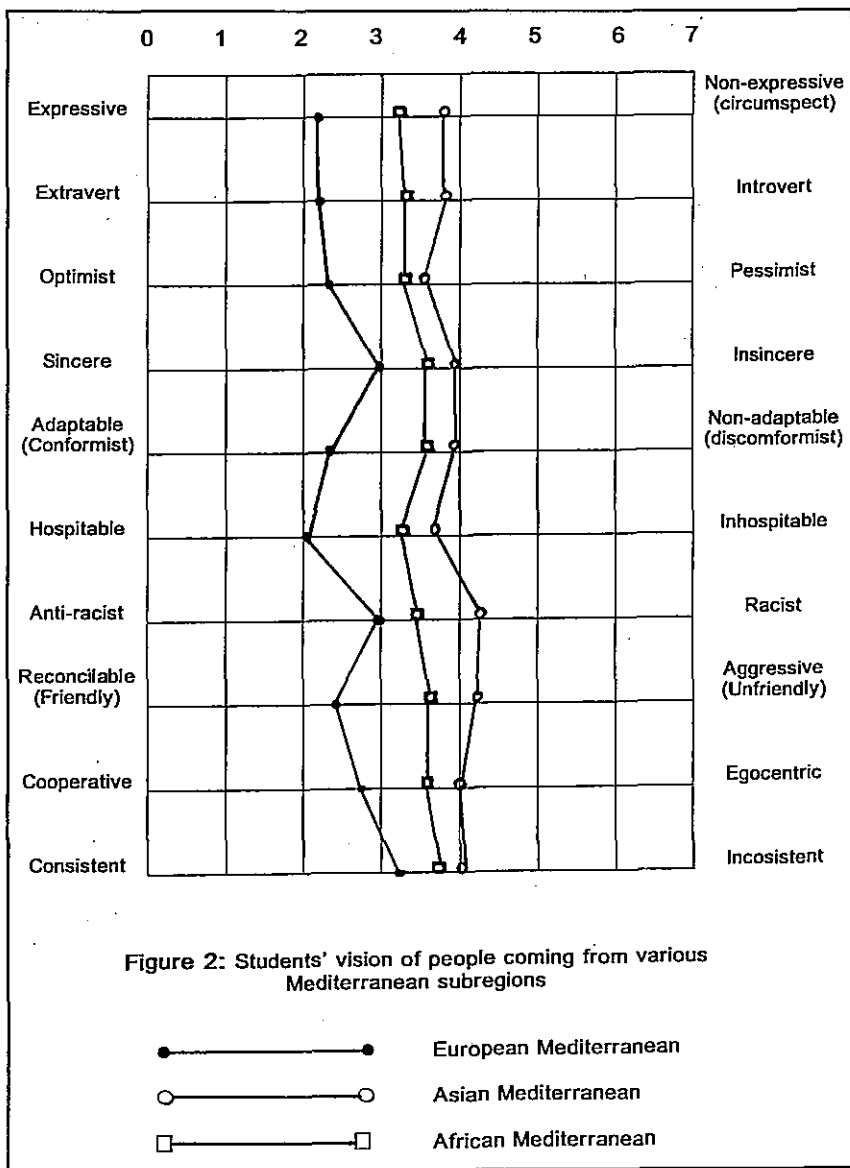
FIGURE 3: Percentage of students who view positively people from three Mediterranean regions relative to four life situations

A = Sharing the same table for lunch   EU   = European Mediterranean
B = Living in the same neighborhood   AFM = African Mediterranean
C = Sharing the same room   ASM = Asian Mediterranean
D = Married to someone
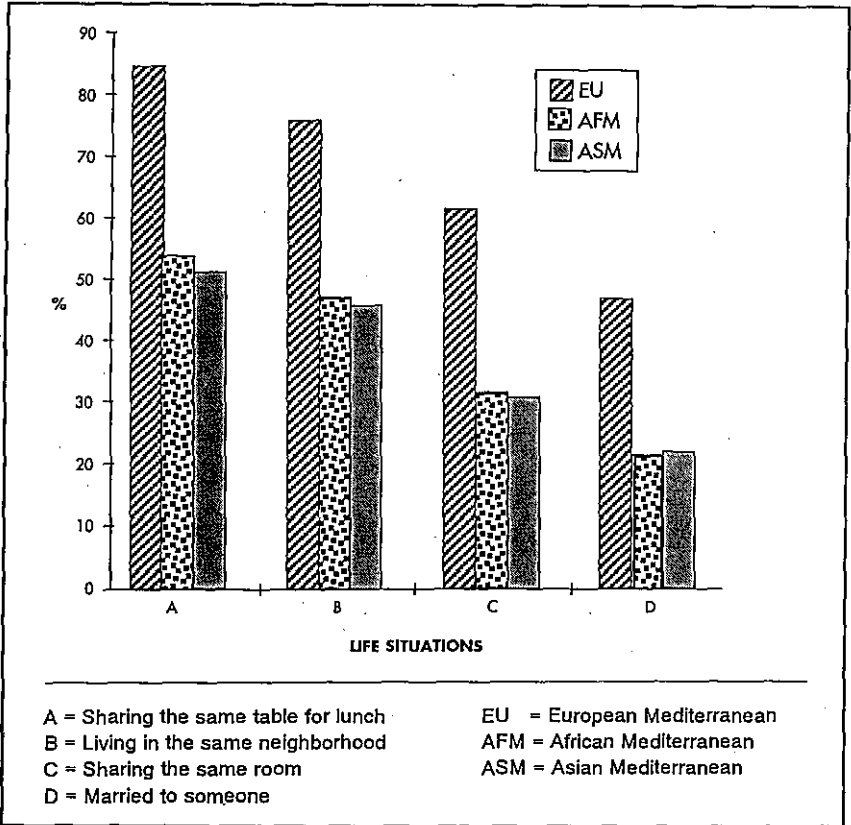
Discussion

The purpose of the present study was firstly to find out how students perceive the structuring of the European and the Mediterranean space and secondly to examine student's vision of the Mediterranean people. Based on the outcomes of the statistical analysis, it appears that while the European Union is principally defined by the economic and political relationships which prevail among its member states, the three Mediterranean sub-regions are uniformly defined firstly by the economic and political relationships among its member states, secondly by people's approach to their everyday problems of living, and thirdly

by the geomorphology of the region. With respect to students' vision of Mediterranean people, it became clear that students were more sympathetic towards European Mediterraneans than towards African and Asian Mediterraneans. Given these outcomes, five major observations appear warranted.

The first observation relates to the way students develop the concept of region. The outcomes of the study indicate, firstly, that regions are 'constructed' in people's mind and, secondly, that they are constructed on the basis of diverse criteria. The students who participated in the present study, for example, view the European Union region mainly defined by economic and political criteria. When coming to the three Mediterranean sub-regions (European, African, Asian), however, these same students consider equally important to the economic and political criterion additional ones such as the way people think and act in their everyday life, and the geomorphology of the region. Students, therefore, consider multiple criteria and perceive regions as sociopolitical systems rather than as regional contexts based on state territories and physical boundaries. In the case of the European Union, economic and political benefits become the defining characteristics of the region. In the case of the three Mediterranean sub-regions, beyond economics and politics, commonality of culture, the way of everyday living and geomorphology become also defining characteristics of the region. The above conclusion is also supported by the students' response to a specifically designed question in the context of the present study; when asked to decide in which region Cyprus belongs, two out of every three students stated that they adopted multiple criteria when taking that decision. Regions, then are viewed by the respondents of the present study not as physical boundaries but as rational entities which come together because of various reasons. Such an assertion is congruent with Pasias's (1995) argument according to which the decisive units for region theorisation are not countries but political and economic entities which cut across national boundaries. This idea is also endorsed by Todeschini (1996) who suggests that '[regions] can refer to a segment of a national territory but could also refer to an area which goes beyond state boundaries, including segments belonging to different states' (p. 125). It has to be noted, then, that the outcomes of the present study support Sultana's (1996) theorisation about regions outlined in the introduction of the present study. To distinguish between north and south Mediterranean countries, Sultana adopts not physical boundaries but developmental indicators such as rate of development and illiteracy rates. It can be concluded, therefore, that in people's mind 'a region is constructed and possibly constructed differently by different individuals' (Sultana, 1996, p.v.), a position echoed very much in Todeschini's (1996) statement:

'Which criteria should one adopt in order to define a regional area? It is quite obvious that there is not a single criterion, or even a single set of criteria that can be privileged over others, even if the multiplicity of criteria might possibly lead us to an organic synthesis of sorts. Could language define a region? Most certainly. Could areas that have shared more or less lengthy periods of common history be defined as regions? Again, certainly. And what about areas that are homogeneous in terms of their geographical and physical relief? Climatic areas, continents, maritime-oceanic zones could be considered to have a regional identity. Why not? It is not difficult, however, to see that the different criteria outlined above influence each other in a reciprocal and interactive manner, in such a way that culture and language evoke the criterion of history, evokes economy, and economy evokes geography' (p. 125).

The second major observation concerns the specific criteria adopted by students in defining the above four regions. The outcomes of the study present no surprise as to which criteria are used by students to define each region. The economic criterion, for example, has always been an important variable in developing the concept of modern Europe, an assertion succinctly expressed by Kazamias (1995) through his statement 'the economic sector has always been considered the steam engine of European unification' (p. 563). Additionally, the geomorphology criterion has been adopted in certain cases in defining regions. Braudel (1992) has argued that climate alone exercises a unifying influence on an area that has a social and geographical referent. To use his own words:

'The Mediterranean climate, stretching as it does from the north limit of the olive tree to the northern limit of the palm tree, exercises a unifying influence ... the same vegetation, the same colors and, when the geological architecture recurs, the same landscapes, identical to the point of obsession; in short, the same ways of life' (p. 172, 178).

The third observation relates to the absence of certain criteria when defining certain regions. The fact that the factor 'Mental States' is not present in students' mind as a defining criterion of the European Union space deserves attention; it suggests that despite the so often and widely publicised idea for a European dimension in education, there is still much to be worked out in developing a European mentality in students' mind. It is expected that the implementation of a

curriculum which serves the European dimension of education will promote pluralism, social sensitivity, tolerance, respect for cultural diversity and integration. Markou (1995), Kassotakis (1995), Kassotakis and Rousakis (1995) and Pasias (1995) have stressed that schooling remains a socialising agent with the purpose of realising the above objectives. Markou (1995) points out that the school should be reconstructed so that a sensitivity develops for cultural diversity. Pasias (1995) adds that students should be helped to understand the new prospects and possibilities of the European state of affairs. For this to happen there is need for a curriculum which serves multi-culturalism in education. Currently such a curriculum is not present. A study parallel to this one which involved content analysis of social studies textbooks indicated that the information included in them for various European countries is very often stereotyped and presented in a subjective way.

The fourth observation refers to students' vision of 'the other'. The results of the present study show that students have their own prejudices against people coming from the three Mediterranean sub-regions; on the one hand they are more positive for European Mediterranean people than for those coming from the remaining two sub-regions (African, Asian); on the other hand they appear to be less positive with life situations which rely on intimate relationships. Three arguments at least can be put forward to interpret the above outcomes. Firstly, the subjects of the study consider themselves mostly Europeans. When responding to a question with three alternatives (European, African, Asiatic) in the context of the present study, 94.6% of the respondents stated that they consider themselves Europeans. In fact, one may posit that the positive attitude towards European people (see Figure 2) may reflect students' projected self-image. Secondly, the respondents of the study are Greek Cypriots and their historic and affective ties with Greece turn Europe more familiar to them since Greece is part of Europe both ideologically and geographically. Thirdly, the unresolved Cyprus problem and the continuing Turkish occupation of 39% of the island's territory may render the Asian Mediterranean, to which Turkey belongs, less attractive for students. The historical background outlined in the introductory section of the study is very relevant to this discussion.

Finally, it has to be pointed out that the study has important implications for teacher education. The respondents of the study are candidates for the teaching profession. Yet the study uncovered some of their prejudices for other European and Mediterranean people. Assuming that the objective is to create a European citizen who is open to other points of view, who aspires to the notion of equality and who is sensitive to the cultures of diverse nationalities and to people coming from different regions, then the teacher education curriculum, both the explicitly stated and the hidden one, should be such that cultivate the above values. The

teacher education curriculum should, in effect, be consistent with the European dimension of education and thus promote cognitive enrichment (i.e. knowledge about Europe and its people) as well as skill development and affective disposition towards living in multicultural societies. To this effect foreign language literacy, student exchange programs and knowledge of cultures should be an integral part of the teacher education curriculum.

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PRE-SERVICE EFL TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMMES IN JORDAN: RESPONDING TO CHANGING CIRCUMSTANCES

FOUZA AL-NAIMI

Abstract: *The need for well trained teachers of English has grown sharply with the increasing importance of English as a Foreign/Second language in Jordan where the acquisition of the language is no longer confined to the social and academic lite. This paper delineates the three major sources of EFL teachers in Jordan, namely, Community Colleges, University English Departments and University Education Departments, and attempts to describe, and critically survey each of these programmes. Pre-service programmes are viewed in this paper to be more promising than the other programmes described here, more able to adjust to changing needs of the English teacher in Jordan, more flexible and more able to create new courses in the light of the latest research by both encouraging research inside Jordan and also by continuing to send some of the most able students to study for higher degrees overseas. What clearly emerges from this article is that there is a continual search in Jordan for improving the certification of qualified teachers of English. This search is unending, and it is confidently predicted that innovation will be part of future responses to staffing and expanding English courses in the schools.*

Introduction

*S*ince the political independence of Jordan in 1946, English has grown in importance as a school subject, with its acquisition no longer being confined to the social and academic lite. Consequently, the need for well-trained teachers, skilled in the latest teaching methods, is also growing.

There are three major sources of EFL teachers in Jordan; namely Community Colleges, University English Departments and University Education departments. What follows is a descriptive and critical survey of each of these programmes.

Community colleges

A community college currently is a two year post-secondary educational institution offering both education and training for secondary school graduates,

preparing them for four main professional areas, namely, Teaching, Engineering, Business and Medicine. In 1980, these colleges replaced the traditional Teacher Training Institutes (TTIs). Before describing the curriculum programme in the Community Colleges, it is worth looking at the programmes in the TTIs which had supplied the largest number of teachers in general and teachers of English in particular.

Teacher training University-level education in Jordan expanded in line with general socio-economic development. National universities were established in Amman in 1962, Yarmouk in Irbid in 1976, Muta in Kerak in 1984, Al-Albayt University in 1991, Al-Hashimiyya, Mafraq in 1994. Before this, TTIs had offered the highest education in the country and used to attract the best secondary school graduates. TTI graduates used to and still constitute the majority of EFL teachers in the country. With most students now graduating from universities, graduates are assigned to teach in the post-compulsory Secondary Cycle while the graduates of TTIs are assigned to teach in the Pre-Secondary Compulsory Cycle.

The curriculum of the TTIs for those specialising in English required the trainee to take 79 credit hours over two years of which only 28 credit hours were allocated to English. These 28 hours included Language, Linguistics, Literature and Methodology. Of these, 14 hours were given to language skills, 2 hours to linguistics (phonology), 3 hours to literature, 4 hours to Methodology and 6 hours to Teaching Practice. The other 50 hours of the programme were allocated to general education and specific education courses which included courses on Islamic Religion (4 hours), Arabic (6 hours), Art Education (3 hours), Social Studies and Humanities (3 hours), Mathematics (3 hours), Science (3 hours), Physical Education (4 hours), Introduction to Education (2 hours), Educational Psychology (3 hours), Developmental Psychology (2 hours), Curriculum and General Methods (4 hours), Measurement and Evaluation (3 hours), Audio-Visual Aids (3 hours), Class Management and the Single Teacher School (2 hours).

Other than the 28 hours allocated to English, the rest of the courses were taught in Arabic, the native language.

There has been a consensus in the literature of teacher training in the Jordanian context that TTI graduates suffer mainly from a poor command of the language they have been trained to teach: (Salih, 1980; Shaker, 1982). The programme at TTIs was judged by the Ministry of Higher Education to have fallen short of realising the objectives of EFL teacher training. The widely held view that the competence of the TTI graduate lags behind what is expected from a teacher of English has often been put forward as a reason for the low level of a school students achievement in English as a spoken language (Nasr, 1967; Mukattash,

1978; Shaker, 1980; Awwad, 1980; Colbruth, 1980). Evidence drawn from proficiency testing of those graduates has consistently shown their poor command of the language. To give an indication of their level of proficiency in English, Shaker (1980) administered the Michigan Test of English Proficiency – a standardised test of English language proficiency normally given to foreign students intending to pursue an academic degree at American universities – to a sample of 119 teacher trainees at the end of their fourth semester. The average mean score of the sample was 41.2. According to the norms of the test, a minimum score of 82 is required before a student can take a regular academic load in the freshman year of an American University. The testing in 1980 corroborated the results of the same kind of testing conducted in 1966 by Nasr and in 1977 by Mukattash.

A programme associated with TTIs and which has its place in the educational planning for the country in the area of teacher training led to a diploma and was taught in the CITTI (Certification and In-service Teacher Training Institute). A comprehensive description of EFL teacher training in Jordan would be incomplete without the inclusion of this programme because it has produced a high percentage of teachers over the years. CITTI came into existence because of necessity after the 1967 Arab-Israeli war when there was an influx of tens of thousands of students to Jordan and there was an acute shortage of trained teachers, so that the Ministry of Education had to hire thousands of untrained teachers. By 1970-71, the Ministry had employed 6500 unqualified and untrained teachers. It sought the help of two international organisations, namely, the Ford Foundation and UNICEF. These funded the establishment of CITTI and provided the necessary training for the unqualified teachers while they continued in their full-time employment.

The CITTI curriculum was modelled upon that of the TTIs. The course components remained the same and only some minor modifications were made so that the trainees could find the necessary time to study without interfering with their full-time employment. The number of credits was exactly the same as in the TTIs. The CITTI training period lasted four semesters and two summer sessions. During the four semesters, the work took the form of self study carried out at home, and was supplemented by a weekly seminar led by the subject specialist to ensure the mastery of the material through explanation, discussion and testing. In the summer sessions, the trainee had to attend the Institute for six hours a day, six days a week, when instruction adhered closely to the traditional academic TTI format of lectures, demonstration classes, discussion and laboratory sessions. The assessment of CITTI graduates by researchers such as Duwaik (1980) and Abulfattaah (1980) consistently indicated that graduates suffered from a poor command of English and that they have had minimal training in EFL. Apparently,

little had changed in more than a decade, the pattern identified by Nasr (1967) still persisting.

1980 was a turning point in the history of TTIs. They were transformed into Community Colleges and their programmes started to change gradually from teacher training to professional training in general in order to recruit a wider range of student to make up for the loss of the highest students who were getting places in the new universities. The Teaching Profession became one field of specialisation in these colleges alongside other specialisations. With the fast growth of university education, Community Colleges had long since lost the glamour of the early TTIs and had started to attract only less qualified high school graduates who had failed to secure university admission in or outside Jordan. The teaching profession in general was also becoming much less attractive financially than it had been vis—vis other occupations. With the absence of the better candidates for EFL teaching, diminishing financial reward for teaching and a decreasing in the demand for EFL Community College graduates, the Ministry of Higher Education introduced a reform which arguably ought to have been taken twenty years earlier. It proposed a radical reform to upgrade the English language proficiency of the graduates. The tenor of the new wave of change was very well attested to in the first two assumptions of the Ministry of Higher Educations (1980:1) *English Language Curriculum for English Specialization in Community Colleges*, which states:

> A high level of language proficiency is a prerequisite for language teaching.
> Students who join the Community Colleges have been exposed to basic and intermediate levels of English. Nevertheless, their actual command of the language does not meet the expectations of the compulsory school curricula. This makes it necessary to reinforce the material previously covered in the form of remedial work.

The English component started with an orientation course. The Ministry of Higher Education (1985) maintained that this was allotted a minimum of 10 class hours a week, but a college may at its discretion allot more time and/or extend the course to the second semester. The course aims at upgrading the level of the student teachers English language proficiency to enable them to follow and successfully complete the requirements of their specialisation. The Ministry (1985:7) recommended that 5 periods a week be given to general language work (reading and structure), 2 periods to writing, 2 periods to oral skills and 1 period to extensive reading. It shows realism when it states that:

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It is of crucial importance that the student teachers see the course as a new beginning rather as a continuation of their previous learning experience, which by and large was an experience in failing to master foreign language skills. We should therefore avoid: lecturing on the part of the teacher domination of class time by the teacher grammatical [sic] explanation a situation where the teacher asks questions and only the students answer them. Instead, most of the class time should be occupied by activities carried out by the students, with the teacher as guide and facilitator of learning.

The thinking of the Ministry of Higher Education in the plan to reform the EFL curriculum was never translated into practical steps for implementation. The Orientation Course which was supposed to be 10 hours a week in the first semester has never been implemented in any of the colleges for various reasons, the most important of which has been the controversy over whether it should be a credited or a non-credit course. The logistics of implementation impeded the plan and what went on was a return to a modification of the old programme which included 32 hours for English, to be taught in English, and 32 hours of general education to be taught in Arabic. Specifically, the new programme included 32 credit hours of English, 24 credit hours of Education and 8 hours of General Education.

The English component consisted of 16 courses, each worth 2 credit hours. These were: Reading and Comprehension (1), Reading and Comprehension (2), Grammar (1), Grammar (2), Pronunciation and Speech, Study Skills, Writing (1), Writing (2), Reading and writing, Methodology (1), Methodology (2), Oral Comprehension and expression, Literature, Language and Linguistics (1), Language and Linguistics (2,) Classroom Oral Skills.

24 credit hours were divided into two groups of 12 credit. One group included an introduction to education, curriculum and instruction, developmental psychology, educational psychology, educational technology, measurement and evaluation, administration and supervision, theoretical education and practicum. Students chose four courses from this range. The other group included social psychology, principles of descriptive statistics, environmental education, contemporary problems, physical education and first aid, general science, Arabic language, professional ethics, problems of the Arab world, and art education. Students chose four courses from this range.

The proposed language component of the curriculum represents a reaction to earlier criticisms and address the need for teachers of English to have English language proficiency levels. However, the programme is far from realistic in the area of English literature and urgently needs more emphasis (on the study of English literature), for example, English language through literary texts even in

the widest definition of literature. The curriculum is also unrealistic in its objectives for the literature component (one course, 2 credit hours) in which it is stated that the course aims at reading and enjoying literary works; understanding the characteristics of the main literary genres, in particular novel and drama; appreciating, analysing and evaluating literary works; and acquiring a reasonable knowledge of western thought and culture as reflected in literary works. All this is expected through reading one twentieth century novel and one twentieth century play.

The improvement in the attainment standards of the graduates of this programme, if there was any, was not felt in the field. In fact, systematic evaluation of the proficiency levels of the graduates tended to corroborate the results of the earlier studies. Obeidat (1985) studied samples of trainees from six government and private community colleges and concluded that, especially in the case of the government college trainees, performance on the tests was poor (average mean score was 59 on a test whose passing grade is 60). Obeidat attributed these results to the lack of interest and motivation on the part of the trainee resulting from dissatisfaction with the teaching profession.

The curriculum of the English specialisation course in the Community Colleges was subjected to a re-examination in 1988 and was further modified in order to implement some of the earlier thinking of the Ministry of Higher Education. The change was directed along the lines of the university departments of English; and this will be discussed later. The education content, including some of the most important components of the EFL curriculum, namely the EFL methodology courses, was eradicated from the syllabus and replaced by two courses in English literature, because this was felt to be more helpful to the intending teachers. General education courses in Arabic were reduced to minimum (10 credit hours in the program). New courses in translation were introduced and some of the general courses which had been taught in Arabic were than offered in English.

The overall result is a programme of 67 credit hours, 57 of which are in English. The 57 credits are made up as follows: General English (3 hours), Listening Comprehension 1 (3 hours), Listening Comprehension 2 (3 hours), Reading 1 (3 hours), Reading 2 (3 hours), Writing 1 (3 hours), Writing 2 (3 hours), Grammar 1 (3 hours), Grammar 2 (2 hours), Oral Skills 1 (3 hours), Oral Skills 2 (3 hours), Study Skills (2 hours), Introduction to linguistics (3 hours), Translation from English into Arabic (2 hours), Translation from Arabic into English (3 hours), Literary appreciation (3 hours), Fiction (3 hours), Drama (3 hours), Introduction to Arabic-Islamic Culture (3 hours), Selected Readings in Western Civilisation (3 hours).

The only courses taught in Arabic are: Studies in Arabic and Islamic Thought (3 hours), Development in the Arab World (3 hours), Arabic Language (3 hours), Physical Education (1 hour).

There is no doubt that this programme is much more responsive to the language proficiency needs of the prospective EFL teacher. There are extensive opportunities to build up this proficiency. The language component is well supplemented by three literature courses. However, it is very difficult to explain the absence of the two methodology courses and the teaching practice. Apparently, the explanation lies in the Community Colleges being more concerned with offering professional training in its widest sense than with the preparation of teachers alone. The trainee in English specialisation at a Community College does not have to go into teaching, and can go into any other profession which needs this kind of command of English.

The Ministry of Education in Jordan no longer has a great need of teachers of English graduating from two year training programmes, because of the availability of university graduates in the market. Community Colleges are now in decline, and they have lost their earlier attraction. This is because of the availability of places in more prestigious (not necessarily more needed or more efficient) institutions. At one time, the national universities could take only a few thousand from the 30,000 to 40,000 of high school graduates. Those who could not secure university admission enrolled in Community Colleges. For that reason, the private sector was able to expand and no less than 30 private community colleges sprang in the major cities in the country. These colleges flourished in terms of student enrollment and financial profits. The Jordanian government in the very early 1990s allowed the establishment of private profit-making universities. Funded by educational investment companies and motivated by their being relatively lucrative businesses, these universities attracted students from the community colleges. The first private university started taking students in 1990. There are currently ten private universities in the country, charging very high fees almost five to six times higher than the government universities. Parents in Jordan, for mainly social and economic reasons, tend to go out of their way to secure university education for their children. The only way to university education for those not admitted to governmental universities is to pay the high fees and enrol in a private university.

University departments of English language and literature

The Jordanian universities are now the main source of teachers in the country. Two programmes in Jordanian universities will be discussed in this section. The first is the traditional programme in English language and literature offered in the Departments of English, and the second is a teacher education programme named the field specialist, offered jointly by the departments of education and English

language and literature. To make this study comprehensive, a third programme will also be discussed, namely the in-service training programme along the lines of the field specialist, entitled Teacher Qualification Programme. This programme will be considered in a similar fashion to that of CITTI discussed earlier.

The main division and distribution of hours over the four years of study and the content areas of the courses offered are described. These programmes at different universities are not exactly the same, but, in their design, they follow the same principles and the differences between them are minor. Some of the more recent private universities have made further attempts to change more substantively, but change is difficult because the body responsible for accreditation is the Ministry of Higher Education, as well as its personnel, are a product of state universities. This description applies to the programmes in both the 5 national universities, and the 8 private Universities.

The Bachelor of Arts degree in English language and literature (Department of English, Yarmouk University, 1995) requires the completion of 132 credit hours, of which 96 hours in English are for single majors and 75 hours in English for double majors, i.e.: a major in English and a minor in another field. The other 36 hours are divided equally between university requirements and college requirements. University requirements are specified by the University Council and the College requirements are determined by the College Council. The 18 credit hour University requirements include 9 compulsory hours in English, Arabic, and Military Sciences, and 9 elective hours chosen from groups of courses offered by colleges other than the College of Arts (i.e. the undergraduate section of the university). The college requirements include courses in the history of Jordan and the Arab World, Arabic and Islamic culture Art and Sociology.

The English part of the programme consists of three main components:

1. The language component. This consists of a number of courses in general communication skills, traditional grammar of English, writing at the paragraph and then essay levels, translation from English into Arabic and translation from Arabic into English.

2. The Literature component. This is the most important component in terms of the number of the courses offered in the programme. This has been designed to cover English literature in its different periods and genres, from Chaucer to the present. The list of courses at Yarmouk University for example (Yarmouk University Catalogue 1995:165-168) includes such course titles as Introduction to the Study of Literature, Survey of British Literature, Survey of American Literature, Introduction to Critical literary theory, Rise of British Prose through Austin, British Prose 1830-1930, Modern American Prose,

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Medieval English Poetry, Poetry from the Beginnings till 1798, English Poetry from the Romantic Period to the Present, Shakespeare and the Renaissance Drama, Modern British and American Drama, Contemporary Anglo-American Prose, Literature in Translation, Studies in Genre (A. the short story, B. the epic, C. the lyric, D. the essay, and E. the tragedy), Major Author, Special Topic in Literature and Research in Literature.

3. The Linguistics Component. More Jordanians graduate in Linguistics from American and British universities, (given the absence of a Department of Linguistics in the country), so more courses are finding their way out the programme. These courses include Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics, Transformational syntax, language Planning, Semantics, Phonetics and Phonology and Advanced Phonetics.

Pratt (1982) maintained that the structure of the Departments of English Language and Literature in Jordanian universities – whether government or private – had been either inherited or partly borrowed. When the first such department in the Arab world was established at King Fahad University in Cairo in 1908, it was modelled upon departments in British universities where the literature component stood out as the main thrust. When other departments in other Arab in countries were established, the Egyptian model was imitated. These departments have hardly changed in their basic structure in other than the addition of the linguistics component.

A critical examination of the curriculum shows imbalances, false assumptions and lack of direction. The aspect of training which is most needed is the language component and yet this component is the weakest in the curriculum. In an international conference commemorating the twentieth anniversary of the establishment of the department of English language and literature at the University of Jordan in Amman, Ibrahim (1983:23) describes this component as follows.

> Although most of our students are deficient in the basic language skills when they join the department, we have not yet succeeded in offering them an integrated set of language courses to improve their proficiency significantly. ... But nothing is offered to help them become better and more fluent speakers of English.

> To my mind, the language component is the weakest of our three components. It is the component in which contradictions in the realities of our situation can be seen most clearly. Since language is,

among other things, a tool and a key, it is unrealistic for us to expect any meaningful teaching or learning to take place in the other two components if the students are deficient in basic language skills.

The weak language component may account for the inability of the student to deal with the institutionalised English literature syllabus. The language component is the most needed because of the ever-increasing role of English in Jordan and the Arab world. As El-Mowafy (1983:11) put it in the same seminar,

In the past, the Arabs needed the English language because of their special political relation with Britain. Now they need it even more not only because it is the language of the British and the English speaking world but because it has become a lingua franca indispensable in conducting diplomacy, business and other practical transactions with the whole world. Although many educational institutions, other than university ones, have proved very successful in providing their students with basic skills of the English language, it is still conceded that one of the primary functions of a university department of English is to improve its students' standard of English.

The linguistics component which has been growing in size has also been questioned. Ibrahim (1983) maintains that it is incongruous and the only reason for its placement in the department of English is because no Arab university has created a free-standing department of linguistics, so graduates of linguistics department are automatically placed in the department of English. Zughoul (1983) points out that a good training in linguistics is no substitute for training in language teaching. In fact a number of linguists in the departments of English are neither trained nor motivated to be language teachers.

There has been no systematic follow-up or evaluation of the graduates of the department of English who are becoming the main source of pre-serve teachers for the schools in Jordan and other Arab countries. The scanty research evidence available consistently indicate that the graduates competence in the language on average leaves much to be desired. Ibrahim (1983:25) evaluates those graduates as follows:

I should think that most of us are not totally happy with the quality of English our graduates leave us. We are constantly subjected to embarrassment when we are asked by the principal of a private school or a business manager to recommend to him one of

our graduates, with the understanding that the graduate should have a good command of English for the job waiting him or her. There have been cases when in all honesty, I could not recommend any of our graduates for that year.

Motivated and inspired by some systematic follow-up studies of university graduates conducted in America, Abu-Hamdia informally solicited the views of some of the employers of the graduates of the department of English at the University of Jordan. He had in mind the question of how the English departments curriculum could be modified to meet the needs of the graduates without prejudice to what constitutes the core of an English department. His conclusion is revealing.

In this survey, no divergence of views was discerned as to the inadequacy of the preparation of English Department students in the communicative skills, both written and oral called for by the job requirements (to many of us this sounds like stating the obvious). Other deficiencies that emerged from the survey reveal that the students on the whole 1) are instructor dependent...2) compartmentalise course content and skills with little integration...3) are textbook dependent...4) do not develop an awareness and functional use of the differences between language varieties, confusing spoken and written, formal and informal and standard and colloquial- on the whole speaking a hybrid quality of English that is attitudinal invariant to them.

These conclusions were corroborated by Bader (1990) and Saleh (1989).

It is very important to state that, despite fewer than 70% of the graduates of the English departments opting for the teaching profession and a far higher percentage in earlier times joining the educational system in its private and public sectors, an integral component of teacher preparation remains for no good reason completely absent from the curriculum of these departments. The programme has not included any course on TEFL methodology, syllabus design, practice teaching, classroom interaction, language acquisition or the problems of teaching/learning English as a foreign language. When professors in these departments are asked about this, they reveal the attitude that any course of any relevance to pedagogy should fall outside these departments. Even at the time when some students in these departments and mainly those who were on full Ministry of Education scholarships could register for a minor in Education where they took 21 credit hours of education courses, the minor programme in education was completely stopped in order to force students to register for a post-graduate diploma in

education. Interestingly enough, the English major can still take a minor in business or economics.

The curriculum of the English Department in Arab Universities has been a subject of heated debate, especially in relation to the issue of pre-service training for teachers. Evidence about the efficiency of these departments is always based on responses from teachers in schools. This heated debate culminated in a number of conferences in Arab Universities. In 1981 the First National symposium on English Teaching in Egypt was organised by the Center for Developing English Language Teaching at Ain Shams University. The Conference on the *Problems of Teaching English Language and Literature at Arab Universities* was organised by the Department of English at the University of Jordan in 1982. A third conference, entitled *Departments of English in the Arab World: Aims and Policies Revisited,* was called for by the Association of Arab universities and was held at the United Arab Emirates University (1982). Despite this, no change has taken place in these departments and the same issues are continually raised and re-discussed, but recommendations have not been implemented.

The Education-English in-service and pre-serve field teacher programmes

The reason the Education-English in-service programme is described first is because this programme serves as a nucleus and as a base for the development of the pre-serve Field Teacher programme.

In its attempts to upgrade the qualifications of teachers in service, the Ministry of Higher Education started a massive in-service training programme in collaboration with the Jordanian national universities in 1985. The programme has aimed at re-training thousands of teachers and accrediting this training in fulfillment of the requirements of a Bachelor of Education degree from the national universities. This re-training includes teachers of all school subjects and one of these subjects is English. In its original plan, the programme targeted teachers who graduated from the two year Teacher Training Institutes and the Community Colleges. Teachers who were selected attended evening or late afternoon classes held in the community colleges in the beginning stages of the programme and later in universities. The candidates did not have to pay any tuition fees. Upon the completion of the programme, the teachers status was re-considered in the light of the new qualification. Moreover, the giving of a university degree itself is a prime motivation for teachers because Jordanian society values highly a university education, and more specifically a university degree. The programme has another attractive and motivating feature; it transfers

48 credit hours from the work completed at the Teacher Training Institute or a Community College and counts them towards the degree, asking the candidate to complete a further 84 credit hours to get the B.Ed. degree. Normally, the admission policy in Jordanian universities does not allow TTI or Community College graduates to continue their education at university level because university admission is wholly based on the scores of the candidate in the General Secondary School Examination (Tawjihi). In other words, if TTI or Community College graduates want to continue their education at the university, they will have to compete with high school graduates based on their own high school average attainment and if they are admitted they have to start as freshman students from scratch. This is why the new B.Ed programme is very attractive to the serving qualified but non-graduated teachers.

The overall requirements for the B.Ed programme is 132 credit hours, 48 of which will have been completed in the TTI or Community College. The trainee has to complete the remaining 84 hours according to the Study Plan (Department of Education, 1988) by studying three main groups of courses.

1. The requirements for the Academic Specialisation (84 credit hours) are (i) English language, (ii) English literature and (iii) Linguistics. The language component, (as opposed to the programme of the department of English), is the dominant component. It includes courses in reading comprehension, listening comprehension, speaking, advanced reading, vocabulary building, English grammar, functional grammar, paragraph and essay writing, pronunciation and expression, translation and stylistics. The literature component consists of four courses in the novel, poetry, drama, and the short story in addition to a course in literary criticism. The linguistics component is similar to that in the department of English and includes courses on introduction to linguistics, semantics, discourse analysis, contrastive linguistics, morphology and syntax.

2. The educational component (9 credit hours) includes three courses in theoretical teaching methodology, syllabus design and theories of learning. Apparently, no evaluation of the programme or the graduates of this programme has been made or published. The only feedback available to the author was obtained from some faculty members who taught the programme. The programme looks much better than that of the department of English in that it seems to cater for the actual pedagogical needs of a school teacher. The language component is duly emphasised, students are familiarised with the methods of teaching, and they have field experience. The literature component supports the language component and does not dominate it. On the whole, the programme seems to address the professional needs of teachers who want make a career in the teaching of English as a foreign language in Jordan.

Has the programme been achieving its objectives? It would appear to be achieving these objectives better and better with time. There was a consensus among those who have been teaching the programme that the early groups of trainees had not been the best of candidates. They had been old in terms of age (40-50), had had families and children, had been less motivated, and had been more interested in paper qualifications than in doing serious hard work. At a later stage the percentage of younger, more energetic and more highly motivated candidates achieved a sharp increase in overall attainment level. The quality showed much improvement. Eight of these trainees were interviewed, and they completed questionnaire. From discussions with them, it seemed that 50% of those finishing the programme this year are impressive both in their language proficiency and awareness of major practical issues in EFL methodology and classroom interaction. The training of that generation is almost completed and the new groups are younger and more enthusiastic.

The Education-English pre-service B.Ed. (Field teacher programme)

Another Ministry of Education plan, in cooperation with the Ministry of Higher Education and the national universities, is entitled the Field Teacher. Its major aim is to graduate professional teachers who have mastered the content area and have been trained in teaching it. The training is provided by the specialised (subject content) department and the department of education. Some subjects have been selected as major areas in the first phase of this project and these include Arabic, English, Fine Arts Sciences and Computers. The programme was started in the academic year 1992/93 and the first cohort will graduate in late 1996/1997.

The B.Ed pre-service programme is very similar to the in-service programme. It is exactly the same in its offering in the area of specialisation. The requirements amount to 142 credit hours divided into three main components (Department of Education, Yarmouk University 1994). These are (i) the University requirements (18 credit hours), 9 of which are obligatory (English, Arabic and general science), while 9 are electives, chosen from different colleges of the university; (ii) English, the requirements for academic specialisation, with 75 credit hours including courses in language literature and linguistics. The language component is given due emphasis and dominates the other two components. These requirements are the same as those of the in-service programme and they have been described in detail in the previous section; (iii) The educational component of the programme of 39 credit hours is offered by the college of education. This component, in addition to the structure of the syllabus of English, differentiates the English B.Ed

pre-service programme from that of BA in English language and literature. It also differentiates the pre-service programme from the in-service programme where it is eliminated on the assumption that in-service teachers have covered this component in the Teacher Training Institutes and Community Colleges. This part of the curriculum consists of 21 obligatory hours in basic Education, 6 hours in Methodology, and 12 hours of Education to be elected from a group of Education courses. The first category (21 obligatory hours) includes courses in Practicum, Curriculum Planning and Development, Production of Audio-Visual Aids, Introduction to Educational Psychology, Teen-Age Psychology, Principles of Educational Measurement and Evaluation. Two courses in methodology are included in the second category: Methods of teaching English as a Foreign Language 1 (Theoretical) and Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language 2 (Practical). The category of electives includes 12 hours to be selected from Philosophical and Social Foundations of Education, the Educational System in Jordan, Computers in Education, Environmental Education, Islamic Educational Thought, Introduction to Advising and Counselling, Behaviour Modification, General Teaching Methodology, and Classroom Management.

Since the first graduates of the pre-service B.Ed. programme will not appear till the end of 1996, the field teacher programme has not been evaluated and it is unlikely that it is going to be so in the near future because there has been no systematic evaluation of any of the earlier teacher training programmes for sometime. However, based on the writers first hand experience at the time of the field work being conducted with a number of students and staff members in the programme at Yarmouk University, it can be ascertained that the field teacher pre-service training programme in English as a foreign language is promising indeed, and it is likely to prove to be far superior to any other teacher training programme the Ministry of Education or the Ministry of Higher Education have ever tried.

This promise is due to a number of very strong basic features that other programmes have never incorporated. Most important among these strong features are:

1. The trainees potential, attitudes and motivation. The candidates in this programme, are young high school graduates with very high academic grades in Tawjihi. The admission of the student to this programme is subject to the admission policy of the Jordanian national universities which is based on a stratified competitive system wholly based on the grades obtained in tawjihi. In fact, in comparison with those admitted to Community Colleges, for example, the trainees in the field teacher programme form the other extreme end of the scale. Those trainees have very good general potential. They seem to be motivated and they seem to develop a positive attitude towards the teaching

profession. They are psychologically prepared to become teachers and they see the relevance of the courses offered. The trainee in the pre-service programme offered by the department of English may consider teaching as career option, but may be more willing in due course to take a job other than teaching.

2. The curriculum of the field teacher pre-service programme is far superior to any other programme tried earlier. An critical look at the curriculum (Department of Education 1994) shows that, in contrast to the pre-service programme offered by the departments of English, the components are much more balanced, logical and potentially fruitful as critical look at the course offerings shows real tendencies towards building proficiency in the language before the student is asked to consider institutionalised literature syllabus. The linguistics component seems to be more responsive to the needs of the trainee rather than a reflection of what the faculty members in the department want to teach.

3. An Education component is completely absent from the traditional pre-service programme offered by the departments of English. The Education component includes an introduction to almost all that a trainee needs in order to build up professional competence as a prospective teacher of English as a Foreign language in Jordan. The facilities at the College of Education allow for the realisation of these objectives. With funding of educational projects through loans from the World Bank, Jordanian universities have been able to build spacious modern buildings in the colleges of Education furnish than with impressive facilities.

For these reasons, the field teacher pre-service programme would seem to be more promising than the other programmes described here, more able to adjust to changing needs of the English teacher in Jordan, and more flexible and more able to create new courses in the light of the latest research by both encouraging research inside Jordan and also by continuing to send some of the most able students to study for higher degrees overseas. There has not been space in the article to explore a widely held view in Jordan that teachers of English are more likely than teachers of other subjects to use more modern, less didactic teaching methods, or to consider why this might be so since they follow few courses in EFL teaching as such and undertake Educational and professional studies alongside students training to be teachers of other subjects. What clearly emerges from this article is that there is a continual search in Jordan for improving the certification of qualified teachers of English. This search is unending, and it is confidently predicted that innovation will be part of future responses to staffing an expanding range of English courses in the schools.

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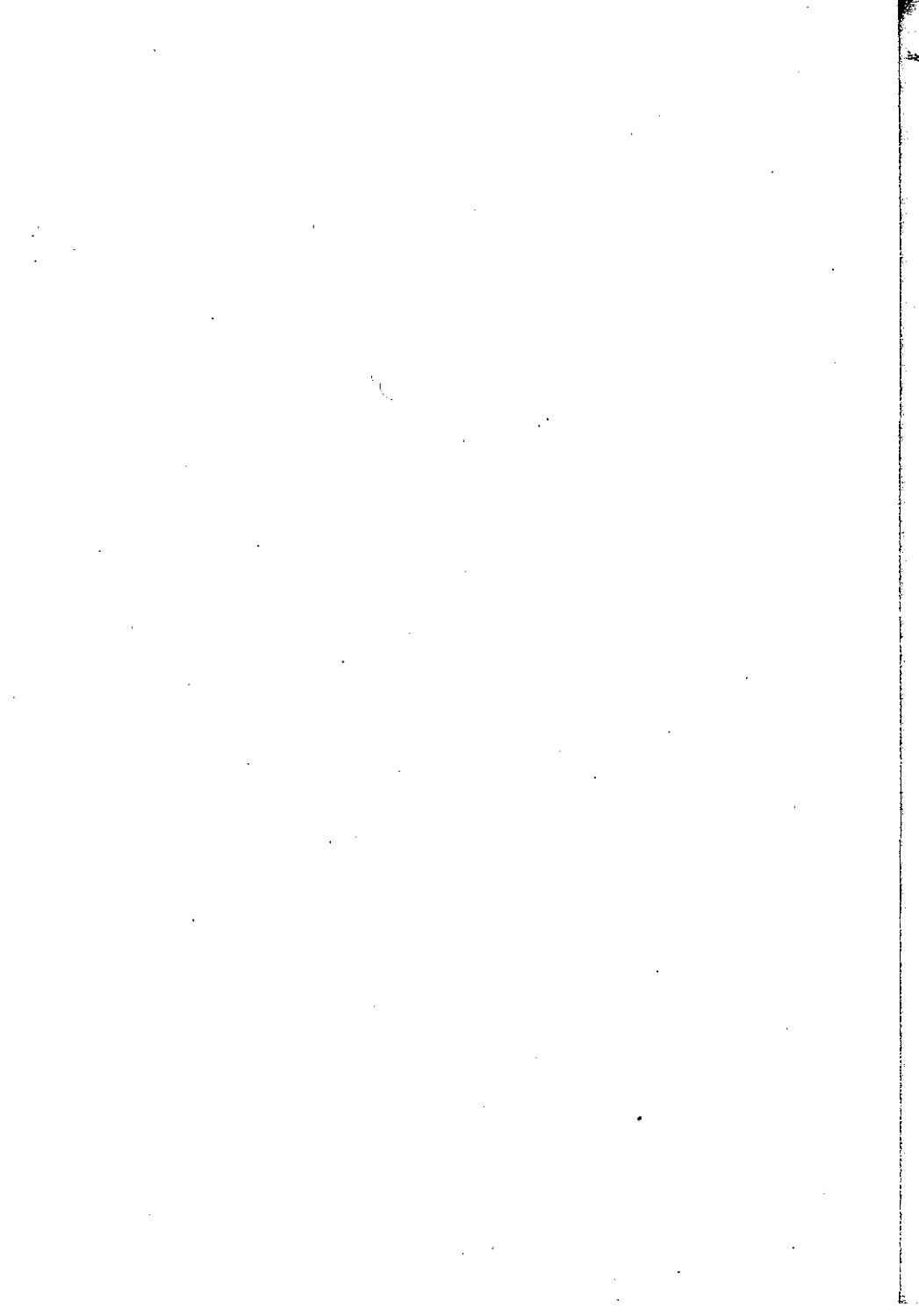
AUTHENTIC EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP FOR 21ST CENTURY MALTA: BREAKING THE BONDS OF DEPENDENCY

CHRISTOPHER BEZZINA

> *'Life is like a path you beat while you walk it'*
> – Antonio Machado

Abstract – *Currently educational leadership in Malta is undergoing a radical transformation at both systems and school level. The Maltese education authorities are decentralising a number of responsibilities to the school site. This paper argues that whilst creating the self-managing school is the way forward to improve the quality of education there is doubt as to what leadership model, if any, central authorities are trying to institutionalise at both systems and school level. It is argued that central authorities need to project a clear vision which will help schools establish a professional culture which offers choice, authority and responsibility. Whilst the changes that await us call for adaptive and technical challenges, a claim is made for a focus on the human side of management. The paper highlights the importance of principle-centred leadership, a leadership which finds its source in the intellect, heart, mind and souls of individuals and one which is sustained through meaningful relationships. Educational managers need to be given opportunities to develop as persons with special focus on areas like learning, creativity, values, empowerment and collegiality.*

Introduction

*I*n numerous research studies, conducted in recent years in a variety of cultures, leaders and others who were asked to identify factors/characteristics of effective leaders, point out qualities such as honesty, integrity, credibility, trust, dependability and straightforwardness (Kouzes and Posner, 1991; Cooper and Sawaf, 1997). The search for authenticity, integrity and trust in and among members within institutions is very much a reality (Bhindi and Duignan, 1997; Duignan, 1998). As Duignan (1998: 20) points out 'authenticity in leadership calls for a radical shift away from much of the traditional, conventional wisdom about leadership'.

'We see that people are not just resources or assets, not just economic, social, and psychological beings. They are also spiritual beings; they want meaning, a sense of doing something that matters. People do not want to work for a cause with little meaning, even though it taps their mental capacities to their fullest. There must be purposes that lift them, and bring them to their highest selves.'

(Covey 1992: 178-9)

This quote highlights the importance of principle-centred leadership, a leadership which has its source in the intellect, heart, mind and souls of individuals and is sustained through meaningful relationships. At the same time it illustrates some of the central ingredients behind the type of educational leadership needed in Malta or any country for that matter to act as a driving force which can spur us on through the next millennium. The paradigm shift that is taking place is one which focuses on the whole person, on people who want to be seen as having an important part to play in the field of educational development in their respective institutions. They are therefore searching to give meaning to their existence as individuals (Duignan, 1998) and as part of the learning community (Fullan, 1995; Keefe and Howard, 1997; Sackney, 1998; Sergiovanni, 1996).

Covey's quote also highlights that leadership and how it is defined and practised very much depends on: the cultural conditions in which we work at micro and macro level; the field we are dealing with; the context in which it has developed over the years, hence its prehistory; the nature of its constituents; the issues involved; the agendas and predispositions of our leaders and policy makers; and the unique personalities which make up our organisations at the systems and school level.

The concept of leadership has to be understood within this wider context if countries/institutions want to make leadership not only directly meaningful but relevant to people's lives.

It is within this context that this paper is written. It is based on research and professional work I have conducted in the field of educational leadership and management over the past twelve years. As we approach the next millennium, the big question which preoccupies many an educator is what mindset and type of leadership is necessary to help us break from the current bonds of dependency, to coin Fullan's (1998) term, and therefore lead the country forward.

The context

Current initiatives show a move by central authorities toward greater decentralisation to the school site. The latest initiatives involve all state primary and secondary schools who are being encouraged to develop draft school

development plans. Such a move seems to express the view that school improvement can be brought about by concentrating development efforts on the school, hence seeing the school as the major unit of change in the education system.

Such a conceptualisation provides an alternative view to the centralised, prescriptive model of school improvement that state schools have been used to. In Malta state schools are working within a system which is hierarchical, centralised and bureaucratic. As a result, teachers have grown weary through disillusionment and stress (Bezzina, 1995; Borg and Falzon, 1989; Farrugia, 1986). Teachers constantly find themselves sandwiched between a belief in democracy and participation on the one hand, and the daily experiencing of a lack of structures to function as decision-makers. Schools have never been given the opportunity to develop into vital places of learning, into sites of professional inquiry and reflective practice (Bezzina, 1997, 1998).

Redressing this situation in Malta will not be easy. Indeed, it will be extraordinarily difficult. Present conditions and circumstances of schools could not have been planned to be more antithetical to their becoming centres of inquiry and change. Among the worst of these conditions are: isolation of educators (both teachers and school administrators) from one another; the fragmentation of the school day into separate subject matters; the apportionment of specific time per subject; the untenable ratio of students to teachers; the lack of time for genuine reflection, sharing and critical inquiry amongst teachers.

Efforts to improve the effectiveness of schools cannot be intelligently directed without understanding the dynamics of schools: the actions and influences of teachers, students, department officials, parents, community members, the curriculum, and the ways in which these influences operate.

The present initiatives, although undertaken at central level, tend to lack the necessary values, features and indeed the sense of mission, which brings forth with it that burning desire to achieve stated goals. We are facing a wave of reforms which require a careful re-examination of the concepts of power and authority. Leadership and management need to be redefined and a clear shift away from the traditional hierarchical control mechanisms manifested. However, there is no indication as to how this is going to take place, if at all. What is lacking is a strong and clear vision which is especially needed in times of change (MEU, 1998b).

As Senge (1990: 9) points out:

'If any one idea about leadership has inspired organisations for thousands of years, it is the capacity to hold a shared picture of the future we seek to create. One is hard-pressed to think of any organisation that has sustained some measure of greatness in the absence of goals, values, and missions that become deeply shared throughout the organisation.'

Recent initiatives have placed leadership, its basis and function, under close scrutiny. Whereas Bhindi and Duignan (1997: 118) speak of 'environmental complexities and turbulence' as the main reasons behind the need to review areas like leadership, organisational structures, culture and management practice, in Malta we are experiencing the same very much due to the varied initiatives being introduced by the education authorities. These initiatives are raising concern in education circles that central authorities lack a vision and a strategic plan which reflects the realities facing Maltese schools. Thus, schools are having to address central initiatives, laudable as they may seem, without knowing where they are going and paradoxically, whether or not they will be allowed to get there by the same central authorities. We are faced with a system which is decentralising 'certain' responsibilities to the school site. As a result it is slowly having to loosen its grip over schools – a grip which it has enjoyed for a considerable number of years – but at the same time not wanting to lose ultimate power and control (Bezzina, 1998).

This concern is well brought out in a recent study the author has been involved in (MEU, 1998a, 1998b). This extensive study aimed, amongst other things, to examine the organisational and management structure of the Education Division; to examine the communication process between the Division and schools; to examine the Division's role toward further decentralisation to schools, and to make recommendations for improvements in school management and administration.

Briefly, this study highlighted the concerns, especially of those in the schools, that school administrators still have to follow the dictates of the Education Division, thus ignoring the unique position of the school as an agent of reform. They argue that schools lack the necessary support from the Division. They feel that the school management team and the Division were not adequately prepared for their change in roles. It is important that the role of the Division complements the changes occurring in school management. In order to meet the challenges involved in such a complex undertaking, the Division needs highly developed management and administration skills. The Division must focus on team efforts which in themselves will bring about the synergy which is required (MEU, 1998b).

A dependency culture

In my opinion educational reform in Malta has been littered with what Fullan (1998: 10) describes as 'pockets of innovation' with schools and their members mainly on the receiving end. The move toward decentralisation has been sporadic,

fragmented, incoherent and without the necessary visionary framework to keep them going (Bezzina, 1998). And, to complicate matters further, decentralisation practices are creating more demands on schools which are now of a more intrusive quality as school boundaries become more permeable and transparent (Hargreaves and Fullan, 1998; Fullan and Hargreaves, 1996). The relentless pressures of today's complex environment have intensified the overload.

In fact, school administrators feel that educational reform lacks a conceptual framework which defines the way forward. It is crucial for the Education Division to establish the type of centralised and decentralised practices it wants; to create the appropriate structures and provide effective support services. As a consequence, this lack of a strategic direction has major implications in other areas of school administration (MEU, 1998b).

At the same time school leaders, and leaders at central level for that matter, are not being prepared to take up the challenge of decentralisation. Leaders need to be involved in the process and the required training in order for them to create a sense of purpose and enough confidence engendered (Fidler, 1997).

The situation facing the Maltese education authorities is well illustrated by Heifetz and Laurie (1997: 124)

> 'To stay alive, Jack Pritchard had to change his life. Triple bypass surgery and medication could help, the heart surgeon told him, but no technical fix could release Pritchard from his own responsibility for changing the habits of a lifetime. He had to stop smoking, improve his diet, get some exercise, and take time to relax, remembering to breathe more deeply each day. Pritchard's doctor could provide sustaining technical expertise and take supportive action, but only Pritchard could adapt his ingrained habits to improve his long-term health. The doctor faced the leadership task of mobilizing the patient to make critical behavioral changes; Jack Pritchard faced the adaptive work of figuring out which specific changes to make and how to incorporate them into his daily life.'

Organisations face challenges similar to the ones that confronted Pritchard and his doctor. They face adaptive challenges. Changes require that we clarify our values, develop new strategies, new ways of thinking and learning. Adaptive work is required especially when our deeply held beliefs are challenged, when ingrained attitudes have to be contested, when particular ways of doing things are questioned.

This is the challenge facing the Maltese education system. Providing

leadership which moves away from a purely authoritative style of administration to a more collaborative style of management is extremely difficult. This is so for at least four main reasons. First, in order to bring about change, or rather to make change possible, those having executive powers need to break a long-standing behaviour pattern of their own, that of dictating what has to be done to all problems as they arise. Solutions cannot remain the prerogative of one but reside in the collective intelligence of members at all levels.

Second, adaptive change is demanding on all those who have to experience it. New roles, new relationships, new values, new behaviours and new approaches to work have to be forged. This is quite a challenge that requires patience, practice and perseverance. And, one also has to accept the fact - for this itself is a challenge - that not everyone is willing to go through these inner changes.

Third, being prepared and willing to address change and development also raises the question of competence. Transforming individuals (administrators at central level, teachers and school administrators) into managers who are willing to address whole school/community issues rather than concentrate on their own current prescribed area(s) is by far a more demanding and difficult task. Maybe nor everyone is capable of fulfilling such a role.

A fourth and final factor is that of ownership. Once responsibilities are delegated to the school site will school administrators be willing to manage their institutions not through a top-down model of administration but through a collaborative style of management? This raises the concern as to how far members are willing to take on responsibilities for determining the vision and way forward for their institutions.

Leading through this period which requires systematic change calls for a number of principles which will guide good practice. The focus of the discussion in the following section in this paper will explore these principles.

Building an educational vision

Education reform and development in particular need a set of core values and a core purpose which can steer it forward in times of change and in times of continuity and stability. What is lacking is that vision which provides guidance about what core to preserve and what future to aim for.

Over the years, research on leadership and management has extolled the centrality of vision as the main ingredient behind effective change (Champy, 1995; Fullan, 1995). Terry (1993: 38) clearly identifies the problems currently facing educational reform in Malta when he states that

'Vision is the heart of leadership because vision transcends political interests, testing the outer limits of the vested views that lock people into parochial perspectives, limit creativity, and prevent the emergence of new cultural and political realities. Vision designs new synergies. Vision challenges everyday, taken-for-granted assumptions by offering new directions and articulating what people feel but lack words to say. Vision speaks the unspeakable, challenges the unchallengeable, and defends the undefendable.'

It is this visionary activity that is lacking at central level. However, as Wheatley (1992) and Bhindi and Duignan (1997) argue, vision depends on the intentionality of those who want to work together and help shape the future. This is a forceful statement which presents challenges at a number of levels: Do individuals at central level desire, let alone want to share their power over decision making? Do they have a clear idea of what type of schools they want for the future? Do they really believe in the self-managing school? Do they believe in a collaborative and collegial style of management? Do the education authorities understand the need to move from administering the education system to leading and managing it? Do school members want to enjoy the benefits and challenge that empowerment brings with it? These are crucial issues that need to be addressed and answered if there is ever going to be a genuine commitment to development and change (Wain et al., 1995). Bhindi and Duignan (1997: 126) illustrate the challenge and at the same time the way forward:

'A challenging task for authentic leaders is to help transform the goodwill, good intentions, good hearts and talents of organizational members into a vision, and a hope for a better future. Nurturing vision as a shared energy field helps instil a sense of community and interdependence in a group or organization, celebrates an awakening of the spirit in each individual and an enhanced sense of spirituality in relationships.'

Core ideology

Collins and Porras (1996: 66) put forward a conceptual framework to define vision: 'a well-conceived vision consists of two major components: core ideology and envisioned future ... Core ideology, the yin ... defines what we stand for and why we exist. Yin is unchanging and complements yang, the envisioned future. The envisioned future is what we aspire to become, to achieve, to create.'

The core ideology defines the character of an organisation. It provides the glue that holds the organisation together as it grows. Any effective vision must embody the core ideology of the organisation, which consists of two distinct parts: core values – a system of guiding principles and tenets; and core purpose, the organisation's most fundamental reason for existence. One's core ideology is discovered by looking inside. Ideology is therefore authentic, not artificial.

Core values

Core values are the essential and enduring tenets of the learning organisation. It is the individuals within the institution which decide for themselves what values they uphold. It is essential for institutions to identify and define the values that are central to them and the way they function. Collins and Porras (1996: 67) put forward an important argument which is also relevant to us in the field of education (which is, in quite a number of countries, becoming more market oriented).

'A company should not change its core values in response to market changes; rather, it should change markets, if necessary, to remain true to its core values.'

There are no universally right set of core values. Usually companies have a few values which stand the test of time. Schools have their own. Figure 1 illustrates some values which can be considered as core to a school or educational institution.

FIGURE 1: Core Values: the essential tenets of a learning organisation

❑ Honesty, trust, integrity
❑ Hardwork, self / collective improvement
❑ Empowerment and creativity
❑ Service
❑ Holism

Core purpose

The core purpose explains the organisation's reason for being. An effective purpose helps to reflect the member's idealistic motivations for being in the organisation and working to fulfil its goals. Members need to have a clear

understanding of their purpose in order to make work meaningful and worth pursuing. These often reflect the type of aims that schools highlight in their prospectus or brochures (see Figure 2).

FIGURE 2: Core Purpose: the reason for being

Some suggestions

❑ To provide a holistic education to children entrusted in our care
❑ To prepare children to live in a multicultural and technological world
❑ To create learning opportunities for all members of the organisation
❑ To be a role model and a tool for social change

Envisioned future

The second component of the vision framework is envisioned future. It consists of two main parts: clear aims and strategies used to achieve the aims/ goals.

Aims

As Maltese state schools embark on developing School Development Plans, school members are being encouraged to articulate, amongst other things, a Mission Statement. This statement states the reason why an organisation is in existence, sets the direction and provides the foundation for planning at all levels of the school. Whitaker and Moses beautifully describes a Mission Statement as 'an inspiring declaration of a compelling dream, accompanied by a clear scenario of how it will be accomplished' (in Lashway, 1997: 2). Fritz (1996) argues that organisations will advance when a clear, widely understood mission creates tension between the real and the ideal, encouraging people to work together.

This unifying effect is important to school settings which are especially entrenched in an 'isolation culture'. The Mission Statement needs to be translated into various aims which school members identify as essential to reach their ideals. The aims no longer belong to specific individuals but belong to the institution as a whole where all members have a role to play. For some, even locally, the development of the Mission Statement was a straightforward, simple task. However, as international studies suggests (eg. Hong, 1996), and local experience proving, the Mission statement needs to be seen as an evolutionary process that

requires continuous reflection, action and education. Through such a process the goals are challenged and challenging.

Aims need to be clearly stated, free from vague statements and therefore precise, such that members know when they have been achieved. Aims are to reflect the values and philosophy of each respective school and are underpinned by statements, as Rogers argues, which clearly show the vision and aspirations of the individual, the group and the organisation (1994 : 20).

Strategies

Devising aims is an important step in the process of improvement as it helps school members identify where they are and what directions they want to take. However, the process does not stop there. It is essential to formulate strategies of how the stated aims are to be achieved. As such each identified aim can have a number of strategies that will be tackled in order to achieve stated aims.

These strategies will involve staff in the process of action planning which help to ensure that plans do not remain on paper but are translated into action. Through this process individuals need to undertake regular progress checks so as to gauge progress and implementation. Progress checks will be made easier when success criteria are established. Success criteria are performance indicators which help to give clarity, point to the standard(s) expected, and give an indication of the time-scale involved (Ainscow et. al., 1996).

Facing up to the challenge

From all this it is evident that for central authorities and schools to improve they require changes in values, practices and relationships. The Education Division needs to develop a culture dedicated to serving people, acting on trust, respecting the individual and making teamwork happen across boundaries. What is needed is both a technical challenge and an adaptive one. Whilst the latter remains the major challenge as people learn new ways of doing things, develop new competencies and begin to work collectively, staff will also need to receive expert advice.

What I would like to emphasise in the rest of the paper is the tremendous energies that have to be dedicated to develop the human side of management. Over the years the meaning of leadership has not quite been understood in Malta. In educating and training leaders of schools and departments, we focus too much on technical proficiency and neglect the area of character. We tend to focus on areas like financial management, strategic planning, data analysis, etc., and probably

we are good at teaching these. We tend to view leadership as an isolated component, as something to be added on to other skills. Such people later on discover that they were taught how to manage but were never given the chance to learn how to lead. We are still in the Dark Ages when it comes to teaching people how to behave like great leaders – somehow instilling in them capacities such as courage and integrity. These, as Teal (1996: 36) points out, cannot be taught and as a result many tend to downplay the human element in managing. Managing an organisation is not merely a series of mechanical tasks but a set of human interactions.

We are all fully aware of the literature that highlights the characteristics of an effective leader. We are also aware of the growing demands we make on leaders, demands that at times are impossible to meet. For a start, they need to acquire the traditional management skills in resource allocation, finance, cost control, planning and a few other areas. We also expect them to master the management arts, such as strategy, persuasion, negotiation, writing, listening and speaking. We also require them to demonstrate the qualities that define leadership, integrity and character – areas such as vision, passion, sensitivity, insight, understanding, commitment, charisma, courage, humility and intelligence. We also expect them to be friends, mentors and / or guardians. Yet, what stands out is that we need leaders who are 'full-blooded creatures who are politically and spiritually aware, credible, earthly and practical' (Duignan, 1998: 21-22).

So, whilst the lists of demands may be on the increase it is also obvious that there are particular characteristics / qualities that are required, and therefore we need to create opportunities for people to develop them. For, whilst some leaders may be born, all competent leaders become. I agree with Darmanin (1998) who states that people may be trained to become effective leaders. Most leaders, unfortunately, find themselves in leadership positions, without being adequately trained, prepared or exposed beforehand. Leadership also requires a practicum component which often leadership training and development programmes tend to neglect. A lot of work can and needs to be done at this level.

In the final section of this paper I would like to briefly explore a number of areas which, in my opinion, leaders need to explore at both the personal and collective level if we really want to bring about a paradigm shift in the way we conduct educational reform in Malta.

The leaders of tomorrow need to focus on developing the following areas:

Learner

The principle of lifelong learning needs to be upheld and practised by the leader. The leader needs to promote an environment where active learning can take place, an environment where mistakes can be made, and lessons learnt.

Learning needs to be seen as a social activity (Downs, 1995) where everyone has a role to play in helping people to learn.

Imagination

The visionary leader makes 'mental leaps' which take 'what is now' into 'what could or should be'. Imagining draws from a deep understanding of what already is, and is grounded in experience.

Tied to this is the quality of creativity. Creative leaders are capable of inventing new and original ways of seeing reality, creating new energy and life into the organisation. To be creative, the future leader must become an agent of change, especially transformational. A crucial characteristic of the future leader is that of setting the example, of communicating one's beliefs and ideas through one's own behaviour. Tomorrow's leader has to be visible – to be seen to be believed.

Promoting values

Underlying an organisation's goals is a choice of a specific set of prioritised values. The leader of the 21st century will be one who creates a culture or a value system centred round principles (Covey, 1992).

The principles that leaders will need to uphold are based on personal integrity, credibility and trusting relationships (Kouzez and Posner, 1991), and a commitment to ethical and moral values such as compassion, humility and service (Manz, 1998). It is through the authentic witness of such qualities that organisational structures, processes and practices will be built, nurtured and sustained.

Empowerment

We tend to recall with admiration those leaders who delegate their authority, who make subordinates feel powerful and capable. The leader who allows subordinates to feel ownership and responsibility for the tasks being tackled become part of what Mintzberg (1991) describes as an 'empowerment loop'. This means that leaders feel empowered by their subordinates. The subordinates hand back trust, support and praise to the leader, and this helps to strengthen the leader and the vision.

Collegial leadership

Once vision and values have been defined and communicated, the next critical step is the liberation of the individual so as to create a collaborative approach to decision making. Leadership cannot remain the prerogative of one single person. It has to become team base, collegial. Leaders of the future need to be trained to

master the art of forming teams, to collaborate through teams rather than directing through edicts. Shared leadership encourages a horizontal extension of power. The future calls for an extension of that power vertically downwards to involve all members of staff.

Heroic

'Management at its finest has a heroic dimension because it deals with eternal human challenges and offers no excuse for failure and no escape from responsibility. Managers can be as thoughtless and selfish as any other human being, but they can also be as idealistic and as noble' (Teal 1996: 42-43).

The qualities expressed so far verge on the heroic. When we state that we expect leaders to create a vision and a sense of purpose and value where there is none; where they are expected to bring people together when isolation is the rule; when they often have to lead a lonely life facing the harsh criticism of one and all; and of standing firm to the values they uphold in spite of the pressure. ... Are these not the very reasons why they are called to be leaders?

Naturally, such qualities are not easy to nurture. The starting point, in my opinion, has to be the person as individual. The leader as an authentic person, is one who believes in himself/herself, who is willing to start from the self by challenging he self, by examining one's own current thinking and way of doing things. This is the leader as learner; he/she is one who is prepared to challenge oneself but at the same time willing and expects to be challenged by others and by the social context they are working in.

Whilst the leader who is willing to stop and reflect, who is willing to challenge one's way of thinking and going is indeed challenging and a road not many may wish to take, it is also important for leaders to identify a person who is willing to be their mentor - their critical friend - who can support their personal/professional development. This step requires breaking from the boards of independent thinking/working and isolation (Bezzina, 1997) we are used to. This would be a step in creating the climate and culture that is required for empowerment and collegiality to be experienced and celebrated. This can be done by speaking about the school's vision often and enthusiastically, by encouraging school members to work in different groups (e.g. departments year levels; cross-curricular, creative arts) so as to experiment, and put ideas to the test.

As people learn to work individually, in pairs, in groups, in schools and outside, they learn to infuse practice, as Duignan (1998) puts it, with a higher purpose and meaning since at the basis of their discourse and actions are the values and attitudes they have helped develop. It is through such processes and actions that individuals discover that they perhaps can make the impossible possible.

Conclusion

The list, which is purposely not finite, helps to illustrate that great leaders are engaged in a continual exercise involving learning and a lot of persuasion. Getting members to do what is best – for the organisation, their clients, themselves – is often a struggle because it means getting people to understand and want to do what is best, and that requires integrity, the willingness to empower others, courage, tenacity and great teaching skills. Good leaders also thread very carefully the grounds they are working in. They learn to move slowly, assessing their own leadership styles and the school's culture before diving in. Change is a slow process, not a one-of event. It requires time, patience, perseverance, commitment to one's ideals with a clear focus on enhancing teacher performance and student learning.

Such a person is also one who is willing to ignore resentment and gives criticism its due. They are willing to delegate, to listen and treat people with respect. Such people are often described as motivators, people who are capable of motivating members enough to follow their goals. I think it goes deeper than that. They help to instil a sense of excitement in their followers and 'stir our souls' as Teal (1996: 42) so rightly states. Good leaders help to identify and celebrate the social core of human nature. They help to bring individual talents to fruition, create value, and combine these activities with enough passion to generate the greatest possible advantages for every group member.

Leadership is a difficult undertaking. It takes exceptional, sometimes heroic, people to do it well. The right blend of people who have a strong purpose in life can help us to break away from the bunker mentality currently facing us and define our future as we walk it.

> *'It is the walking that beats the path. It is not the path that makes the walk'*
>
> – (DeGues 1997: 155).

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TEACHING FOR SOCIAL CHANGE: A PALESTINIAN-ISRAELI CASE OF PEACE EDUCATION

RUTH ZUZOVSKY
RUTH YAKIR

Abstract – *This paper reports on an educational programme that aimed to change prevailing attitudes of student-teachers and their pupils toward regional collaboration in managing water resources involved in the Israeli-Palestinian dispute. A curriculum dedicated to this issue was developed and implemented in five teachers' colleges in Israel: two Arab colleges, two Jewish secular, and one Jewish religious college. The student-teachers subsequently taught different versions of the new curriculum to junior high school pupils, as part of their practicum activities. The curriculum was intended to broaden student-teachers' and pupils' knowledge base concerning water use and management issues. It was assumed that the new knowledge acquired would support the development of concomitant belief systems and attitudinal changes regarding issues of peaceful coexistence. This intervention was based on cognitive theories of attitudinal change (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen and Madden, 1986; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). Pre- and post intervention knowledge and belief questionnaires were developed and administered to the student-teacher sample (133 students) and to the junior high school pupils they taught (300 pupils). At the end of the programme, both Israeli Arabs' and Israeli Jews' perceptions about water were more realistic. They tended to perceive water as a regional resource that should be shared and treated cooperatively. However, within the Jewish student-teachers sample, religious Jewish student-teachers remained high in their separatist position, whilst secular Jewish student-teachers moved toward preferring collaboration. The results of our study show that although student perceptions toward sharing water resources were affected by their national and religious identity, these perceptions were not immutable. Education can play a role in preparing the people of our region toward cooperation and peaceful coexistence.*

Introduction

The present study began in 1995 and most of the data were collected during 1996. It was an expression of the hope that prevailed among many Israelis and Palestinians regarding a peaceful solution to the dispute between Jews and Arabs living in the region. Five years have gone by since the Oslo Declaration of Principles and four years since the Peace Treaty with Jordan. The euphoria that

accompanied these events has almost completely disappeared. In the present atmosphere, marked by the slowing down of the peace process, especially since the election of a right-wing government in Israel in 1996, the very fact that Palestinian and Israeli researchers cooperated in this study and accepted the possibility of living together in compromise, must be seen as a glimmer of hope. These Palestinian and Israeli researchers studied the possibilities to change prevailing public attitudes towards peace and cooperation with regard to the issue of water, one of the issues that captures the essence of the conflict between two groups competing for scarce resources.

Perspective

The dispute over water resources in the Middle East stems not only from the scarcity of water resources in the region, but also from their uneven distribution and the fact that they are shared by several geopolitical entities. Rapid population growth, urbanisation and industrialisation on the one hand, and increase in agricultural use of water, on the other, have been affecting both the quality and availability per capita of fresh water in many countries in the region. A situation of 'real conflict' can be said to exist between groups when they compete for scarce resources (Campbell, 1965; Coser, 1956; Le Vine and Campbell, 1972).

Israel and the Palestinian territories share the same problematic situation concerning water: all ground water aquifers are bisected by the border and the main watershed occurs in the Palestinian territories whilst the area where most of the water is consumed is on the Israeli side. This close vicinity causes not only problems of quantity but also that of quality. For instance, Palestinians who reside in the upper aquifer area could decide to set up zones of polluting industries there, affecting the groundwater of the lower aquifer from which Israel draws its waters. Moreover an asymmetry in the per capita consumption of water exists with Israeli consumption three times greater than that of the Palestinians. Thus the feeling of deprivation on the Palestinian side is high.

Ideological and religious factors stand in the way of finding a solution to this situation. Most national ideologies perceive water as part of their territories thus claiming accessibility and sovereignty over it within their defined territories. This is the case in the Zionist ideology, in the pan-Arabist ideology and in the individual Arab states' ideologies. Moreover, as agriculture is of utmost importance, ideologically or economically for most countries in the region, water is of great national importance. The religious Islamic point of view is rather different. According to Islam, water is perceived as God-given, belonging to all the people and thus not subject to private ownership, taxation or trade. These conflicting views

regarding water as territorial on the one hand and as a free substance on the other, make negotiations of acceptable solutions difficult to achieve for both sides.

In addition, peaceful solutions to the water problems demand willingness to compromise and to cooperate. In the existing psychological atmosphere of mistrust and fear, these attitudes are in low supply. Public opinion on neither side seems to be prepared for change, while it is exactly this that is extremely important for converting decisions about change into a reality of change.

Changing prevailing attitudes of youngsters toward regional collaboration in managing water resources was the scope of an educational intervention that was planned and executed. The main assumption underlying this intervention was that attitudes can be altered. Based on two sets of theories, one from the field of attitude change (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Ajzen and Fishbein, 1977; Petty and Caciappo, 1986) and another from the field of conflict termination – the epistemic approach to conflict termination (Kruglanski, 1980a,b; Kruglanski and Ajzen, 1983; Kruglanski and Klar, 1987; Bar-Tal, Kruglanski and Klar, 1989), it was assumed that exposing subjects to new information (persuasive message) should cause systematic cognitive elaboration (Petty and Caciappo, 1986), change in salient beliefs, and ultimately in attitudes (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975).

According to the epistemic approach to conflict termination, beliefs were regarded as subjectively held cognitive structures, schemas that contain specific contents. Beliefs about conflict contain information about the incompatibility of goals between parties (Bar-Tal, Kruglanski, and Klar, 1989). Conflict schemas can be resistant to change or 'frozen'. They can be 'unfrozen' when opened to new information and with the availability of critical ways of thinking and evaluation (Kruglanski and Klar, 1989). 'Unfreezing' of a conflict schema may lead to conflict termination (Bar-Tal, Kruglanski, and Klar, 1989).

Method

In line with these theories, the research team developed an educational programme aimed to broaden the knowledge base of young Israelis and Palestinians on topics related to the water dispute. It was believed that exposing youngsters to such a programme may lead to a change in beliefs, and ultimately in attitudes. The educational programme was developed and implemented in parallel in the two countries. The programmes were similar, but not identical. They followed the same guidelines and had the same aims, however each had slightly different emphases. In this paper we will report on the Israeli programme and on the impact it had on different groups of students in Israel: Jewish secular, Jewish religious, and Arabs.

The Israeli programme centered around the following topics:

- war and peace and the issue of water in the region;
- water as a substance, its properties and uses;
- the importance of water to living organisms and humans;
- use of water in industry, agriculture and domestic sectors;
- water as a global resource, factors affecting availability and consumption;
- underground water, main aquifers, technologies for using ground water;
- water balance of Israel and other Middle Eastern countries;
- technological solutions to water scarcity: desalination, transport, sewage, reclamation, cloud seeding, dams, etc.
- agreements, ways to settle disputes regarding water rights.

This curriculum was taught to student-teachers and was adapted for their pupils. After a learning phase which took place in the college, the project moved into schools where student-teachers had their practicum, and was taught by them to 6th or 7th graders during six weekly, four-hour classroom sessions.

Pre- and post-testing of knowledge and beliefs were carried out in the student-teachers and in the pupil populations. In the pupil population, however, the knowledge tests were administered only at the end of the project.

Instruments

The main instrument was a questionnaire aimed to measure attitudes. In building the attitude questionnaires we referred to a distinction between attitudes and beliefs made by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), according to whom attitudes are built upon beliefs. Whereas attitudes refer to a person's favorable or unfavorable feelings toward an object, beliefs link this object to specific attributes. The probability that the object is associated with the attribute determines the strength of the belief, the more probable the association between the object and the attribute the stronger the belief. This probability is of course subjective. The totality of a person's beliefs multiplied by the strength of these beliefs serves as the informational base that ultimately determines that person's attitude.

Underlying this is a view of humans as rational organisms who use information to make judgments, evaluate and arrive at decisions. In the simplest way, beliefs are formed from experiences. However, they are also determined by information taught and by learning.

The aim of the curriculum offered to student-teachers and pupils in the present study was to expose them to information about water issues and to mediate the processing of this information and the construction of beliefs and of evaluative

judgments of these beliefs, i.e., the assignment of a value to the belief, a value representing the strength of the belief.

The above distinctions, stemming from attitudinal change theory (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975), were considered in the construction of a questionnaire comprising 58 belief statements, regarded as salient to two basic attitudes: (a) favorable attitude toward the Israeli-Palestinian peace process, and (b) favorable attitude toward regional cooperation regarding water issues in the Middle East.

Attitudes in favor of peace, are generally based on beliefs associating peace with economic growth and welfare, national security, etc. Attitudes in favor of cooperation are based on beliefs of increased productivity and efficiency in collaborative endeavors. In our case, the relevant set of beliefs would involve the consequences or impact of cooperation on the availability and quality of water.

The questionnaire was developed by the team of Israeli and Palestinian researchers. The belief statements were then transformed to Likert-type items with five response options. The items in the questionnaire fell under five categories:

I. A set of statements expressing beliefs regarding rights to use ground water or surface water in a situation in which this water reaches land in one country and is pumped into, or emerges from springs or rivers into another country.

II. A set of statements expressing beliefs regarding criteria of water allocation (according to needs, present consumption, future consumption, population size, standard of living, geopolitical factors [history of use], rainfall in a country, international laws, and moral or religious principles).

III. Statements expressing intention to act for the sake of peace: willingness to share, or reduce, or make more efficient, consumption, trade, develop alternative sources, import food, increase water price.

IV. Statements expressing beliefs in the importance of water to a country and the unwillingness to give up or to share it.

V. Statements expressing preference for either separate or joint water management policy.

A selected list of 26 items from the above 58 was used to develop a parallel questionnaire for pupils. The same classification of items was used, but fewer items were selected for each category.

The knowledge questionnaire contained 29 items of various types: multiple choice, short answers and extended response items covering all aspects of the water curriculum mentioned previously, and assessed the gain in knowledge of student-teachers. A similar, but smaller test was developed to assess pupil's knowledge gains after the intervention. A detailed coding manual to score the open-ended items was developed and checked for reliability.

TABLE 1: Mean and SD of Pre- and Post-Responses of Student-Teachers to Items Appearing in 'For the Sake of Peace' Factor

Item		Mean (SD)	
A3	Rainfall belongs to both countries equally	3.5	(1.0)
A14	**FSOP reduce personal intake of water**	**3.7**	**(1.2)**
A15	**FSOP allocation to tourism should be curtailed**	**3.3**	**(1.1)**
A16	**FSOP consumers should be curtailed**	**3.1**	**(1.1)**
A17	**FSOP mountain aquifer should be shared**	**3.4**	**(1.1)**
A19	**FSOP consumption gap should be closed**	**3.2**	**(1.2)**
A20	Alternative sources of water should be developed to close the gap	3.8	(0.9)
A25	Regional water should be divided according to current needs	3.1	(1.0)
A26	Regional water should be divided according to population size	2.8	(1.0)
A31	Regional water should be divided subject to international laws	3.5	(0.9)
A34	**Regional water management is not preferable**	**2.6**	**(1.1)**
A39	Every human being has equal rights to water	4.4	(0.8)
A40	Divide equally between all	4.2	(1.0)
A46	Priority should be given to agricultural countries in allocating water	3.2	(1.0)
A51	According to religion ...equal rights	3.9	(1.1)

FSOP = For the sake of peace

Sample

The educational programme was implemented in Israel in six teacher colleges: two Jewish secular teachers colleges, one Jewish religious teachers college and two Arab teachers colleges. One hundred and thirty-three student-teachers from these colleges taught about 300 pupils from upper-elementary grades and junior high school. Only four of these colleges (two Jewish, two Arab) provided both pre- and post-questionnaires which could be used for measuring changes. Pairs of pre- and post-questionnaire responses of student-teachers were obtained from only 50 student-teachers and from 273 pupils.

Data analysis

This paper focuses on attitudinal change that occurred among Israeli youngsters. We will report only on the analyses and findings related to the

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TABLE 2: Mean and SD of Pre- and Post-Responses of Student-Teachers to Items Appearing in 'Separation and Cooperation' Factor

Item		Mean (SD)	
A6	**The country in which the source of a river is located can**		
	exploit its waters	**2.4**	**(1.2)**
A7	A country that has used water in the past has a claim to those		
	waters in present and future	2.5	(1.0)
A8	**Country where water penetrates the land has right to use**		
	this water from wherever	**2.9**	**(1.2)**
A9	**Water belongs to country where its is produced or into which**		
	it is pumped	**3.5**	**(1.1)**
A12	**Water is a national resource**	**3.5**	**(1.2)**
A33	Every country should manage its own sources of water	3.4	(1.0)
A35	Every country should treat its own water	3.2	(1.0)
A41	Water is important to economic development	4.4	(0.7)
A42	For the sake of economic welfare water can be taken from anywhere	2.7	(1.1)
A49	**Rain water falling in Israel belongs to Israel**	**3.2**	**(1.2)**
A56	People who own gardens waste water	2.9	(0.9)
A57	Water is a problem for engineers not politicians	2.8	(1.2)

attitude questionnaires. Principal component factor analyses with oblique rotation for three factors were performed on student-teachers' and on pupils' pre- and post-responses to the attitude questionnaire. It was expected that the analyses would yield factors that represent belief structures in accordance with the two target attitudes of the study: favoring the peace process and favoring regional cooperation. The three factors that were extracted from student-teacher responses (Kaiser's measure of sampling adequacy overall [MSA=0.489] explained approximately 27% of the total variance. The contribution of each of them respectively was 13%, 8% and 6%. The three factors that were extracted from the pupil responses (MSA=0.63) explained approximately 28% of the total variance). The contribution of each of the factors respectively was 12%, 10%, and 6%.

On the basis of the factor analysis six indices were constructed consisting of the means of all the items loaded on each of the factors. Three indices described attitudes of student-teachers and three described those of the pupils. Using these indices, scores were assigned to the respondents. Tables 1, 2, and 3 present the items included in each factor together with their means and standard deviations

TABLE 3: Mean and SD of Pre- and Post-Responses of Student-Teachers to Items Appearing in 'Solution and Behavior' Factor

Item		Mean (SD)	
A2	Rain that falls in one country and is pumped into another country belongs to the country into which it is pumped	3.1	(1.1)
A4	Rainfall belongs mainly to the country that pumps it	3.0	(1.0)
A10	**Excess waters can be marketed among countries**	**3.7**	**(1.1)**
A13	**Import agricultural produce in order to save water**	**3.3**	**(1.1)**
A18	Reduce Israel's consumption in order to save	3.4	(1.2)
A23	Transfer of the mountain aquifer to the Palestinians means disaster for Israel	2.9	(1.2)
A24	**In exchange for mountain aquifer Palestinians should receive desalinated water**	**2.8**	**(1.1)**
A27	Water should be divided according to size and standard of living	2.8	(1.1)
A29	Water should be divided according to future needs	3.1	(1.0)
A36	Regional treatment of drainage water is not a good idea	3.5	(1.0)
A37	Define vital pumping area and do not give up any	3.4	(1.1)
A45	Important to find solutions	4.1	(1.1)
A48	Rainfall on Palestinian territories is theirs and no one else's	3.0	(1.2)
A50	Water can be cause of war	4.1	(0.9)
A53	Act according to religion and forbid water contamination	2.5	(0.9)
A55	**In households water is used in a wasteful way**	**3.0**	**(1.1)**

for the student-teacher questionnaire. Tables 4, 5, and 6 present the items included in each factor together with their means and standard deviations for the pupil questionnaire. Items that were highly loaded with the factor are printed in bold. These items served for the construction of the above-mentioned indices. The means of the items give us a rough idea on the position of the respondents regarding each item on a 1-5 scale.

Cronbach's Alpha was calculated for each of the indices. Given the found similarity in contents of the two sets of indices, the names assigned to the indices in the two populations were identical. Table 7 presents the values of Alpha for each index by index name, for the student-teacher response indices and the pupil response indices, respectively. Appearing in brackets is the number of items included in each index.

TABLE 4: Mean and SD of Pre- and Post-Pupil Responses to Items Appearing in 'For the Sake of Peace' Factor

Item		Mean (SD)	
A9	I am willing to reduce my personal water intake for peace	3.5	(1.4)
A11	Water consumption in Israel is twice that of the West Bank, FSOP this gap should be closed	3.0	(1.3)
A12	Even FSOP high quality water should not be relinquished	3.1	(1.4)
A14	Regional cooperation is needed to solve the water problem	4.1	(1.1)
A15	Every human being has equal rights to water	4.2	(1.1)
A22	Without solution to water shortage there can be no peace in the region	3.4	(1.2)
A24	Water from rivers that cross Israeli and Palestinian territories should be equally divided	3.6	(1.3)
A25	If water is scarce for a long time, my country should collaborate with other countries in trying to find a solution to this problem	4.2	(1.0)

FSOP = For the sake of peace

TABLE 5: Mean and SD of Pre- and Post-Pupil Responses to Items Appearing in 'Separation and Cooperation' Factor

Item		Mean (SD)	
A4	Rainfall belongs mainly to the country that pumps it	3.8	(1.2)
A5	Water is a national resource and should not be relinquished	4.0	(1.2)
A6	For Palestinians water is vital and should not be traded	3.6	(1.2)
A7	For Israelis water is vital and should not be traded	3.9	(1.1)
A13	Every country should manage its own water sources	3.8	(1.1)
A17	It is not ethical to take water to advance one country at the expense of another	3.7	(1.3)
A19	Rain which falls on the Palestinian territories is only theirs	3.4	(1.3)
A20	Rain which falls on the Israeli territories is the Israelis' only	3.6	(1.3)

TABLE 6: Mean and SD of Pre- and Post-Pupil Responses to Items Appearing in 'Solution and Behavior' Factor

Item		Mean (SD)	
A1	Rain water belongs to the country where it fell	3.1	(1.2)
A2	Rainfall that falls in one country and is pumped into another country belongs to the country into which it is pumped	3.3	(1.1)
A3	A country that has used water in the past has a claim to that water in the past and in the future	2.5	(1.3)
A8	In order to conserve water agricultural produce should be imported instead of grown	3.1	(1.2)
A10	**We should divide water equally with the Palestinians**	**3.3**	**(1.3)**
A16	**If the amount of rain water is not enough we must pump it from any source**	**3.6**	**(1.1)**
A21	Water is a problem for engineers not politicians	2.8	(1.3)
A23	I am for raising the price of water in order to save it and prevent contamination	2.9	(1.3)

Pre- and post-attitudinal change

The indices developed made it possible to study attitudinal changes in the two populations, the student-teachers and their pupils. The three factors identified in the responses of student-teachers could easily be matched with those that emerged from the analysis of pupil responses. A pre- post t-test for each of the indices in both populations sorted by national identity (Jews/Arabs) was conducted. Another classification of the two populations – student-teachers and pupils – took into consideration whether Jews were religious or secular. Thus three groups were formed in this second categorisation. Our choice to relate to religiousness stemmed from the fact that the Jewish religious population is known for its extreme separatist political views. Table 8 and 9 provide the pre- post comparisons of student-teacher attitudes.

The findings presented in Table 8 show the effect of the educational intervention. Jews showed a significant increase in their favorable attitude towards peace. There was no significant change in their attitude toward cooperation. The Arab respondents did not exhibit change on the peace index, perhaps because their scores were high to begin with. On the separation-cooperation index there was a significant change in their responses in the direction

TABLE 7: *Cronbach Alpha Values for Attitude Indices of Student-Teachers and Pupils*

Index	Cronbach's α for student-teachers (no. of items)		Cronbach's (for pupils (no. of items)	
For the sake of peace	0.84	(15)	0.41	(7)
Separation (Cooperation)	0.70	(12)	0.60	(8)
Solution - behaviors	0.67	(16)	0.53	(7)

TABLE 8: *Pre- and Post-Comparisons of Mean Scores on the Attitude Indices: Jewish and Arab Student-Teacher Responses*

	Jews					Arabs				
	Pre n=48		Post n=36		t	Pre n=85		Post n=13		t
For the sake of peace	3.1	(0.7)	3.5	(0.7)	-2.7**	3.6	(0.4)	3.6	(0.2)	-0.7
Separation	3.3	(0.5)	3.1	(0.6)	1.7	3.0	(0.5)	2.5	(0.3)	5.5***
Solution - behaviors	3.3	(0.5)	3.6	(0.4)	-3.6***	3.0	(0.4)	3.5	(0.2)	-4.2***

* p<0.05
** p<0.01
*** p<0.001

TABLE 9: *Pre- and Post-Comparisons of Mean Scores on the Attitude Indices: Religious and Secular Jewish Student-Teacher Responses*

	Religious Jewish Student-Teachers					Secular Jewish Student-Teachers				
	Pre n=15		Post n=13		t	Pre n=33		Post n=23		t
For the sake of peace	2.9	(0.7)	3.6	(0.7)	-2.6*	3.2	(0.6)	3.5	(0.6)	-1.5
Separation - (Cooperation)	3.7	(0.5)	3.6	(0.7)	0.8	3.2	(0.5)	2.9	(0.5)	2.1*
Solutions	3.4	(0.5)	3.8	(0.3)	-2.1*	3.2	(0.4)	3.5	(0.4)	-2.8**

* p<0.05
** p<0.01
*** p<0.001

of greater willingness to cooperate. Both groups showed significant change and in the desired direction on the solution behaviors index.

Table 9 presents the differences between religious and secular Jews.

We note that religious Jewish student-teachers showed a significant change in attitude in the direction of favoring peace and no change in attitude toward cooperation. The secular student-teachers showed a change in attitude toward favoring cooperation and no significant change in the direction of peace. Analysis of data collected from pupil responses showed no significant changes in attitudes toward either peace or separation, although on both pre- and post-measures, pupils hold a more extremist view than student-teachers. These data are presented in Tables 10 and 11.

TABLE 10: Pre- and Post-Comparisons of Mean Scores on the Attitude Indices: Jewish and Arab Pupil Responses

	Jewish Pupils					Arab Pupils				
	Pre n=177		Post n=177		t	Pre n=133		Post n=96		t
For Sake of Peace	3.6	(0.6)	3.6	(0.6)	0.7	3.5	(0.6)	3.5	(0.6)	— 0.35
Separation	3.7	(0.3)	3.6	(0.7)	1.6	3.8	(0.7)	3.8	(0.5)	0.3
Solution -Behaviors	3.0	(0.5)	3.0	(0.5)	0.40	3.1	(0.6)	3.3	(0.6)	— 3.4***

* $p<0.05$ Peace -- change in the expected direction
** $p<0.01$ Separation – no change, higher from beginning, significant change is expected
*** $p<0.001$ Solutions – significant change in the direction expected

TABLE 11: Pre- and Post-Comparisons of Mean Scores on the Attitude Indices: Religious and Secular Jewish Pupil Responses

	Religious Jewish Pupils					Secular Jewish Pupils				
	Pre n=43		Post n=43		t	Pre n=134		Post n=134		t
For the sake of peace	3.5	(0.6)	3.6	(0.6)	-0.6	3.7	(0.6)	3.6	(0.6)	1.1
Separation - (Cooperation)	3.8	(0.7)	3.6	(0.6)	0.9	3.7	(0.6)	3.6	(0.7)	1.3
Solutions	3.2	(0.6)	3.1	(0.5)	0.7	2.9	(0.5)	2.9	(0.5)	0.04

* $p<0.05$ ** $p<0.01$ *** $p<0.001$

Conclusions

In this paper we report only on the changes in attitudes as inferred from changes in the mean scores of two sets of indices. These were derived from a factor analysis on student-teachers' and pupils' responses to the attitude questionnaires. The two sets of indices from the two populations were similar in their content.

One index, used in both populations, described readiness to act for the sake of peace (share, compromise, collaborate, consume less, etc.). Underlying this index is a favorable attitude towards peace and awareness that solving the water conflict is essential for peace.

Another index describes beliefs in favor of separatism. Water belongs to and should be managed by each country separately and should neither be shared nor be traded. This index describes a dimension ranging from separation to collaboration; high scores on this index, in both populations points to an attitude against cooperation.

The third index includes statements that describe solutions to the water problem, mainly actions people can take in order to increase availability and quantity of water. This index is a neutral one and is not associated with any political stance. It is approved by both those who are in favor of peace or against it, in favor of collaboration or in favor of separatism. The gains on this scale were the highest. This attitude should be regarded as a pre-disposition to act or as the intention to perform various behaviors. Fishbein and Ajzen tend to regard behavioral intention as distinct from mere attitude which is only related to an evaluative response rather than to a behavioral one.

Our findings show that the changes the Arab student-teachers went through during this programme were more distinct than those exhibited by the Jewish student-teachers. To start with their prior attitudes were more positive towards peace and more negative towards separation, than those of the Jewish student-teachers. Their post-intervention reactions are more in the desired direction than those of the Jewish student-teachers. The Jewish student-teachers were found to be very polarised in their attitudes toward peace and toward collaboration. In the pre-testing religious student-teachers scored much lower than secular student-teachers on the three indices. However at the end of the of the programme both religious and secular Jewish student-teachers scored equally high on the peace index. On the separation index religious student-teachers remained high in their separatist position while secular student-teacher moved towards preferring collaboration. This attitude was found to be distinctive, differentiating between religious and secular Jews. It should be noted that the knowledge base on water issues of the religious student-teachers in comparison to the secular student-teachers was found to be poor.

The minor changes in the indices found among pupils might be a result of difficulties in understanding the questions used in the questionnaire. While executing the study we noticed such difficulties. Another possible interpretation is that the learning process was more effective for the student-teachers than for their pupils. Studying the subject once as students and then going over it a second time, now as teachers, contributed to a better understanding of the information and to an increase in the strength of beliefs that later on served as a basis for the construction of relevant attitudes.

The findings of our study show that although people's perceptions about sharing water are affected to a large extent by their national and religious identity and their political ideologies, these attitudes can change.

A recent study on the perception of water as part of territory in Israeli and Arab ideologies carried out between 1964-1993 (Copaken, 1996) supports our findings. Her study used media reports that appeared in Israel, the Palestinian territories and some Arab countries and analyzed their contents. The source of these documents was the US Foreign Broadcast Information Service (FBIS) which cited the above reports. The main findings of this study were the following:

Arab and Israeli perceptions of water were found to be strongly associated to political or religious ideology, whether socialist Zionist, pan-Arabist, Arab nationalist, Islamic or a combination of these. All of these ideologies assign a special role to water as a communal resource related to a defined territory. In Zionism, the community referred to consists of Jewish people in 'Eretz Yisrael'; in pan-Arabism the entire Arab population of the Middle East; in Arab state nationalism, the citizens of the individual Arab country, and in Islam, the world community, as no ownership claims and no trading of water is allowed according to Islam.

As regards Israelis, from the sixties to the nineties, a change occurred in their attitudes towards water. Water has moved from being perceived as a national resource, where the good of the Israeli nation-state is of top priority, to being regarded a regional resource that can be negotiated and shared.

As regards the Arabs, the trend has been to move away from perceiving water as a pan-Arab resource in the 60's to perceiving it as a national resource in the 1980's and 1990's. According to Copaken, the third phase of perceiving water as a regional resource has not yet occurred in the Arab States or the Palestinian Territories.

In Copaken's findings, it was noted that water's territorial characteristic inspires nations to claim full sovereignty over it despite the fact that its mobility makes this an almost impossible task. In Israel, only in the 90's, the recognition of the futility of attempting to attain absolute sovereignty over water occurred. This has not yet happened in the Palestinian case.

The decline in separatist views that was found in our study, can be interpreted as moving toward perceiving water as a regional resource. The similarity between secular Jews and Arabs living in Israel in this regard is striking. It seems that both the secular Jewish student-teachers and the Arab student-teachers in Israel do perceive water as a regional resource, and they are willing to cooperate and resolve the problem.

The findings in our study point to the fact that in spite of the ongoing dispute and the difficulties of the peace process, both Israeli Arabs' and Israeli Jews' perceptions regarding water, at the end of a short educational programme, are more realistic and more in favor of perceiving it as a regional resource that should be shared and treated cooperatively. These findings point to the role education can play in preparing people in our region for cooperation and peace.

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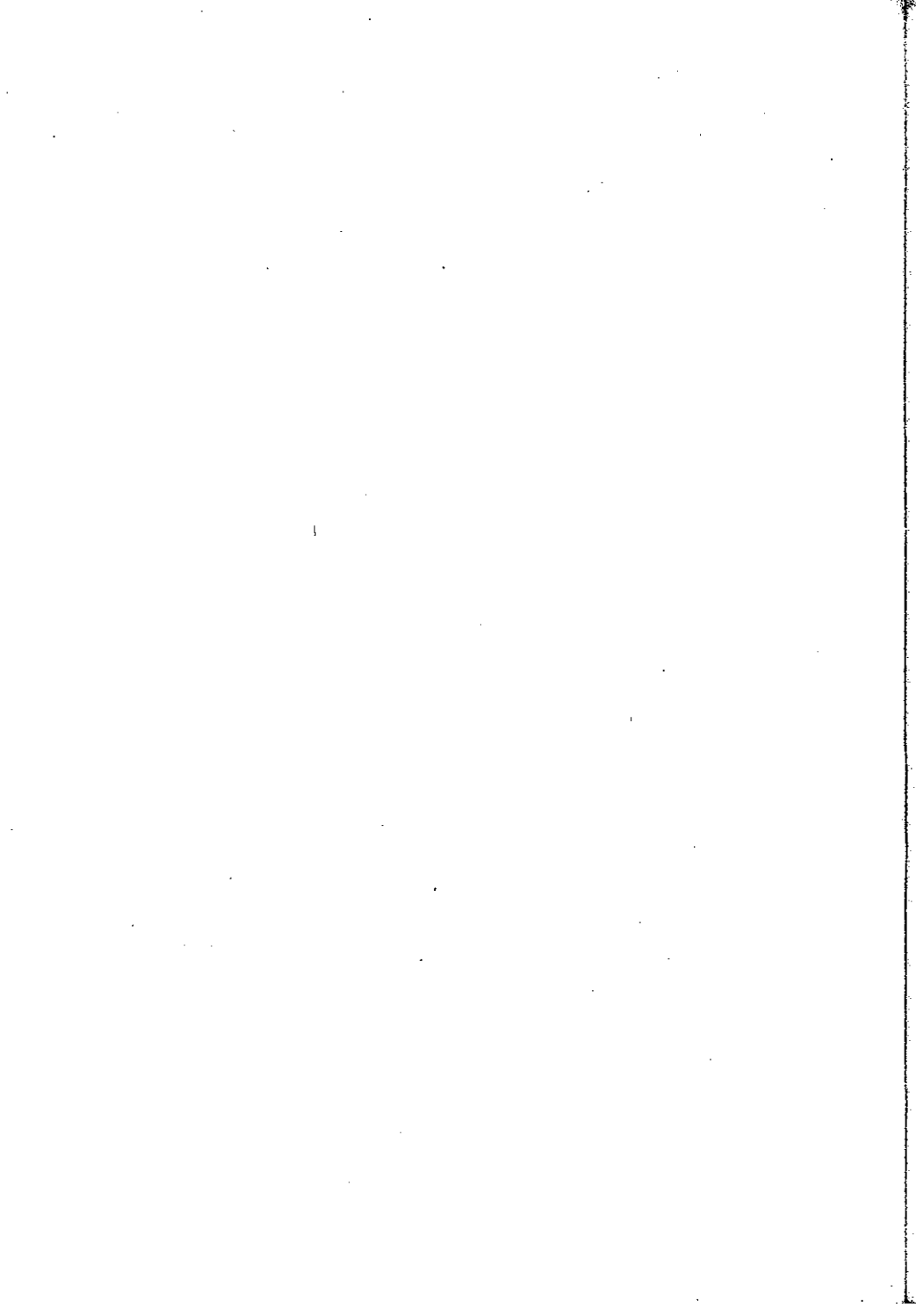
L'EXCLUSION SOCIALE COMMENCE À L' ÉCOLE

THÉODOROS MYLONAS

Resume - *Cet article vise à analyser et à mettre en évidence un des aspects d'un mécanisme latent: la marginalisation et l'exclusion sociale, au sein même de l'école, des élèves qui ont de mauvais résultats scolaires. L'école, dont la tendance - sous la forte pression de l'idéologie de la démocratisation et de l'égalisation des chances - est de diminuer ses exigences dans le but de permettre une plus longue scolarité des élèves à l'intérieur de celle-ci, n'a pas résolu le problème: les élèves restent à l'école, mais ils sont exclus de l'intérieur. En partant de ces remarques, nous formulons les questions suivantes: quels sont les liens sociaux de ces élèves avec les autres, les bons élèves? Quels sont le ou les facteurs qui déterminent ces liens? S'agit-il de liens d'intégration au micro-environnement scolaire ou de liens de rejet social qui ont lieu dès le début et à l'intérieur de celui-ci? C'est ce dernier point qui constitue l'hypothèse de notre article. Notre recherche empirique à ce sujet, qui portait sur un échantillon de 301 élèves de la dernière classe de l'école primaire, a confirmé notre hypothèse selon laquelle les liens d'attraction et d'exclusion des élèves sont en connexion avec leurs résultats scolaires, en relation étroite d'ailleurs avec leur origine sociale.*

Thème et plan de l'article[1]

*C*et article vise à analyser et à mettre en évidence un des aspects d'un mécanisme latent: la marginalisation et l'exclusion sociale, au sein même de l'école, des élèves qui ont de mauvais résultats scolaires. Pour ce faire, nous suivrons le plan suivant: après une brève mention du déplacement de l'intérêt académique de la représentation sociale de la notion de *chômage* à la notion d'*exclusion sociale*, on signalera l'émergence d'un problème qui est devenu désormais social et qui se traduit d'une part par le taux élevé d'élèves en situation d'échec scolaire qui abandonnent prématurément l'école et de l'autre, par la difficulté de leur absorption par le marché du travail. Par la suite, on notera que l'école, dont la tendance — sous la forte pression de l'idéologie de la démocratisation et de l'égalisation des chances - est de diminuer ses *exigences* dans le but de permettre une plus longue scolarité des élèves à l'intérieur de celle-ci, n'a pas résolu le problème: les élèves restent à l'école, mais ils sont *exclus de l'intérieur*. En partant de ces remarques, nous formulerons les questions suivantes: quels sont les *liens sociaux* de ces élèves avec les *autres*, les *bons élèves*? Quels

sont le ou les facteurs qui déterminent ces liens? S'agit-il de liens d'*intégration*
au micro-environnement scolaire ou de liens de *rejet social* qui ont lieu dès le
début et à l'intérieur de celui-ci?

C'est ce dernier point qui constitue l'hypothèse de notre article. Notre
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liens d'attraction et d'exclusion des élèves sont en connexion avec leurs résultats
scolaires, en relation étroite d'ailleurs avec leur provenance sociale. Notre enquête
montre que pour les *bons* élèves, les *liens sociaux* dans le microcosme de l'école
sont positifs ils sont *intégratifs,* tandis que pour les *mauvais* élèves, ils sont
négatifs puisque ce sont des liens de rejet et d'exclusion.

Dans l'ensemble, les données montrent que *l'exclusion sociale* en tant que
processus et phénomène, est présente à l'intérieur de l'école qui, néanmoins,
continue à être considérée comme le lieu par excellence de socialisation et
d'intégration sociale de l'enfant après la famille.

La représentation sociale de l'exclusion

Comment la plupart des gens se représentent la notion d'*exclusion?* Que
représentent (c'est-à-dire qu'entendent) les experts lorsqu'ils font de l'exclusion
et de ses représentations l'objet d'une approche scientifique? Comment pourrait-
on définir l'exclusion sociale? (Jodelet et al, 1989).

Nous n'avons pas l'intention d'en dire plus au sujet d'une notion qui n'est pas,
à notre sens, un objet construit de recherche qu'une conception qui participe à la
dynamique de la construction sociale de la réalité et qui donc ne peut être définie
avec la rigueur scientifique nécessaire (Berger et Luckmann, 1986; Durkheim,
1967; Autès, 1995).

Il faut noter qu'à partir de la moitié des années 80, c'est-à-dire à partir du
moment où l'on a pris conscience de la tendance de destructuration et du
rétrécissement du marché du travail, la notion d'*exclusion sociale* s'est presque
substituée, dans les discussions théoriques relatives, à la notion de *chômage.* Cette
substitution a eu lieu non seulement parce qu'il s'agit d'une notion plus inventive
mais aussi parce qu'elle englobe, entre autres, la série manifeste et complexe des
conséquences sociales du chômage. Au fond, la question qui concerne l'exclusion
peut être considérée comme une question d'ampleur sociale et politique beaucoup
plus considérable, car elle clarifie et cristallise cet ensemble complexe de
phénomènes où s'accumulent: inégalités, marginalisation, pauvreté et isolement
dans l'espace social et géographique (Kokoreff 1995: 27).

Ce déplacement de la notion de *chômage*, comme phénomène économique, à

la notion d'*exclusion*, comme phénomène social, a opéré une modification du concept de hiérarchie verticale des inégalités sociales, notion généralement admise jusqu'à la moitié des années 80: les grands, les moyens, les inférieurs. Ceux qui possèdent beaucoup, peu ou rien. La grande bourgeoisie, la bourgeoisie moyenne, le prolétariat etc. Les inégalités se traduisent désormais horizontalement: ceux qui sont à l'*intérieur* et à l'*extérieur*, qui participent au jeu et qui en sont exclus; ceux qui sont fonctionnellement reliés au réseau dominant de liens sociaux – qui assure plus ou moins leur subsistance biologique et surtout sociale – et ceux qui sont coupés du *cycle* de production et d'échange, qui sont exclus, 'qui sont dans le vide social', comme le dit Alain Touraine (1991: 8).

La notion d'exclusion sous-entend l'existence d'une ligne de démarcation entre l'*intérieur* social et l'*extérieur* non-social et exprime leur *non-relation*. Le chômage, la pauvreté, le fait de posséder peu, presque rien, ou rien, est un phénomène économique. L'exclusion cependant est un phénomène social plus ample et plus profond. Elle a aussi des dimensions psychologiques. Elle bouleverse les forces intérieures de l'individu-personne dans sa lutte pour accéder à un poste de travail et pour revendiquer sa dignité sociale. Par conséquent, elle ronge le tissu de cohésion de la société: les catégories de populations exclues ne *communiquent* plus désormais avec ceux qui sont à l'*intérieur* et avec le reste des éléments structurels ou constitutifs de la société à laquelle elles appartenaient ou auraient dû appartenir totalement (Bouffartigue, 1993).

Une autre dimension importante de cette *nouvelle représentation sociale* de l'exclusion est que l'attention et l'intérêt analytique s'est déplacé des faits-phénomènes d'exclusion aux *processus* qui les ont provoqués. On a noté que l'exclusion ne se produit pas d'un jour à l'autre. C'est le produit à long terme des processus de génération et de constitution sociales des conditions préalables à l'exclusion, processus extérieurs, objectivisés, c'est-à-dire structurels et qui échappent le plus souvent à la conscience de l'individu.

Dans son étude: *'De l'exclusion (sociale) comme état à la vulnérabilité (sociale) comme processus'* Robert Castel (1992) décrit en détail les dimensions de ces processus, parfois à long terme, de préparation à l'exclusion sociale. Ainsi, le champ notionnel et représentatif de l'exclusion a été élargi, et comprend l'observation et l'étude systématique de diverses catégories de populations et de groupes sociaux qui manifestent des *signes avant-coureurs d'exclusion*, à des stades ou à des degrés divers (Paugam, 1991).

Les données confirment que la tendance à la croissance continue du nombre de toutes sortes d'exclus se produit parallèlement et en opposition au développement économique et à l'accumulation de richesses. Alors qu'on s'attendait, jusqu'aux années 70, à ce que la croissance économique générale apporte la prospérité à toute la population, il est arrivé, et cela continue à se produire, qu'elle a apporté plus ou

moins l'amélioration constante du niveau économique et social des 2/3 de privilégiés de la société et à engager dans une voie d'exclusion irréversible le tiers de défavorisés. Il s'agit d'un phénomène structurel et non bien entendu d'une 'coïncidence', comme l'a noté fort à propos Stoleru (1974).

L'aspect scolaire de l'exclusion

L'école s'est engagée à accomplir deux missions:

(a) préparer et produire l'élite, en transmettant une culture officielle de haut niveau, et (b) noter, attester et classifier la faiblesse de ceux qui ne correspondent pas au profil et aux exigences de cette culture et, par conséquent, les confiner dans des orientations et dans des niveaux d'enseignement de moindre valeur économique, sociale et politique ou les exclure (rejeter), ou même les pousser à s'auto-exclure (à interrompre leur scolarité).

C'est la seconde mission - fonction de l'école qui nous intéresse ici.

Avant les années 60, l'*échec scolaire* ne constituait pas un problème social en Grèce, comme d'ailleurs dans les autres pays européens. Jusqu'à cette époque, on n'en faisait pas mention. Au contraire, on souhaitait que l'école, surtout l'enseignement secondaire, soit plus sévère et rejette un plus grand nombre d'élèves pour assurer un niveau élevé de connaissances, d'aptitudes et en général de culture à ceux qui y achevaient leurs études. Personne n'associait l'échec scolaire et le rejet des élèves à leur origine sociale. Le phénomène de l'inégalité des résultats scolaires était attribué à une différence d'inclinations, de dons et à des problèmes psycho-médicaux (Isambert- Jamati, 1985; Mylonas, 1982).

Pendant les années 60, époque où une explosion scolaire se produit également en Grèce, ont fait leur entrée dans l'enseignement du second degré de nombreux enfants provenant de catégories sociales jusqu'alors exclues et dont les pressions qu'ils exercèrent sur l'enseignement se prolongèrent jusqu'à l'université. De son côté, l'école, sous la pression d'une nouvelle idéologie dominante, l'égalité des chances dans l'enseignement, chercha avec une série de réformes (les plus importantes ayant eu lieu en 1959, 1964 et 1976) à adapter son programme de façon à ce qu'il soit plus accessible à sa nouvelle clientèle. Elle diminua les heures d'enseignement du grec ancien et rendit plus souples les critères de progression normale dans le cursus de façon à conserver le plus longtemps possible une clientèle jusqu'alors exclue. Dans ce cadre idéologique favorable au fonctionnement intégratif et assimilateur de l'école, l'échec scolaire d'une partie des enfants qui, une ou deux décennies auparavant, étaient *en dehors* de l'école, fut alors considéré comme un scandale (Mylonas, 1993).

La sociologie de l'éducation en Amérique, en Europe et par extension en Grèce, analyse le phénomène et l'attribue d'une part aux 'infériorités' innées propres à l'origine sociale (classe sociale): histoire, type et mode de constitution du capital culturel, social et économique qui caractérise le habitus de classe correspondant (Bourdieu, 1979, 1984) et d'autre part à la logique oppressive exercée sur l'école par un système de production qui demande à l'enseignement de cultiver des connaissances et des aptitudes spécifiques et hiérarchisées et qui impose des liens de domination d'un certain type (Baudelot et Establet, 1971).

L'école, comme lieu de rencontre et de jonction d'inégalités sociales ou d'inégalités de classe avec les exigences du marché du travail fonctionne de manière reproductive: malgré son idéologie déclarée en faveur de la démocratisation et de l'égalité des chances, elle favorise ceux qui sont socialement privilégiés et met dans une relation encore plus malaisée les défavorisés, selon l'expression heureuse de Pierre Bourdieu.

Et elle le fait en offrant aux premiers des diplômes dont la valeur d'échange sur le marché du travail est plus élevée et aux seconds des diplômes de valeur moindre. Si l'on considère que l'accession à un poste de travail jouissant d'un certain crédit social et d'une rémunération plus élevée dépend non seulement des atouts d'enseignement et de culture requis (les diplômes), mais aussi du rôle considérable que joue le capital social (les relations) et qui correspond au statut social de la famille, alors on comprend comment les *exclus* possèdent non seulement moins de qualifications mais aussi des *moyens* faibles. Dans les périodes de changements de structures, qui retrécissent le marché du travail, comme il arrive aujourd'hui, le diplôme officiel comme atout de sollicitation d'un poste de travail continue bien entendu à être un avantage, mais il est concurrencé désormais par d'autres critères supplémentaires (expérience, capacités, savoir-faire, connaissances générales et spécifiques, caractéristiques de la personnalité etc.) que le marché impose comme exigences (Boudon et Girod, 1981; Petitat, 1982; Cherkhaoui, 1992).

Ceux qui échouent à l'école, c'est-à-dire qui n'arrivent pas au niveau de connaissances et de spécialisation déterminé par le marché de façon à postuler à un poste de travail, sont d'habitude dépourvus également des autres atouts et constituent une catégorie sociale spécifique d'individus qui, rejetés de l'école, pénètrent dans les zones d'insécurité professionnelle, c'est-à-dire dans l'antichambre de l'exclusion sociale.

L'échec scolaire, du moment qu'il touche au moins 30 % de la population scolaire, constitue un problème social considérable, surtout dans les périodes de montée du chômage, puisqu'il conduit tôt ou tard à des zones d'insécurité professionnelle, de vulnérabilité et d'exclusion sociale: ceux qui abandonnent l'école à partir du deuxième cycle du secondaire sont les plus touchés par le

chômage et ceux qui parmi eux travaillent touchent les salaires les plus bas (OCDE 1997: 255-294).

Mais même lorsque la *machine* de l'emploi *rejette* dans la zone d'exclusion, durant les périodes de licenciements en masse, des milliers de travailleurs, elle suit certains critères: le plus souvent, elle rejette d'abord ceux qui ont de moindres qualifications et aptitudes professionnelles, c'est-à-dire ceux qui ont échoué à l'école. Il semble qu'il y a une logique de reproduction de la succession des phases du rejet scolaire au rejet social: infériorité du statut social de la famille ou de l'origine de la catégorie sociale de l'élève – échec scolaire – *vulnérabilité* sociale – chômage – infériorité du statut social définitif – exclusion sociale. Même si les données empiriques quantitatives correspondantes sont plus complexes, elles n'en montrent pas moins qu'elles sont traversées et interconnectées par cette logique reproductive (Nasse, 1992).

Il importe peu de savoir ici à qui est la faute (Plaisance, 1985), ou ce qui doit être fait pour affronter ce phénomène du point de vue social et pédagogique (CRESAS 1980).

Les exclus de l'intérieur de l'école

Il est indispensable de signaler que *l'échec scolaire*, qui est en relation étroite avec l'*exclusion*, est un phénomène qui n'est pas quantativement et historiquement attesté seulement après que les élèves en situation d'échec aient quitté l'école. Déjà avant leur départ, les élèves *vulnérables* du point de vue scolaire restent pendant un laps de temps plus ou moins long *à l'intérieur*, mais sont déjà engagés dans une voie plus ou moins évidente d'échec. Cette catégorie est constituée par les élèves *en suspens* qui soit ont le regard dirigé vers la sortie, soit attendent d'être canalisés - rejetés vers des lieux *spéciaux* de *concentration* au sein même du système éducatif et dont ils sortent également très vite, le plus souvent sans aucune attestation de valeur. Ce sont les *exclus de l'intérieur*, comme les caractérisent fort à propos Bourdieu et Champagne (1992).

Cette logique du système d'enseignement qui consiste à retarder le rejet et le départ des élèves de cette catégorie, à présenter leur départ comme un processus de cas individuels qui se produisent indépendamment l'un de l'autre au cours des différentes étapes du parcours scolaire, et de l'affronter comme une possibilité et une éventualité concernant tous les élèves de toutes les catégories sociales, n'est pas innocente du point de vue social. C'est une logique d'élaboration d'un alibi, une logique de dissimulation de tout ce que l'école accomplit en réalité aux frais des *faibles* sociaux, culturels et économiques. Et elle l'accomplit au nom de l'égalité et de la démocratie des inégaux.

Avec l'accès en masse, dans l'enseignement secondaire, également d'enfants issus de catégories sociales défavorisées, on a créé l'illusion que ceux-ci pouvaient également réussir, au même titre que les enfants des familles privilégiées. Mais très vite, on a pris conscience que non seulement ils ne réussissaient pas autant qu'on s'y attendait, mais que ceux qui arrivaient à obtenir le brevet d'études du 1^{ier} Cycle du secondaire ou l'apolytirion (baccalauréat) du $2^{ième}$ Cycle, avaient déjà provoqué l'inflation de ces diplômes et par conséquent leur dévaluation sur le marché du travail. Ainsi, malgré l'augmentation des années de scolarité et l'obtention éventuellement de titres scolaires de plus en plus élevés, leur situation ne s'améliore pas en substance. Ils restent toujours dans la catégorie des personnes en situation d'échec puisqu'ils poursuivent un objectif qui s'éloigne constamment comme un mirage. Ainsi, le problème aigü des inégalités à l'école et, par extension, sur le marché du travail, se transforme mais ne se résoud pas, ni s'améliore (Castel, 1995). Les enfants des socialement *en dehors*, même lorsqu'ils prennent la voie de l'école dans l'espoir de se trouver *dedans*, après quelques illusions de succès, prennent conscience qu'ils se trouvent à nouveau *à l'extérieur*. L'école pour eux est finalement inutile à la fois professionnellement et socialement.

'Le système d'enseignement largement ouvert à tous et pourtant strictement réservé à quelques-uns réussit le tour de force de réunir les apparences de la 'démocratisation' et la réalité de la reproduction, qui s'accomplit à un degré supérieur de dissimulation, donc avec un effet accru de légitimation sociale' (Bourdieu et Champagne 1992: 73).

En un mot, l'abandon prématuré de l'école est l'indice visible du début d'une voie vers le chômage et éventuellement vers l'exclusion sociale. Il faut donc signaler ici que tandis que ces élèves seront confrontés au chômage à la sortie de l'école, ils subissent l'exclusion sociale, déjà à l'intérieur, durant leur scolarité. Nous allons essayer de montrer par la suite un des aspects des processus invisibles de cette exclusion sociale à l'intérieur de l'école.

Notre hypothèse

Les fréquentes observations que j'effectue avec mon équipe de recherche, de la vie quotidienne de certaines écoles primaires, ont fait surgir une série d'interrogations, de problématiques et de tentatives d'exégèse (hypothèses) à propos des processus latents qui, à l'intérieur de l'école, produisent le phénomène d'exclusion. Nous allons à présent exposer seulement une des orientations de cette problématique.

L'enregistrement des mouvements, des attractions et des répulsions, des

proximités et des distances des élèves à l'intérieur de l'école, nous a imposé l'idée que l'espace géographique de l'école délimite les contours d'un *champ* social où se déroule sans cesse une tentative de domination: on y noue des alliances et on y exprime des répulsions qui passent presque inaperçues, parce que d'habitude elles sont inconscientes ou inavouées. Le fait par exemple que quelques enfants vifs, agités, agressifs, occupent, pendant les récréations, le plus grand espace central de la cour et que d'autres plus tranquilles et plus passifs se meuvent en bordure, est d'habitude attribué uniquement à la nature de leur caractère. Le fait qu'un nombre suffisant d'enfants se taisent en classe et qu'ils ne participent pas comme on l'espère aux activités didactiques, est d'habitude attribué à une timidité *de constitution*, c'est-à-dire naturelle.

Ces phénomènes de comportements diversifiés ne sont que très rarement associés à la différence de provenance sociale des enfants, à leur différence d'habitus de classe (Mylonas 1992: 213-216). Un tel rapprochement a été effectué par exemple par Daniel Zimmermann (1982: 84) qui a montré que la plupart des enfants vifs du centre de la cour proviennent de catégories sociales privilégiées, tandis que ceux de la périférie sont issus de catégories défavorisées. Sa recherche lui a donc permis de remettre en question une croyance commune, selon laquelle au moins dans la cour et dans le jeu prédominent les élèves vifs et turbulents et non les bons élèves. De plus, il a montré que le jeu des attractions ou des répulsions entre élèves et du choix et du rejet des enseignants à leur égard est socialement conditionné (Zimmermann 1982: 94 ff).

Tout ce qui précède et nos observations in situ nous ont conduit à la formulation de l'hypothèse suivante: *L'origine sociale des élèves détermine dans une large mesure, non seulement leurs résultats scolaires, mais aussi leurs liens sociaux avec les autres élèves. Par liens sociaux, nous entendons le tissu des attractions et des répulsions réciproques ou non-réciproques des élèves.*

Les caractéristiques sociales des autres élèves dont l'élève est le compagnon, ou qu'il désire avoir pour compagnons mais dont il est rejeté, ou que les autres désirent fréquenter mais que celui-ci rejette, constituent l'indice d'un jeu social de choix et de rejets, très décisif pour l'avenir social - et non seulement - de l'enfant, qui se joue à l'école mais dont les règles *fondamentales* ont été fixées à l'extérieur de l'école.

Nous estimons qu'il s'agit d'un aspect, parmi d'autres, non déclaré et non manifeste mais existant, des processus de l'exclusion sociale future de ces élèves qui n'ont pas de bons résultats scolaires et qui proviennent dans l'ensemble de classes sociales défavorisées.

En d'autres termes, nous supposons que l'*exclusion de certains groupes de population du travail, des biens matériels, sociaux et culturels, des liens sociaux de soutien et de solidarité etc., a ses origines dans l'école.*

Les exclus de l'intérieur de l'école sont ceux qui se trouvent engagés dans une voie qui tôt ou tard les mènera hors des bords de la société. Ce sont surtout ceux qui ont les plus grandes chances de passer progressivement, dans un laps de temps plus ou moins long, de la position sociale d'attente à celle d'incertitude et ensuite à celle de fragilité, de vulnérabilité et de précarité pour se décrocher sans doute totalement du tissu social légitime et aboutir dans la zone d'exclusion.

Les *entrailles* de l'école portent et objectivisent les probabilités d'exclusion sociale des enfants des défavorisés et c'est là qu'apparaissent ses nombreux signes précurseurs. Un de ces signes peut être localisé dans le *jeu* des attractions – répulsions entre élèves.C'est justement ce *jeu* et les informations importantes qu'il fournit à notre sujet qu'ambitionne de décrire et de mettre en évidence l'enquête empirique que nous avons menée pour confirmer ou réfuter notre hypothèse.

L'enquête

Éléments méthodologiques et techniques

L'enquête a eu lieu en deux phases: dans la première, nous avons choisi 15 écoles primaires de la ville de Patras. Pour assurer la représentativité de l'échantillon, nous avons choisi 6 écoles de la zone centrale de la ville et 9 de la zone périphérique. Nous avons décidé de nous adresser aux 301 élèves de la dernière classe de ces écoles (145 garçons et 156 filles) et à leurs instituteurs (échantillon fortuit). Nous avons préféré les élèves de cette classe parce que chez eux le phénomène d'attraction - répulsion qui nous intéresse est plus évident que chez les élèves plus jeunes.

Ayant obtenu l'autorisation des directeurs d'établissements et des instituteurs, nous avons demandé aux élèves de remplir un questionnaire dont les données démographiques, sociales, culturelles et économiques les concernaient eux et leurs familles. Nous nous sommes également adressés aux Instituteurs et leur avons demandé:

> de nous fournir des informations sur les résultats scolaires et le comportement de chacun de leurs élèves et de faire des prévisions sur leur parcours scolaire: ne va pas être admis au premier cycle du secondaire, achèvera seulement le premier cycle du secondaire, achèvera seulement le deuxième cycle du secondaire, sera candidat aux examens panhelléniques (ils correspondent aux épreuves du baccalauréat) mais avec de moindres chances de succès, entrera à l'Université, poursuivra ses études au-delà.

Nous avons également prié les Instituteurs de nous fournir une liste où ils avaient placé les élèves de leur classe en ordre d'appréciation, selon leurs résultats scolaires et selon aussi l'évaluation - prévision personnelle des enseignants au sujet de l'avenir de chaque élève, comme il a été indiqué plus haut.

Après avoir établi un premier rapport statistique entre la position qu'occupent les élèves dans ce classement et leur origine sociale, nous avons remarqué, comme d'ailleurs dans d'autres de nos enquêtes, qu'il y avait une fois de plus une connexité statistique très étroite.

Dans une seconde phase, nous avons soumis aux 301 élèves un bref questionnaire où on leur demandait:

Avec lequel de leurs camarades ils voudraient travailler (ils devaient indiquer trois noms en ordre de préférence).

Avec lequel de leurs camarades ils ne voudraient pas travailler (ils devaient indiquer trois noms en ordre de rejet).

15 jours plus tard, et cela pour qu'ils ne se souviennent pas très bien des noms qu'ils avaient notés dans le premier questionnaire, nous leur avons soumis un questionnaire analogue où on leur demandait avec qui ils voudraient ou ne voudraient pas jouer.

Constitution de trois categories

Nous avons réparti la population des 301 élèves en 3 catégories: Dans la *catégorie* A, ont été classés les élèves qui avaient eu 10 comme note (maximum) et dont l'instituteur avait prévu qu'ils allaient entrer à l'Université. Comme nous l'avons déjà signalé, ils provenaient d'un milieu social très élevé. Dans la *catégorie* B, les 119 qui avaient eu 8, 9, 10 et la prévision qu'ils allaient achever le deuxième cycle du secondaire. Certains participeraient aux épreuves panhelléniques mais avec de moindres chances de succès. On a noté que la plupart proviennent de couches sociales moyennes. Étaient compris également certains élèves issus de couches sociales élevées et très peu d'élèves provenant de couches sociales inférieures. Dans la *catégorie* C, les 92 qui avaient reçu une note inférieure ou égale à 7 avec pour prévision qu'ils allaient achever seulement l'enseignement obligatoire (Primaire et 1[ier] Cycle du secondaire en tout 9 ans de scolarité), certains d'entre eux avec difficulté. Ils sont tous issus de familles dont le profil socio-professionnel et culturel reste très modeste.

Élaboration des données

Ayant constitué la figure classique du sociogramme selon Moréno (grille à double entrée), nous y avons inséré les réponses des élèves de chaque classe à propos de leurs compagnons d'études et, dans un autre sociogramme, leurs réponses à propos de leurs compagnons de jeux. A la suite de ces réponses, nous avons constitué de manière analogue une grille d'ensemble pour toute la population. Enfin, une grille pour chacun des trois groupes.

L'élaboration de ces données a été effectuée au moyen d'un ordinateur (SPSS).

Résultats

Nous ne pouvions pas imaginer, au moment de formulation de notre hypothèse, que la valeur déterminante de la variable indépendante (position dans la hiérarchie sociale et scolaire) sur la variable dépendante (choix et rejets de camarades) aurait été si considérable.

Le Tableau 1 présente les résultats d'ensemble des *choix* et *rejets* qu'ont *reçu*, à propos du travail scolaire, les membres de chaque catégorie et qui ont été exprimés par l'ensemble des 301 élèves de l'échantillon. (Pour des raisons d'économie, nous nous limiterons à la confrontation des catégories extrêmes A et C. On peut aisément concevoir la position de la catégorie B.)

La catégorie A regroupe 52% des choix et 15% des rejets des 301 élèves, au contraire de la catégorie C qui regroupe 62% des rejets et 12% des choix. Il est plus qu'évident que dans l'enceinte de l'école, il y a deux mondes distincts. Le monde des A est socialement positif parce qu'il exerce plus d'attraction, tandis que le monde des C est socialement négatif parce qu'il est davantage rejeté.

TABLEAU 1: Distribution des choix et rejets de l'ensemble de 'l'échantillon' (échantillon total, cas 'étudier ensemble')

Catégorie	Choix	Rejets
A	52%	15%
B	36%	23%
C	12%	62%
Total	100%	100%

Les réseaux de liens différents auxquels appartiennent déjà les élèves A et C les engagent dans des directions (trajectoires) différentes: les premiers sont dirigés vers le centre de la société, les seconds en marge, c'est-à-dire vers l'exclusion sociale.

Pour les élèves de la catégorie C, le rejet de l'école est double: ils sont rejetés de l'école parce qu'ils ne correspondent pas à ses critères, mais ils sont également rejetés par leurs camarades, car considérés comme indésirables. Leur triste avenir social se profile déjà nettement à l'intérieur de l'école primaire.

Les aspects partiels de ce phénomène général que présente si clairement le Tableau 1 sont très significatifs. Le Tableau 1.1 qui suit, présente la distribution des *choix* de chaque catégorie, à propos également du *travail scolaire*.

*TABLEAU 1.1: Distribution des **choix** de chaque catégorie, cas 'étudier ensemble'*

Catégorie	A	B	C
A	**59%**	50%	49%
B	32%	**38%**	37%
C	9%	12%	**14%**
Total	100%	100%	100%

Les A adressent leurs choix à 59% des membres de leur catégorie et seulement à 9% des membres de la catégorie C. Inversément, les C adressent leurs choix à 14% des membres de leur catégorie et à 49% des membres de la catégorie A!

Le phénomène est clair: les A ne veulent pas avoir de liens avec les C. Inversément, les C sollicitent des liens surtout avec les A. Les A ont déjà constitué un réseau visible d'échanges, de collaborations et de liens intracatégoriels qui semble presque 'fermé' aux C. Inversément, les C ne se choisissent pas entre eux, mais ils adressent 49% de leurs choix aux A, c'est-à-dire à ceux qui les rejettent. Il semble que les C se trouvent dans une situation suspendue: ni ils ont formé leur propre *espace social*, ni ils sont admis dans les autres espaces qu'ils estiment et auxquels ils souhaiteraient s'intégrer. C'est aux A, qui à 59% se choisissent entre eux, que les autres, les B et les C, adressent le plus grand pourcentage de leurs choix (50% et 49% respectivement). Il semble que les A fonctionnent donc comme le pôle d'attraction le plus puissant. C'est leur catégorie sociale de référence et cela a des conséquences très graves, comme l'a également remarqué Merton (1965).

Nous pourrions peut-être y voir une préconfiguration des tendances d'*embourgeoisement* ou de désir d'embourgeoisement des couches sociales de la société grecque non-embourgeoisées ou insuffisamment embourgeoisées.

La distribution des pourcentages de rejets, telle qu'elle apparaît dans le Tableau 1.2 illustre encore plus clairement le même phénomène.

TABLEAU 1.2: Distribution des rejets de chaque catégorie, cas 'étudier ensemble'

Catégorie	A	B	C
A	8%	17%	17%
B	22%	21%	28%
C	70%	62%	55%
Total	100%	100%	100%

70% des rejets des A concernent les C alors que seulement 17% des rejets concernent les A. Les A adressent seulement 8% de leurs rejets aux élèves de leur catégorie, tandis que les C adressent 55% de leurs rejets aux membres de leur catégorie! Les C ne sont donc pas seulement rejetés par les autres (A 70%m B 62%) mais ils se rejettent entre eux à un degré très élevé (55%). Serait-il audacieux d'avancer que nous avons *consigné* ici la raison pour laquelle les catégories exclues ou en voie d'exclusion se regroupent difficilement en des forces compactes de revendication sociale malgré l'intensité parfois incendiaire des slogans idéologiques les exhortant à s'unir et à revendiquer?

Malgré le grand désir des C, malgré leur tentative dramatique de s'accrocher au réseau de liens des A, toute la structure des attractions – répulsions fonctionne de façon à les pousser vers la marginalisation et l'exclusion.

Le jeu

On connaît bien les critiques qu'on adresse habituellement à la méthode et à la technique du sociogramme: les choix – rejets varient selon le thème considéré. Lorsque par exemple on demande à l'élève avec qui il voudrait ou ne voudrait pas jouer, les préférences portent non plus sur les bons élèves, comme pour le travail scolaire, mais sur les élèves plus vifs et combattifs. Bien que nos distributions

concernant le jeu justifient en partie cette critique, en aucun cas elles ne laissent supposer un changement de structure.

Le Tableau 2 présente les pourcentages d'ensemble des choix et rejets qu'ont 'reçu' les membres de chaque groupe pour le jeu.

*TABLEAU 2: Distribution des **choix** et des **rejets** de l'ensemble de l'échantillon, cas 'jouer ensemble'*

Catégorie	Choix		Rejets	
A	43%	(-9%)	18%	(+3%)
B	40%	(+4%)	31%	(+8%)
C	17%	(+5%)	51%	(-11%)
Total	100%		100%	

Le tableau montre clairement que la structure des distributions des pourcentages est exactement identique à celle que nous avons remarquée dans le tableau du travail scolaire correspondant. La catégorie A regroupe le plus de choix (43%) et le moins de rejets (18%). Inversément, la catégorie C regroupe le moins de choix (17%) et le plus de rejets (51%). Il est vrai cependant qu'on remarque un déplacement: Pour le jeu, les choix de A diminuent de 9% par rapport au travail scolaire, tandis que les choix de C augmentent de 5%.Les rejets de A augmentent de 3% tandis que les rejets de C diminuent de 11%. Ces variations sont toutefois insignifiantes.

Le Tableau 2.1 illustre de façon plus analytique les distributions des choix de chaque groupe pour le jeu.

*TABLEAU 2.1: Distribution des **choix** de chaque catégorie, cas 'jouer ensemble'*

Catégorie	A		B		C	
A	44%	(-15%)	46%	(-4%)	38%	(-11%)
B	37%	(+5%)	37%	(-1%)	47%	(+10%)
C	19%	(+10%)	17%	(+5%)	15%	(+1%)
Total	100%		100%		100%	

Là aussi, les choix suivent la même logique que pour le travail scolaire. Le tableau montre que pour le jeu, les choix que les A adressent à leurs semblables diminuent de 15% par rapport au travail scolaire, tandis que les choix qu'ils adressent à la catégorie C augmentent de 10%.

Les choix que les C adressent aux A diminuent de 11%. Toutefois, ils n'augmentent pas leurs choix envers leurs semblables mais en faveur des B (10%)! Tandis que la préférence des autres (c'est-à-dire des A et B) augmente légèrement en faveur des C pour les jeux, les C continuent à ne marquer qu'une préférence moindre pour leurs semblables (14% pour le travail scolaire, 15% pour le jeu). Les structures de leurs liens sont *cristallisées*.

Le Tableau 2.2 montre les distributions des rejets de chaque catégorie pour le jeu.

TABLEAU 2.2: Distribution des rejets de chaque catégorie, cas 'jouer ensemble'

Catégorie	A		B		C	
A	15%	(+7%)	19%	(+2%)	20%	(+3%)
B	35%	(+13%)	25%	(+4%)	36%	(+8%)
C	50%	(-20%)	56%	(-6%)	44%	(-11%)
Total	100%		100%		100%	

Pour le jeu, les rejets que les A adressent aux C diminuent de 20% et augmentent de 7% lorsqu'ils s'adressent à leurs semblables. Les rejets des C portant sur les A augmentent de 3%, ce qui est insignifiant, mais il diminuent de 11% lorsqu'ils portent sur leurs semblables. Ils les *rejettent* moins que pour le travail scolaire, mais ils ne les *choisissent pas davantage*.

De ces comparaisons des pourcentages de l'ensemble des tableaux concernant le jeu, on peut déduire que la position C est revalorisée. Cette amélioration provient non pas bien entendu de la différenciation de leurs choix et rejets, mais de la légère augmentation des choix et de la diminution des rejets que leur adressent les A et B. Les C continuent à être tournés vers les autres catégories et ne sont pas intéressés à augmenter leur collaboration avec leurs semblables, même pas lorsqu'il s'agit de jouer.

Conclusion

Les pourcentages de *choix* et de *rejets* qu'adressent en général les élèves de l'échantillon, ou les catégories d'élèves, à leurs camarades, que ce soient ceux qui concernent le 'travail scolaire' ou 'le jeu', suivent deux tendances opposées: les *choix* sont croissants de la catégorie C à la catégorie A, tandis qu'inversément les *rejets* sont croissants de la catégorie A à la catégorie C. Compte tenu de ces tendances, il faut signaler que les A adressent la plupart de leurs *choix* aux A, tandis que les C adressent la plupart de leurs *rejets* aux C. Les liens sociaux entre élèves, qui s'expriment à travers leurs attractions et leurs répulsions, constituent un réseau de liens désirés dont la forme est ovale ou élipsoïde. La zone de la courbe supérieure de la forme ovale comprend les couches sociales de la population les plus intégrées et les plus attractives, tandis que la zone de la courbe inférieure comprend les couches sociales de la population les plus instables, désagrégées et repoussées. C'est pourquoi celles - ci s' accrochent mollement au réseau de liens des couches centrales et se détachent presque totalement du réseau de liens des couches supérieures. Une pression extérieure accidentelle, une difficulté, un malheur et (par conséquent) une destabilisation psychologique peuvent facilement pousser les fragiles et les vulnérables de la catégorie C même en dehors des limites légales de la société.

Il semble qu'il est difficile de supposer (ou même de soupçonner) qu'à l'école, dans la cour de récréation ou en classe, ces lieux débordant de vie, de mouvement et de démocratie, se produit de manière souterraine (ou latente) ce type de processus de rejet social et d'isolement des enfants des couches sociales défavorisées. Ces enfants constituent finalement un ensemble que les autres élèves rejettent vers les contours et les marges du réseau scolaire de liens sociaux.

Le plus pénible, pour ces élèves, est que malgré leur désir, ils ne pourront ni accéder ni s'intégrer à la société scolaire des bons élèves, des élèves socialement privilégiés. Lorsqu'ils poursuivent ce but, ils se trouvent confrontés à une société fermée et répulsive.

L'école, malgré sa tendance à une pseudo-démocratisation et sa volonté de renforcer les processus d'intégration égalitaire de tous les élèves au même réseau de liens sociaux, semble ne pas y parvenir. A l'intérieur du *champ* de l'école et sous les apparences de sa démocratisation, se jouent des jeux de marginalisation et d'exclusion des élèves de la catégorie C.

Qu'en sera-t-il lorsque ces élèves auront 30-40 ans? Nous pourrions, en partant de nos résultats, risquer quelques *projections* sur leur avenir. Très probablement, ils auront suivi seulement l'enseignement obligatoire. Ils auront accru leurs obligations sociales (leur niveau d'instruction laisse prévoir une forte natalité). Ils n'auront pas de travail stable. Ils se mouvront en bordure du marché. Ils seront

vulnérables ou ils auront déjà capitulé devant les forces – provocations de fuite de la réalité et de la légalité. Ils seront dedans et dehors. Il y a aussi de fortes chances qu'ils soient *enfermés* dans leur monde d'exclus sociaux. Notre proposition selon laquelle l'*exclusion sociale commence à l'école* n'apparaît pas alors comme une simple météore théorique ou comme une simple contingence. Elle est l'expression d'une réalité, qui demande toutefois une exploration plus systématique.

Note

[1] Le recueil et l'élaboration statistique des données de cet article ont été effectués par mon équipe de recherche, sous la responsabilité de mon collaborateur, Nicolaos Manessis.

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RESEARCH REPORT

TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD THEIR JOB AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN TURKEY: AN EFL PERSPECTIVE

AYSE AKYEL

Abstract – *Various studies investigating the factors that affect professional development have found that both extrinsic factors such as pay and promotion and intrinsic rewards such as pride in work can supply motivation for professional development. This study aims to investigate the attitudes of Turkish EFL teachers toward their teaching career and professional development. In doing so, it also explores what cultural and/or political factors may affect Turkish EFL teachers' professional development. Data came from semi-structured interviews administered to 31 teachers working in 5 different English medium high schools in Istanbul. The findings indicate that these Turkish EFL teachers have positive feelings toward their careers and professional development to the extent that their personal values, abilities, and accomplishments match their expectations of the values, abilities, and accomplishments that should characterize a teacher. Moreover, the results also indicate that teachers' professional accomplishments, together with the recognition they receive from administrators and supervisors have a strong positive relationship to their attitudes toward professional development. Finally, similar to the findings of studies conducted in various cultural contexts, this research suggests that, extrinsic and intrinsic factors must receive complex interpretation in relation to work satisfaction of teachers and their attitudes toward professional development. Professional development has attracted increasing attention in recent years. It has been recognised that institutional conditions –such as the need for improving quality – and individual needs of teachers – such as job satisfaction and personal/professional growth – are the two inextricable dimensions of professional development.*

Introduction

*V*arious researchers who explored the possible effects of a range of personal circumstances on professional development concluded that planning professional development needs to take into consideration the individual teachers' needs. (Joyce and Showels, 1988; Craft, 1995; Hargreaves, 1994; Raymond et all, 1994).

Raymond et. al. (1992) argue that planning professional development requires an analysis of the following factors: a) The context of the teachers' current work b) The teachers' reflections on their past /present personal and professional lives c) The teachers' plan for their future professional lives.

This approach to professional development at the level of individual teacher is called biographical (Rudduck, 1988) or autobiographical (Craft, 1996) approach. In other words, this approach seeks to express the teacher's perspective and is based on the view that teachers need to reflect on their own experience to commit themselves to change (Rudduck, 1992). Hence this approach focuses on teachers' personal views on the nature of teaching and learning, personal growth, and professional development.

This paper presents the results of a pilot study conducted to investigate the factors that have a bearing on professional development in an EFL context. Before the study, ten Turkish EFL teachers were asked to briefly express their views on professional development and responses similar to the following were received:

- Professional development means re-evaluating one's own practice, one which had not been previously subjected to questioning.
- It means coming to understand our tacit theories and beliefs and it changes our value system.
- It means extra work and collaboration.
- Professional development involves self-discovery, and assuming responsibility for the outcomes of one's practice

These teachers also seemed to agree that the process of professional development is closely related to one's satisfaction with the job.

The study

Three weeks after gathering the initial responses of ten teachers, thirty-one Turkish EFL teachers from five English medium high schools in Istanbul were interviewed. The purpose of this semi-structured interview was to find out what Turkish EFL teachers teaching in various Turkish high schools felt about their jobs and professional development.

Participants

Twenty-two of the teachers who participated in this research were female, nine were male. Three of them had two years of experience. The rest had an average of ten years of experience. These teachers had been working in these schools for a minimum of two years. Eighteen of these teachers were from English medium

state high schools and thirteen of them were from English medium private high schools.

Seven of the teachers who participated in the study were involved in a collaborative project with the aim of exploring their students' writing problems in EFL and investigating whether the implementation of process writing approach could alleviate these problems.

The semi-structured interview

The interview consisted of eighteen questions divided into three parts. Questions included in the first part investigated the teachers' work experience. The questions in the second and the third parts were aimed to tap what teachers felt about their jobs and their attitudes toward professional development (See Appendix I). Question five in part two was aimed at investigating teachers' job satisfaction based on the scales of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by Weiss et al. (1967), and used by Pennington and Riley (1991) for a survey of job satisfaction in ESL. In other words, in line with the MSQ scales, job facets such as work load, payment, advancement, creativity, ability utilisation, autonomy, politics and proceedings and authority were integrated into question five. Question six was aimed at investigating the issue of teacher burnout. The third part of the questionnaire, was aimed at investigating the teachers' attitudes toward professional development.

Findings and discussion

The results in relation to the questions tapping job satisfaction indicated low level of satisfaction with the payment and promotion and workload facets of the teaching profession. Specifically, there was a considerable dissatisfaction with recognition of achievement in the form of pay, benefits and promotions. Moreover, the teachers in general complained about the lack of opportunities for self expression, independence and professional responsibility. On the other hand, the teachers involved in the project mentioned previously seemed to be more satisfied with these internal motivators. In other words, the project seemed to enhance their self-esteem and motivation to continue to develop their professional competencies.

The discussions in relation to the question investigating whether the teachers felt disillusioned with their profession revealed that most of the teachers were moderately satisfied with their status in the community mainly because they were pleased with the performance of their students. However, in general, they thought that their self-esteem needs could be more satisfied if salaries were better.

Especially low salaries in comparison with those of foreign EFL teachers seemed to negatively affect their self-esteem. Moreover, findings of the survey indicated that the teachers wanted to be more involved in policy matters. They also believed that faculty meetings, and committee work could be improved in effectiveness. These findings seem to support the results of two studies conducted in the USA (Chase, 1985; Pennington, 1992).

According to the findings in relation to questions tapping teachers' attitudes toward professional development, the teachers in general believed that professional development involves consciousness raising which encourages assuming responsibility for one's own teaching and gradual empowerment. However, teachers working in the state schools in particular pointed out that in general there is a lack of initiative for professional development because they were not encouraged to express themselves due to set curricula and materials. They generally felt that changes, rather than dictated to teachers, could be brought about by teachers themselves; this would promote feelings of self actualisation and esteem. This finding once more highlights the need for interpreting 'the ownership of change' at the level of the individual teacher. In other words, the findings of this study reflect the principles of 'bottom-up' approaches to professional development. On the other hand, although these teachers complained about the curriculum and materials and thought that using materials dictated to them did not allow them much independence, the majority of them did not seem to be prepared to do much about it. For example, twelve teachers pointed out that they did not want to work for the materials development and testing offices of the school mainly because they thought such a job would require extra reading. These teachers in general believed that the role of a teacher is to teach, and that that was demanding enough as it was. Moreover, similar to the findings of studies conducted in various cultural contexts, these findings suggest that extrinsic and intrinsic factors must receive complex interpretation in relation to work satisfaction of teachers and their attitudes towards professional development.

In relation to the questions tapping the teachers' interest in reading in the field or attending seminars or workshops and keeping diaries, only six out of thirty-one teachers reported that they subscribed to ELT journals and four tried keeping diaries. On the other hand, eight teachers from private high schools reported that they could find some ELT journals in the resource room in their school.

Those who had not subscribed to ELT journals and those who reported that they never tried keeping diaries in general said that they were so overworked that they could not find time for reading journals and writing diaries. Seven teachers reported that they joined the Teachers' Center at the British Council. Moreover, twelve teachers pointed out that they tried to participate in local teacher workshops held at their institution or elsewehere. The rest attended workshops only when

they were organised in their own institutions. However, according to the teachers, these were one off workshops and were not organised projects which have professional development as their explicit aim. In other words, these workshops could not possibly prepare grounds for joint tasks and collaboration.

Further investigations about those seven teachers (three were working in state schools and four in private high schools) who reported that they joined the Teachers' Center at the British Council indicated that they were recognised by their colleagues and school authorities as essentially very active individuals engaging very enthusiastically with their environment. Discussions with these seven teachers revealed that they were interested in learning from their colleagues as well as in systematic self-study and testing of ideas by classroom research procedures. Four of these teachers believed that keeping diaries is one way of exploring their own practice over time. These seven teachers' professional enthusiasm about development and personal growth seem to support Joyce and Showers' (1988) beliefs that teachers' attitude toward professional development is affected by individual differences, i.e. the nature of their engagement with their environment and the state of their conceptual development.

In relation to the item investigating what the teachers thought of the concept of teacher as researcher, it was found that twenty one teachers felt that exchange of ideas and sharing of experiences could help them with reflection on their practice. However further discussions with these teachers revealed that most of them were not accustomed to systematically analysing their teaching behaviour or that of others. The remaining ten teachers (seven were involved in the collaborative project and three were from state schools) felt that the 'teacher-as-researcher' ideal implies systematic self-study and learning from the work of other teachers. They believed that in this way they would achieve professional and self-fulfilment. According to findings the teachers in general agreed that observing other teachers might be a useful way of collaboration and developing oneself. On the other hand, with the exception of the seven teachers involved in the collaborative project as mentioned earlier, and the three teachers from the two state schools, most teachers thought that being observed by other teachers could be rather disturbing. They felt that if they had to be observed, they preferred the evaluation of an expert eye. So they generally considered observations merely as a means of top-down evaluation conducted by outsiders rather than a way of peer-supported learning. This may be due to the fact that they are mostly observed once or twice a year by an inspector sent to schools by the state authorities.

On the other hand, the teachers involved in the collaborative project felt that teachers providing feedback to each other was more beneficial than being observed by an outsider. These findings seem to support the arguments of Zeichner et al. (1987:29) that colleagues have a greater effect than administrators,

even though their influence is conveyed most informally. Those teachers who reacted positively to both being observed and observing other teachers made comments similar to the following:

> Observations encourage collaboration, and you can learn a lot.
> Observations enable me to talk freely about my practices.
> Observations can help both parties to reevaluate values and beliefs.

In relation to the question tapping the teachers' attitudes toward participation in the high school-university partnership for practice teaching programmes of the faculties of education, teachers believed that participation in such programmes would be beneficial for them in the sense that sharing experiences with student teachers could be one way of reflecting on their own practices.

However, they also commented that such activities were time consuming. In addition, they suggested that there should be some kind of a recognition for those teachers who are willing to participate in such a partnership with the universities. Hence these teachers' views of professional learning were affected by their experience and the types of school they teach in. Day (1991) for example argues that teachers judge professional learning opportunities in line with their attitudes which he thinks are mostly formed by their experiences.

Conclusion

Most of the teachers who participated in this study, felt that professional development is a constant process which involves personal growth and self-empowerment. Yet, due to a heavy teaching load as well as have additional employment after school hours, they thought that there was not much time for such professional development activities.

The problem of low salary is a widespread phenomenon, especially in Turkish State schools. Low salaries force the majority of the teachers to look for a second job. Hence they almost have no time for designing their own materials and setting their own goals, let alone participating in other activities for professional development.

Furthermore, since research is not yet integrated into the role of a teacher in most schools in Turkey, teachers do not receive much help in order to develop observation and research skills which enable them to explore their own teaching or that of others and to analyse the outcomes of their practices in their classes. Hence, as Somekh (1993) has argued, teacher development programs need to instil the idea that research, like teaching, is a practical activity, and that it has a direct

bearing on what happens in the classroom. This approach to teacher development once more highlights the 'teacher as researcher' and 'action research' traditions, emphasising professional development based on self-study, action research and peer assisted learning.

In Turkey, especially in the majority of the state English medium high schools, there are not very many opportunities for teacher autonomy and decision-making. Teachers need to have some control over the situation, and that can happen if they understand, at the level of principle, what they are trying to achieve and why they are trying to achieve it. As Pennington (1992) points out, one cannot expect a person to be willing and committed to any work in which s/he has no power to change the state of the things. The fact that the findings of the study indicate that those teachers who were involved in a collaborative project in their school had more positive attitudes toward professional development supports this view. These teachers seemed to be committed to the planned changes in the pedagogy and curriculum in use because the research they were involved in gave them opportunities for reflecting on their practice freely, and 'deconstructing' (Fairclough, 1985) and transforming the existing beliefs where necessary. In this sense they were involved in professional development which engenders self-empowerment as 'a constant process of becoming' (Hopson et al., 1981).

Moreover, as the findings of this study indicate, there is no well-established system of recognition of quality in service in Turkish State schools. It is a well established fact that if teachers who perform remarkably well receive incentives and recognition, this could encourage others to improve their performance. As Joyce and Showers (1980) pointed out, teachers who are actively engaged in professional development may encourage their colleagues to make a similar commitment. However, one should also point out that individual differences may have a considerable effect on teachers' attitudes toward professional development.

Finally, the findings of the this study also suggest that the context of a teacher's current work plays a crucial role in creating a positive climate which engenders opportunities for teachers to realise their potential on their way to self-empowerment.

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APPENDIX I:
Semi-structured interview administered to 31 EFL teachers

Part I

1   sex: M _____ F _____
2   age: _____ school: _____
3   How long have you been teaching English?
4   How many years have you been teaching in this school?

Part II

5   What do you think of the general working conditions in your school?

a)   workload
b)   payment
c)   advancement
d)   The chance to do different things from time to time
e)   The chance to do something that makes use of your abilities
f)   The freedom to use your own judgement in the choice of teaching materials
g)   The competence of the head/principle in handling the teaching staff
h)   The chance to be somebody in your school

6   Have you ever felt 'fed up' with your profession? If so, why?

Part III

How would you define the following?

7   teacher development
8   teacher autonomy
9   teacher as researcher

What do you think of the following?

10   joining professional organizations
11   participating in ELT conferences or seminars

12   subscribing to ELT magazines
13   participating in local teacher workshops held at your school or at other institutions
14   holding regular meetings with colleagues in your school to discuss common problems
15   keeping diaries
16   observing other teachers or other teachers observing you
17   working for the materials and/or testing office in your school
18   participating in high school-university partnership for school experience and practice teaching programs.

MONDIALISATION ET IDENTITÉ CULTURELLE DANS LES PAYS DU MAGHREB: RÔLE DE L'ÉDUCATION

AHMED CHABCHOUB

> *'Avec la mondialisation, nous sommes entrés*
> *dans une ère de transculturalité*
> *avec ses riques et ses périls, mais aussi*
> *ses chances à saisir.'*
> — Frederico Mayor, 1998

Amorcée au début du 20ème siécle, suite au processus de colonisation notamment, la modernisation des sociètés maghrébines, connaît avec le phénomène actuel de mondialisation, une forte accélération que la proximité géographique avec l'Europe et le développement vertigineux des moyens d'information et de communication rendent d'autant plus inéluctable. Economique et politique au départ, ce processus de mondialisation débouche inévitablement sur le culturel, puisque les réseaux ainsi créés vont véhiculer les patterns du nouvel ordre mondial, arrosant ainsi toute la planéte de nouvelles valeurs.

Ce premier constat nous autorise à dire que le processus d'acculturation que nous impose la mondialisation, à force de nouvelles technologies de communication de plus en plus sophistiquées, nous conduit, à terme, vers une nécessaire restructuration de l'identité maghrébine et son repositionnement face aux modèles occidentaux en gènèral et anglo-saxons en particulier?

Et pour faire face à ces défis, la sociète maghrébine n'est-elle pas appelée tout à la fois, à s'inscrire dans cette dynamique globalisante et à sauvegarder sa personnalité de base ?

Quel rôle l'Education peut-elle jouer dans ce 'challenge'?

Porteuse de tout projet de société, l'Education n'est-elle pas appelée à accompagner ces transformatios culturelles en les expliquant aux jeunes et en amenant ces derniers à y adhèrer, sans nier pour autant leurs valeurs fondamentales? L'Education n'est-elle pas également appelée à apprendre à ces mêmes jeunes à sauvegarder leur culture originelle et à la faire connaître aux autres habitants du village planétaire ?

Cette communication essaiera de répondre à ces interrogations en abordant successivement les trois thèmes suivants:

– Mondialisation et mutations culturelles
– Apprentissage des outils de la mondialisation
– Education et défense de la personnalité maghrébine.

Mondialisaton et mutations culturelles

Initiée par la révolution informatique des deux dernières décennies, la mondialisation devait raccourcir l'espace et le temps de l'homme contemporain pour faire de la planète une grand Village, selon l'expression consacrée. Qu'il s'agisse de moyens de communication (avion,TGV..) ou de télécommunications (TV par satellite, Fax, Visioconférence, Internet, GSM....), tout est aujourd'hui mis en oeuvre pour raccourcir les distances et les délais. Une technologie comme internet permet actuellement à tout abonné d'entrer en contact avec n'importe quel autre abonné (quel que soit son emplacement sur la planète) en un temps record et de lui transmettre des informations qui, en d'autres temps, aurait mis des semaines pour parvenir à son destinataire. Les évènements politiques, sociaux aussi bien que les guerres et les catastrophes naturelles sont captés par les chaînes de TV et retransmis par satellite à tous les habitants du Grand village, en temps réel. Mieux encore, cette maîtrise du temps et de l'espace s'accompagne par une diminution des coûts qui rend l'utilisation de ces nouvelles technologies encore plus attrayante, parce que compétitive.

La généralisation progressive de ces nouveaux moyens de communication à tous les habitants de la planète, va créer de nouvelles courroies de transmission des valeurs et des modèles, courroies d'autant plus efficaces qu'elles sont rapides et attrayantes (pensons aux images numériques de la TV). C'est ainsi que de nouveaux 'patterns' vestimentaires, musicaux, architecturaux, cullinaires, esthétiques... vont pouvoir quitter leur lieu d'origine pour nomadiser à travers le grand village planètaire, offrant aux plus fragiles (les adolescents, les démunis......), des objets de fixation et de désir. Les nouvelles connaissances scientifiques, les récentes découvertes technologiques vont également emprunter les mêmes canaux de transmission pour venir arroser nos sociètés et bousculer nos certitudes.

Cette circulation des idées et des valeurs est actuellement à sens unique (cad, du Nord vers le Sud, pour les raisons que nous connaissons tous), ce qui risque de rendre la circulation de l'information (élaborée dans le nord) quelque peu agressive et de donner à la mondialisation, aux yeux de certains, un relent de néo-colonialisme.

Mais quel que soit notre jugement de valeur, cette nouvelle donne va accélérer, on s'en doute, le processus d'acculturation des sociétés maghrébines, processus commencé lentement au début du XXéme siécle. Or, à peine commençons-nous, grâce à l'éducation massive des jeunes notamment, à assimiler les valeurs de la Modernité, qu'on nous parle déjé du passage urgent vers la post-modernité, ce nouvel avatar de la mondialisation. Or ce passage rapide d'un modèle culturel endogène vers un modèle culturel doublement exogène (il est occidental et il est

américain) est de nature à produire des interférences d'autant plus difficiles à gérer par nos concitoyens (qui ont trois mille ans d'histoire derrière eux) que nos sociétés n'ont eu le temps d'inventer et de mettre en place de nouveaux mécanismes de transition.

Et c'est là que l'éducation peut intervenir pour expliquer ce phénomène complexe aux jeunes, les convaincre à y prendre une part active et leur donner par là même les outils intellectuels pour créer des passerelles entre le local et l'Universel.

Apprentissage des outils de la mondialisation

La première leçon (argumentée) que l'école doit apprendre aux jeunes, à propos de la mondialisation, est qu'il est de l'intérêt de tous de s'y inscrire, à la fois pour être dans le sens de l'Histoire et pour préserver l'avenir. Se soustraire à cette dynamique globale, sous prétexte qu'elle est acculturante, est un acte suicidaire pour tous. L'histoire récente a montré que nos sociétés n'évoluent que par acculturation et que toute velléité de fermeture culturelle conduit à terme vers une regression sociale et culturelle.

Mais il ne suffit pas de faire ces déclarations solennelles pour s'inscrire dans la mondialisation. Encore faudrait-il se donner les moyens opérationnels pour y participer. Ces moyens sont de trois sortes : communicationnels, technologiques et éthiques.

Les moyens de communication

Pour s'inscrire dans la mondialisation, il faut dialoguer avec les habitants du grand Village, échanger avec eux biens matériels et valeurs culturelles. Plus que jamais, l'apprentissage des langues étrangères les plus usités (même si elles sont dominantes) devient ici une nécessité d'adaptation au contexte global de la mondialisation. Pour communiquer avec les autres habitants du village cosmopolite, il faut maintenant connaître trois ou quatre langues.

Le Maghrébin n'a pas à se faire de complexes vis-à-vis des langues, puisqu'il a toujours appris celles des autres, au gré des configurations politiques et culturelles du monde. C'est ainsi que Marrou rapporte dans son *Histoire de l'éducation pendant l'Antiquité* (1955) que l'africain scolarisé du 4ème siècle parlait trois langues: sa langue maternelle (punique ou berbère); le latin et le grec.

C'est dire que nous ne pouvons gagner le pari de la mondialisation qu'avec plus d'éducation devant permettre d'apprendre les langues étrangères à un plus grand nombre de nos concitoyens.

L'apprentissage des nouvelles technologies

On ne peut vouloir être citoyen du monde et surseoir à l'apprentissage des nouvelles technologies, en premier lieu, l'usage de l'ordinnateur. L'ordinnateur devrait aujourd'hui avoir sa place à l'école autant que le livre. C'est tout à la fois un outil d'apprentissage, un mode de communication et la clé sans laquelle on ne peut pas maîtriser les nouvelles technologies de l'information.

L'usage d'Internet à l'école, avec les mille et une possibilités de dialogue et d'instruction qu'il offre aux élèves, devrait lui aussi être généralisé à toutes nos écoles, comme c'est le cas en Europe et en Amérique. Par ailleurs, nous sommes convaincus que l'apprentissage de ces technologies à l'école (avec la dimension humaine qui accompagne toute oeuvre éducative) leur donne une dimension culturelle et humaniste qu'elles ne sauraient avoir si elles étaient acquises ailleurs. La présence de l'éducateur, comme accompagnateur averti tout autant de leurs valeurs que de leurs limites, leur assure un usage à la fois modéré et adapté aux circonstances.

L'apprentissage de la nouvelle éthique

Apprendre à vivre dans le grand Village planétaire, cosmopolite et multiculturel, requiert des valeurs humanistes et universelles dont l'enseignement et la diffusion reviennent encore une fois à l'Ecole.

La tolérance (cad l'acceptation de l'autre comme différent de soi), l'ouverture à l'autre (cad la connaissance de sa culture et de ses valeurs), la convivialité (cad la capacité de vivre avec l'autre même s'il est différent) constituent l'ossature de la nouvelle éthique universelle qu'impose la mondialisation à tous les citoyens du grand village.

Là aussi, il ne s'agit pas d'endoctriner les jeunes en leur imposant cette nouvelle éthique, au nom d'une certaine mondialisation triomphante. Il s'agit de les convaincre des changements culturels en oeuvre un peu partout dans le monde, et de l'intérêt que nous avons tous à nous y inscrire, en toute connaissance de cause et avec toute la modération qu'impose la sagesse du maghrébin.

L'école peut ainsi prendre appui sur l'histoire pour convaincre les élèves que pour survivre et évoluer, les sociétés n'ont pas intérêt à prendre le contre sens de l'histoire. La géographie, en expliquant les proximités, peut également prendre une part active à cette oeuvre de conscientisation des jeunes.

Ici plus que partout ailleurs, le rôle de l'école reste irremplaçable: en expliquant méthodiquement les enjeux culturels, en démontrant rationnellement les choix et argumentant logiquement les débats, l'Ecole est l'institution la mieux outillée pour créer cet homme nouveau et lui apprendre à vivre dans le Grand village et à prendre part à ses activités.

Education et defense de la personnalité Maghrebine

Venons-en maintenant aux retombées culturelles de ce processus de mondialisation. La personnalité maghrébine (à peine sortie du modéle traditionnel) subit de plein fouet les patterns triomphants de la mondialisation.

Etant donné la souplesse de leurs structures mentales et affectives, les jeunes sont généralement plus perméables à ce phénomène que les autres. C'est ce qui nous autorise à parler ici de processus d'acculturation. Ce processus risque à terme, si l'Education n'y prend garde, de déstructurer la personnalité de base des maghrébins.

Comment l'éducation peut-elle gérer au mieux ce processus complexe? Comment peut-elle tirer profit du phénomène de globalisation, tout en sauvegardant l'essentiel? Terrible paradoxe. Mais l'éducation, en tant qu'action qui s'adresse à l'être humain, complexe et multidimentionnel, n'est-elle pas dans son essence, une gestion des paradoxes?

L'histoire de l'éducation montre que ce paradoxe peut être géré pédagogiquement et cela, en deux temps:

Premièrement, apprendre aux jeunes, à l'école (en cours d'education civique par exemple), que la vie sociale n'étant pas faite seulement d'instrumentalités, tout citoyen ne peut garantir sa perennité qu'en s'inscrivant dans une culture locale. Or, certains éléments de la culture maghrébine traditionnelle (la famille, le respect des personnes agées, etc........) peuvent être retenus et valorisés en tant qu'antidot à la dépersonnalisation secrétée par la société post-moderne. Dans le même sillage, l'école devrait également convaincre les jeunes que l'histoire, vivier des valeurs, fonctionne pour chaque individu comme source d'enracinement dans une communauté culturelle. C'est dire qu'il ne nous suffit pas d'enseigner l'histoire du Maghreb aux élèves; encore faut-il leur apprendre à s'y ressourcer.

L'école peut également persuader les jeunes maghrébins qu'on peut tout à la fois être citoyen du monde, utiliser les nouvelles technologies de l'information, parler trois ou quatre langues étrangères et revendiquer sa culture originelle. Sans aller jusqu'é l'exemple typique du Japon, nous pouvons citer la cas de la génération maghrébine des 50/60 ans qui a su accèder à la modernité tout en gardant des liens privilègiés avec sa culture originelle.

Encore une fois l'école a une tâche de conviction et non de conversion. C'est à ce prix qu'on peut assurer à cette opération succès et pérennité.

Dans un deuxième temps, on pourrait apprendre aux jeunes les méthodologies devant leur permettre de faire connaître leur culture et leurs valeurs aux autres habitants du grand village et ce, dans un double objectif: enrichir la culture générale du vis-à-vis et lui donner l'opportunité d'y trouver une solution aux effets secondaires de la post-modernité. La maîtrise des nouvelles technologies de

communication à l'école (Internet, fabrication de CdRom.. etc) devrait permettre aux jeunes de pouvoir 'vendre' leur culture aux autres jeunes du grand Village. Pour ce faire, l'instrumentalité ne suffit pas; encore faut-il y croire. Croire à sa culture et en être fier (sans narcissisme, ni fanatisme) est l'oeuvre de l'école et des éducateurs maghrébins. Et ils ont démontré par le passé qu' ils en sont capables.

Conclusion

Qu'est ce qu'être maghrébin à l'ère de la mondialisation?

Cela consiste tout d'abord à se mettre dans le sens de l'histoire et à savoir s'adapter au nouveau contexte de la mondialisation, tout en sauvegardant l'essentiel.

L'histoire récente du Maghreb montre que le citoyen maghrébin a toujours su s'adapter aux nouvelles conjonctures et en tirer profit, tout en restant fidèle à sa personnalité de base. Que dire lorsque l'Education, devenue depuis peu à la portée de tous les jeunes citoyens, met à la disposition de ces derniers les moyens techniques et humains devant les aider à évoluer intelligemment dans ce nouvel environnement, qui recèle autant de risques que de chances.

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CONFERENCE REPORT

TOWARDS A CRITICAL MULTICULTURALISM IN THE MEDITERRANEAN

Reflections on the conference: 'Il Mare che Unisce. Scuola, Europa e Mediterraneo' (The Sea that Unites. School, Europe and the Mediterranean), organised by the Ministero della Pubblica Istruzione – Italy, Sestri Levante (Genoa), 22 -24 October, 1998).

PETER MAYO

Migration, ethnic co-existence, inter-religious dialogue, gender politics, anti-racist education and the idea of a 'Multicultural European City' were among the themes discussed at a recent conference on education and multiculturalism in. the Mediterranean, held at Sestri Levante, near Genoa, in October 1998. The participants at this conference sought to grapple with the issue of social difference and explore possibilities for cultural conviviality, based on solidarity rather than on the condescending concept of 'tolerance', in different parts of the region. The conference, organised by Italy's Ministero della Pubblica Istruzione and the *Comune* of Chiavari, brought together representatives of several interesting projects. in the Mediterannean, including, to mention three examples: the *Laboratorio Progetto Poiesis*, based in Bari and which is responsible for such initiatives as the Progetto Petra (focusing on stone construction and the countryside in the various parts of the Mediterranean), the development of the 'Association of Students – Mediterranean – Europe', the March seminars (these foster dialogue between people from different parts of the Mediterranean, including intellectuals and school children), and the journal, *Da Qui*; the *Mediterranean Media – Associazione Internazionale delle Donne per la Comunicazione* (Mediterranean Media - the International Association of Women for Communication), with its publication of the bilingual (Italian and English) *Mediterranean Review* (see Kathryn Rountree's review of the publication in this issue) and its Mediterranean Media Services involving the publication of books and other material, the promotion of literary competition, bibliographical and documentary research, the creation of data processing systems and the creation of material in CD ROM ; the *Labmed – Fondazione Laboratorio Mediterraneo* (Labmed – Mediterranean Laboratory Foundation), with its various projects focusing on the strife torn regions of the former Yugoslavia, its co-organisation (with the Catalan Institute of the Mediterranean) of the Euromed Civil Forum and

other projects involving studies, publications, conferences, meetings, research programmes and the conservation of the environment and heritage.

The conference focused on multicultural education, with special reference to the situation of the host country, Italy. Like other 'Latin Arc' countries, Italy, which historically witnessed mass waves of emigration from the peninsula to various parts of the world, not to mention the process of 'in-migration' from its Southern regions to its industrialised North, is a recipient of immigrants from the southern Mediterranean, mainly from Arab countries. Migration has always been a feature of this part of the world. The situation encountered by Italy, as a recipient of migrants from the southern Mediterranean, is also typical of other Northern Mediterranean states. This brings to the fore the issue of a critical multiculturalism with an emphasis on the valorization of different cultures, including different religions. A key concept at this conference was that of the 'European Multicultural City', the topic of a specific workshop which drew inspiration from a talk delivered by Prof. Alessandro Bosi, a sociologist from the *Università degli Studi* of Parma, during one of the plenary sessions. Prof. Bosi argued that the school should encourage a 'bifocal' view of these multicultural cities - (a) 'from above' to explore the roots, identities and historical, urbanistic and geographical developments (b) 'at the level of human interaction' (the 'level of the person') to capture the conflicts/tensions and also the potential richness of a society characterised by difference.

Throughout the workshops, practitioners and policy makers provided examples of attempts being made to foster a genuinely multicultural education. Examples included that of story telling by children of different ethnic background intended to bring about a genuine cross-cultural exchange. Contained in the fables being narrated are aspects of the children's own ethnic backgrounds which attest to the diversity of narrative traditions in existence in this particular region of the world, a diversity which is now being reflected in the multicultural Italian classroom. The focus on story telling gained particular significance at this conference, given that it was being held in Sestri Levante, a locality in the Genoa area which has strong connections with the world of fables. Hans Christian Andersen resided there. In fact, the place hosts an international literary manifestation, concerning fables, strongly associated with the figure of the Danish writer. The award in question is, in fact, known as the *Premio Andersen*. This literary manifestation now has a new dimension focusing on Mediterranean countries, the project in question being called 'Fiabe del Mediterraneo – Premio Andersen' ('Fables of the Mediterranean – the Andersen Prize'). Importance was also accorded, at the conference, to the issue of language learning. One of the ideas which was forcefully put forward is that, as far as immigrants from the South are concerned, there should be teaching in both the 'new' language, the language of the receiving country, and in the language of the children's country of origin.

The conference brought to the fore around 60 projects being carried out in schools with a view to fostering greater multicultural understanding. The discussion was not confined to issues concerning race and ethnicity since gender issues and the question of inter-religious dialogue were also given prominence. An address by On. Silvia Costa, President of Italy's *Commissione Nazionale per la Parità* (National Commission for Parity) highlighted the lack of gender equity still in existence in Italian society and the educational system's implication in this regard. She also focused on the intersections between ethnicity and gender and referred to the work of the Commission in bringing together immigrant women at Palazzo Chigi to formulate proposals which the Commission then forwards to the Italian Government. On. Costa emphasised the need for immigrants to be involved in policy making affecting their own lives.

The theme of inter-religious dialogue was a key issue at this conference with presentations by, among others, Tullia Levi, the representative of Italy's Hebrew community, Paolo Naso, the Director of the programme 'Protestantesimo' (Protestantism) on Rai 2 (the Italian State Television's second channel) and by Shaykh'Abd Wahid Pallavicini, the President of CO.RE.IS (the Italian Islamic Religious Community). All speakers focused on some of the misconceptions which exist in Italy regarding these religions, one of the causes of lack of understanding and solidarity in a society characterised by social difference. Shaykh'Abd Wahid Pallavicini also highlighted some points of convergence between Islam and Christianity, knowledge of which can serve to foster greater understanding among people. In this case, it is not just a question of inter-ethnic understanding since, as the speaker underlined, one of the greatest misconceptions concerning Islam is its strong identification, in the minds of many, with the Arab world. In effect, the Arab world is characterised by difference also in terms of religious affiliation, while Islam is a truly international religion which knows no geographical, racial and ethnic boundaries (hence the existence of an Italian Muslim community). Some of these misconceptions abound in school texts, and other forms of cultural production in Italy, a point underlined in one of the introductory presentations at the conference made by Mahmoud Salem Elsheikh from the *Commissione per le Politiche di Integrazione* (Commission for the Politics of Integration), in Italy's Department of Social Affairs. The point is well illustrated in a paper by the same speaker distributed at the conference and which is titled: 'Le omissioni della cultura italiana' (the omissions of Italian culture).

The issue of inter-ethnic and inter-religious solidarity has prompted me to engage in a few reflections which, I feel, are relevant to the theme of the conference. References were made, throughout the three days of the conference, to aspects of the artistic heritage of Mediterranean countries. The Southern European regions of the Mediterranean have been traditionally steeped in

Catholicism. In these regions, one comes across a eurocentric cultural heritage that reflects a colonial past, especially in centres of colonial power such as Spain and Portugal, and a past marked by crusades against the Ottoman Empire. As such, a critical education programme in the Southern European regions would enable its participants to engage critically with this heritage and its *politics of representation*. Exotic and often demonic representations of 'Alterity' abound throughout this cultural heritage, be it the colonized indigenous populations of the Americas or the 'Saracen', the latter constituting the traditional 'Other' in relation to whom 'Christian Europe' constructed itself. Certainly, Edward Said's classic, *'Orientalism'*, would help in our understanding of such a politics of representation. I would focus, as an example here, on a church I know well - St John's Co-Cathedral in Valletta, Malta's capital city. It serves as a pedagogical site for many, be they schoolchildren, adult learners, foreign visitors, participants in foreign Elderhostel programs, etc. Generally regarded as one of the finest treasures of Baroque Art, it was built by the Sovereign Order of St. John as its conventual church. The Order's commissioned works of art contained exoticised baroque images relating to its war against the Ottoman Empire. In a recent piece of work, my colleague, Carmel Borg, and I asked: 'What effect can such representation of the Muslim 'Other' have on present day racial politics in Malta with regard to Arabs, in a context characterised by geographical proximity to the Arab world, the presence of an Arab (mainly Libyan) community and an evident eagerness by political and opinion leaders to assert a European identity?' Similar questions can be posed in relation to the politics of representation in other museums and archaeological sites, not only in Malta but in various other parts of the region and, I suspect, elsewhere. A similar politics of representation characterises the realm of popular culture in the Southern European – or Northern Mediterranean region – with the Sicilian marionette shows, involving Crusaders and the Saracen 'Other', being a case in point.

Relations between the EU and the Mediterranean were also referred to at the conference which focused, for the most part, on Italy, one of the Union's member states. As Sandro Pistacchi of *Il Secolo XIX* pointed out, the conference drew inspiration from the thought, expressed by the Rome based Croatian scholar, Pedrag Matvejevic (originally scheduled to open the conference), that one cannot construct the European Union without reference to the Mediterranean: a Europe separated from its cradle. This is likened to the formation of a person involving the denial of this person's childhood and adolescence. It is imperative, however, that this concept of the Mediterranean contribution to the formation of Europe, a Europe characterised by ethnic and racial difference, does not refer solely to the traditional basis of Western Eurocentric civilisation, notably the Greco-Roman classical tradition. It should, on the contrary, also entail a recognition and

affirmation of the contribution to European culture of traditions which normally lie outside the Eurocentric framework, as is the case with the Arab and Persian traditions.

The issue of critical multiculturalism is key for the purposes of conviviality in the Northern regions of the Mediterranean. One hopes that lessons from the U.S. and Canadian experiences are learnt so that the policies concerned do not result in the process of containment and absorption which characterise multiculturalism in these two countries and elsewhere. Otherwise, the 'mainstream' culture would remain the invisible norm presupposed by the ethnic 'other'. And the sense of 'mainstream' would be particularly strong among dominant groups in this region where the idea of , say, a 'second or third generation' Italian or French person is unheard of, unlike the case with dominant groups in the USA, Australia or Canada. The sense of *Alterity* could even be stronger, as a result!

Critical pedagogues addressing this issue can draw inspiration from a dramatic representation to which participants at the Sestri conference were exposed. It was carried out by a troupe of players from the *Laboratorio Interculturale Comune di Genova* and involved a juxtaposition of situations concerning the harsh realities of migration, both past and present. The plight of Italians migrating to the U.S., Argentina and elsewhere, and of Italians from the South moving to the country's Northern regions, was juxtaposed against that of Africans (including Arab) and eastern europeans, with their personal narratives, moving into Italy in search of pastures new. The representation was moving and revealing, based on a dialectical interplay between past (a kind of 'redemptive remembrance') and present in the hope of a transformed critical multicultural future.

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[1] This report contains parts of an interview with the present writer, carried out by Peter McLaren, which will appear in a forthcoming issue of the *International Journal of Educational Reform*.

[2] For a comprehensive annotated list of Italian projects concerning the Mediterranean, see 'Mappa dei progetti italiani sul Mediterraneao', Commissione Nazionale sull' Educazione Interculturale, Ministero della Pubblica Istruzione.

[3] See 'Mappa dei progetti italiani sul Mediterraneao', Commissione Nazionale sull' Educazione Interculturale, Ministero della Pubblica Istruzione, p. 5.

⁴ See brochure, Media Mediterranean, Associazione Internazionale delle Donne per la Comunicazione, Calabria, pp. 2 and 3.

⁵ See 'Mappa dei progetti italiani sul Mediterraneao', Commissione Nazionale sull' Educazione Interculturale, Ministero della Pubblica Istruzione, p. 6.

⁶ As reported by Vichi De Marchi, in 'Il Mediterraneo ha un faro a Sestri. Un seminario esamina 60 progetti dedicati alla multiculturalità', *L'Unità*, 23/10/98, p. 22.

⁷ As reported by Cristina de Bernardis, in 'Intervista a Silvia Costa al convegno di Sestri levante sul multiculturalismo "Anche a scuola il razzismo è un figlio dell'ignoranza" ', *Il Lavoro*, 20/10/98, p. 11

⁸ See Borg, C and Mayo, P. (1999), 'Malta' in Chadwick, A and Stannett, A. (eds.), *European Perspectives on Museums and the Education of Adults*, Leicester, NIACE.

⁹ Sandro Pistacchi in 'A Sestri seminario nel segno del mare che unisce', *Il Secolo XIX*, 23/10/98, p. 10.

¹⁰ See, for instance, Peter McLaren (1997), *Revolutionary Multiculturalism*, Boulder Co., Westview Press. See also Borg, C., Mayo, P and Sultana R.G. (1997), 'Revolution and Reality. An Interview with Peter McLaren' in Pinar, W. (ed.), *Curriculum and Identity*, New York, Garland.

¹¹ On the issue of 'redemptive remembrance', see: the last chapter of Simon, R.I. (1992), *Teaching Against the Grain. Texts for a Pedagogy of Possibility*, Toronto, OISE Press; McLaren and Da Silva, T.T. (1993), 'Decentering Pedagogy. Critical Literacy. Resistance and the Politics of Memory' in McLaren, P and Leonard, P.(eds.), *Paulo Freire. A Critical Encounter*, New York and London, Routledge.

EDUCATION IN THE MEDITERRANEAN

Albania

During the recent years, significant changes have happened in the Albanian education set-up, in the framework of the reform of the whole education system. These changes are of two kinds:

First: Albania had to renovate educational structures and concepts as well as overcome the backwardness inherited in education because of the isolation imposed by the totalitarian regime.

Second: Our education is involved in profound transformation processes in compliance with the demands of a democratic society in the conditions of a market economy.

Since last year, the pre-university level has started to apply the 5-day working week. In addition, a new system of teacher training has been put in place, using distance education, which is most effective in the conditions of Albania's poor infrastructure and mountainous relief. In the beginning, this program was piloted under the consultation of the Open University, U.K. and now it is being applied in several content areas and continually extended to various education level. The schools are now using standards for various subjects (content and performance standards) developed by education researchers at the Institute of Pedagogical Research. Standards have been developed for 5 subjects areas of compulsory education and now work is under way for standards in other subjects.

In the higher education and especially Teacher Education system major work is being done with regard to restructuring teacher education, a project supported by the TEMPUS Phare program. An essential change in pre-service teacher education is the application of a new system of school experience for student-teachers under the guidance of senior mentor teachers. Now students spend in schools around 20% of their total school time, compared to the 5-9% in the past years. All the curricula have been radically changed and this is supported by an extensive publications program to the aid of students. However, the needs are still great.

Training Centres have been set up at the Teacher Education Faculties, with high-tech facilities and other resources, books, software, etc. These centres are used by University professors, students and school teachers who co operate with the universities and pre-service school experience schemes. These universities are also applying new entrance and graduation criteria, focusing more on professional qualities of teachers and values they impart to students as citizens of a democratic society.

The development of education in Albania has been greatly supported by AEDP and other foreign institutions.

Bardhyl Musai

France

Education reform has always been a hot potato in France, one guaranteed to bring both teachers and students on the streets to demonstrate. When Claude Allègre, a university physics professor of international repute and a close friend of Prime Minister Lionel Jospin, was given the education portfolio nearly two years ago, teachers initially where pleased. At last a working teacher had moved into the job. Since then, however, due to his plans to reduce posts and his attacks against teachers for higher than average rates of absenteeism he has been at almost permanent war with the teaching profession. Now he is trying to lighten the national school program, saying it is too hard for the average adolescent. While some agree that, with new subjects such as technology entering the programme, it is important to ease off elsewhere, others say this is simply a way of lowering standards. This month, the conflict has grown with street marches and strikes to protest a range of elementary and secondary school reforms. Thus far in the months-long standoff, the teachers' labor unions have failed in a manifest effort to push Jospin into dismissing an education minister that many in his Socialist Party now consider a liability. For, of all professional groups, teachers are the most reliable supporters of the moderate left. With an election test coming in a national vote for the European Parliament in June, many of Jospin's supporters are expressing alarm that teachers might desert and humiliate them. A constant refrain of the teachers' unions is that any reform will need more staff. In elementary schooling, because of falling demographics, the minister makes the opposite argument. When the next school year begins in September, there will be some 30,000 fewer students than last year, justifying his decision to redeploy teachers to places where he says they are most needed.

Gisela Baumgratz Gangl

(Following Julian Nundy's article 'Teachers up in arms again',
The Toqueville Connection, *Politics and Society*, March 18, 1999).

Greece

The following educational developments are in process:
- Law 2640/98 concerning the upgrading of Technical Professional Education (TEE).
- Establishment of 74 new departments at the Universities and technological institutes of education (TEI).
- Educational decentralisation: There has been legislation for the participation of school committees for economic management of programs (It has been applied

in 500 schools all over the country via the project SEPPE (school programs of experimental application) and it has been supported by European funding-EPEAEK).

- A six month in-service training for teachers for secondary education has been legislated in all subject areas of the curriculum.
- A long distance in-service training program for teachers has been established which will constitute part of an international network with six countries (England, France, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Greece) via the creation of a Euro-ISDN with the intent of self-education, cooperative learning, virtual classroom, teleconferences.
- Introduction of innovations in Greek education through the project of SEPPE concerning: Teaching all subjects of the curriculum via new technologies (sciences, math, social sciences, foreign languages, etc); other programs include: career orientation via teleconference, intercultural education, consumer education, health education, environmental education, European dimension in education, etc. Thus far, 500 schools are involved, 7000 teachers, 65000 students.
- Pilot program: restructuring of school space (functional modernisation of schools); each subject is taught in its own room, with the establishment of a multiple network of classrooms in 160 schools (Gymnasia and Lycea) all over the country.
- The program 'unified Lyceum' is in process; creation of infrastructure (laboratories for physics, chemistry, computers and technologies in all single Lycea of the country).
- The writing of new books for the 'unified Lyceum' along with the development of supplementary educational materials and media (CD ROM, etc.).

George Flouris

Israel

Among the many activities of the Israeli educational system, I would like to mention two recent innovations, which, although they do not affect the entire school population, mark significant changes in official perceptions of the functions of education. One has to do with the recognition of learning disabilities as a 'specific incapacity'; the other with the recognition that in a community of immigrants, parents' incognizance of the school language can be a stumbling block to children's success at school.

Like educators in the West, Israelis have become increasingly aware of the fact that a learning disability is not necessarily evidence of low intelligence.

.This may have something to do with the fact that Nelson Rockefeller, who was dyslectic and dysgraphic, could fill a high political office. In the long run, his story has contributed to lightening the burdens of millions of children with similarly diagnosed disabilities. Until now, the unfortunate experience of pupils in Israel has been that precisely the skills that a goodly number of children lack are often used as criteria for measuring intellectual aptitude. Capping a programme of inquiry conducted during the last several years, the Israeli Ministry of Education has apprised teachers and examiners of new guidelines, which, it is hoped, will make it possible for pupils with learning difficulties to demonstrate their intellectual talents. The specifications relate to methods for testing pupils with learning disabilities, criteria for reviewing their exam papers, and the announcement of support for diagnosing the relevant student population. Perhaps the most important breakthrough is the last. A fund has been set up for public centers where assessments of learning disabilities will be subsidised and strategies for treatment will be designed. In the schools, students with recognised learning disabilities will be tested orally wherever possible. When exams have to be written, such students will be allowed time extensions wherever needed. The Ministry has, moreover, instructed examiners to ignore spelling mistakes and infelicities in handwriting. The goal, as stated by the Minister of Education, Mr. Levy, is to ensure that a learning disability will not in itself prevent 'even one pupil from realizing his full potential'.

The second innovation is the publication of a modest book. An NGO, the Public Committee for Education in the Periphery (neighborhoods on the outskirts of cities, development towns, and villages), has issued an Amharic-Hebrew *Dictionary of Education*. The publication is designed to help immigrants from Ethiopia become acquainted with the Israeli educational system, to learn pertinent concepts, as well as their rights as learners and parents. The dictionary includes short texts about education, directions on how to make various arrangements, and recommendations of the Ministry of Education. It signals a relatively new flexibility of the Establishment in recognising the difficulties that attend the learning of Hebrew by adult immigrants. The Committee has created a bridge between Ethiopian parents and their children's schools in this commendable, if belated, publication.

As noted at the start, each of these initiatives has reference to a relatively small proportion of Israeli pupils and parents. But each spells a kind of deliverance for the community involved, and denotes a practical concern for individuals who need backing.

Devorah Kalekin-Fishman

Italy

The architecture of education and training institutions overall may possibly be facing radical change in the near future or – alternatively – keep unchanged for the next millennium, with individual craftsmanship alert to 'arrangiarsi' (the Italian national verb) and keep healthy in spite of inept and old fashioned institutions. This could perhaps be labeled as a case of 'social viscosity'. Significantly, in the first cabinet after the elections of 1996, both MPI (the Ministry of 'public instruction' as it is called in Italian) and MURST (that of University – i.e. Higher Education – and scientific research) were under the responsibility of the same Minister, Mr Luigi Berlinguer. (In the current cabinet the responsibilities have been once again split, Mr Berlinguer keeping MPI, and another Minister running MURST). In January 1997 the Minister announced the project of fully restructuring all educational cycles, from preschool to upper secondary. Compulsory schooling should start at 5 instead of 6 years of age. School leaving age should be brought up in phases to eventually reach 18. According to the current legislation, the definition of compulsory schooling is unclear to most people, politicians and decision-makers included. Most keep saying that school leaving age is 14. False and wrong. Obligation to attend school ends if and when, at the age of 15, one has completed at least eight years of schooling. Now, starting at six and attending primary school for 5 years and junior high for 3, eight years are completed at the age of 14. However, all those who do not complete the 3 years of junior high school must satisfy the other condition too in order to be free from further schooling obligations. According to the original plan announced by the ministry, obligation should be first extended to the end of the 16th year of age or, in terms of years of schooling (starting at five) to a total of eleven years. Now, following a pattern that is neither new nor unknown, the hardest resistance to change came from inside the school structure, with both teachers and pupils being very vocal against all proposals coming from the Ministry. Since changing the whole architecture is not something that could be decided by the executive power alone, the issue is obviously going through the legislative, where it elicited the highly Mediterranean art of exchanging gossip with decision making and calling that gossip 'politics'. (Incidentally: in English – if not in Italian and French – the same word 'party' means a social festive gathering where gossip is obvious and common, but also a political organisation that should in principle be oriented to policy making...). The result is often compromise. And such compromise is often neither rational nor reasonable. In this specific instance the compromise that has come out of the Parliament is a transition act by which school leaving age is raised by one year. The period of 'transition' is undetermined. Without a single exception, all newspapers announced that something that has been among the laws of the

Republic since 1962... has been voted by the Parliament in 1999! I am here obviously referring to the way the news circulated: 'School leaving age raised to 15', while the decision has been to add one more year of school to basic education. Be it as it may, it is difficult to think of a worse compromise: making the first year of upper secondary school compulsory will not make the slightest difference for all those that have already planned to take that path. And it is nothing short of a waste of time for those who, without obligation, would not have wanted to go on with schooling.

Meanwhile the hottest issue concerning education is currently that of the so-called 'parity', by which those who run schools called 'non statali' (a tricky expression indeed, as it means, in Italy if not in Italian, *all* the schools that are not directly run by the national Ministry) stating they have a public function, demand financial support from the national budget. A hot issue for two reasons: first, according to the Constitution, everybody is free to set up schools, 'senza òneri per lo stato' ('without burden for the state'); second, the most vocal, i.e.Roman Catholic schools, do not accept any condition/control as a counterpart to getting financial support from the state. Lés jeux sont donc oùverts...

<div align="right">

Marco Todeschini

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Lebanon

In Lebanon, the most important development in education in the last thirty years came with the introduction of the new national curriculum in October 1998 in all public and private schools. The new curriculum calls for modern teaching methods, stresses the teaching of foreign languages and introduces new subjects, such as sociology and economics at the secondary level. Primary education, between the ages of 6 and 12, will consist of two 3-year cycles, followed by two more 3-year cycles leading to the official 'Brevet' examination at age 15 and the Lebanese 'Baccalaureat' at age 18. The academic year 1998-99, the first year of each of these cycles is being implemented, to be followed by the second year in 1999-2000 and the third year in 2000-2001.

Although the general response in schools has been positive, initial problems concerning the re-training of teachers, the provision of equipment and the preparation of new books cannot be ignored. At a different level, the University of Saint-Joseph opened a Faculty of Science in October 1997. In addition to the provision of higher education in science and the preparation of students for research work, the syllabus includes modules on education in order to satisfy the growing demand for teachers at the secondary level as a result of the educational reform in Lebanon. This same Faculty is planning a seminar for April 2000 on 'Science Teaching: content and assessment'.

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Ragi Abou Chacra

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Morocco

L'Université Marocaine connait cette année-ci une réforme de son enseignement, de la formation et de la recherche. En effet, il est apparu que malgré des investissements consentis par l'état, ce système est resté en dehors des grandes mutations de la société marocaine et ne répond plus aux impératifs nouveaux de modernisation. L'enseignement supérieur au Maroc, connu pour sa rigidité et l'absence d'une stratégie globale et cohérente, présente aujourd'hui l'aspect d'un système éclaté en établissements héteroclites, cloisonnés et qu'aucune cohérence d'ensemble ne relie. De ce fait, il est peu efficace et de très faible rentabilité. C'est ainsi que la réforme récemment entreprise revêt une dimension particulière en s'inscrivant dans le cadre de la modernisation du pays. Un des aspects majeurs de cette réforme est la valorisation du rôle des enseignants chercheurs, du personnel administratif et des étudiants, en leur offrant un cadre de travail rénové et en leur assurant un épanouissement culturel, dans le respect des valeurs déontologiques et des libertés académiques. L'objectif fondamental de la réforme est de faire de l'enseignement supérieur et de la recherche scientifique au Maroc un véritable moyen de la formation, de l'innovation scientifique et technique et de la diffusion du savoir, possédant des ressources propres pour l'amélioration constante de son organisation, de son fonctionnement et de la qualité de ses services. La réforme ainsi conçue veut donner au nouveau système des objectifs de qualité et de performance, autour des principes de cohérence, d'ouverture et de responsabilisation.

Ahmed Meziani

Palestine

When the Jomtien Declaration on Education for All by the year 2000 was made, the Palestinian Ministry of Education did not exist. The Ministry was established late 1994. Therefore, Palestine did not participate in the mid-term assessment of EFA which took place in 1995.

Now, that the world is getting ready to produce its assessment report on the status of Education for

All by the Year 2000, Palestine is working on producing its own report. The report, which will have the same format of reports from other countries, will assess progress in Palestinian education towards six targets agreed on in Jomtien. These relate to expansion of early childhood care; access to and completion of basic education; improvement in learning achievement; reduction of adult literacy rates; expansion of provision of basic education and training in essential skills required

by youth and adults related to health, employment and productivity; and increased acquisition by individuals and families of the knowledge, skills and values required for better living through all educational channels including the media and social activities. Participating in the end-of-decade assessment will constitute a golden opportunity for Palestine to compare its educational situation to world standards.

Since its establishment less than five years ago, the Ministry of Education in Palestine focused its efforts on responding to emergencies in the education system. These were numerous due to the neglect of the education sector by the Israeli military authorities during the period 1967 - 1994. The Ministry is presently embarking on a major activity to produce a detailed plan for educational development for the period 2000 - 2004. It is using a participatory approach in the development of the plan to ensure national consensus around it and success in its implementation. This approach envisages consultation with the donors to the Palestinian education sector in the form of an International Conference on education between the 20th and 21st October 1999.

Maher Hashweh

Slovenia

The school reform of the whole pre-university education sector, which has started six years ago, has entered a new phase. The National Curriculum Board, the main institution to guide the reform and to take the final decisions in the past six years, has finished its work. School reform has been a much-politicised public affair in the transition period of Slovenia, with the main ideological battles and political skirmishes being fought in the National Curriculum Board. The crucial question was not, as one would assume, issues such as the structure of the new curriculum, teacher accountability or new methods of learning. The crucial question that had been focusing all the debate concerning wide-ranging school reform was which political party would run the Ministry of Education. This is over now and the ideological and political battle to control the educational system will move to a new theatre. So far, the preparations for the gradual implementation of the reform are on the way in the first 'experimental' schools and classes. And everybody is waiting for the membership of the new National Evaluation Board to be announced by the Ministry of Education in the near future. It is going to follow and evaluate the implementation of the reform and its outcomes. And though the reform is introducing many new things, I assume there will be a lot of déjà vu events on the Slovenian educational field in the next few years.

Mirjam Milharcic Hladnik

Spain

The Spanish Conservative Party in power is increasingly adopting the new rhetoric of the 'Third Way', and this is also seen in the field of education. After failing to introduce any important political change in education since 1996, the *Partido Popular*, the Conservative Party has recently presented, at its last national congress, a political platform called *'La España de las Oportunidades'* (The Spain of the Opportunities) which fashions the new political discourse introduced by the so-called 'Third Way' of political leaders such as Tony Blair. The pamphlet renovates the political discourse using the new concept of labels, particularly those related to social exclusion. As an example, for the *Partido Popular*, the Spanish State is plunged in a deep globalisation and internationalisation process propitiated by the last social, economic and technological changes of the recent decades. The role of Spain is to be an active agent of this process in order to be able to transform itself into a better place to live in. Due to the new atmosphere that is breathed in Spain, an atmosphere in which values such as 'honesty' and 'social peace', and goals such as the reduction of the unemployment and the presence of more opportunities for all, are discursively promoted, the *Partido Popular* is claiming that Spain is a place where to get 'the best' it is already possible. In fact, the bases of this new society are the growth of employment and the provision of a quality education: 'The new conditions of the economy, the cultural changes, the transformations of the family, are generating exclusion and 'marginalisation phenomenon' and the appearance of new ways of poverty. (...) Education is, and will be more so in the future, essential to reduce inequality and exclusion.' The family, a forgotten issue for the former Social Democratic Party (PSOE) which ruled Spain between 1982 to 1996, occupies a particular place in the platform. Actually Spain is the European country which maintain a less protective family policy, an issue attached to the authoritarian past of the Franco's regime. In conclusion, all this new rhetoric, full of political opportunism, is used in today's Spain as a source of legitimisation in order to consolidate the power of the Conservative Party, which presently governs the country with the support of the Catalan and Basque nationalist parties.

Miguel A. Pereyra

Tunisia

In collaboration with UNICEF, the National Ministry of Education initiated, five years ago, an original experience concerning the introduction of basic competencies at the primary school level. This experiment intended to constitute the key point of the educational system reform launched in 1991. The reform set

out to train primary school teachers to identify the basic competencies that each pupil of a certain level had to master in each curricular area, and also to evaluate them using comprehensive tests. This experiment was introduced as a pilot project in the first instance, but has now spread to hundreds of schools, and will in all likelihood be applied to the secondary school sector as from September 1999.

Ahmed Chabchoub

Turkey

The extension of basic education from 5 years to 8 years in Turkey has created a critical shortage of teachers, especially at the preschool level, and in classroom and science teachers at the basic education level. In response to this, coupled with internally accumulated problems of teachers training institutions for the past 15 years, the Higher Education Council of Turkey has decided to restructure the teacher training system. This reform has been put into effect as of September 1998. It involved changes in the following areas: some departments have been eliminated (such as undergraduate programs in the areas of educational administration and curriculum development), some new departments have been created (such as computer and instructional technology, science education), training of teachers for the grades 9 through 11 (what is called the senior high school in the former system) has been shifted to the graduate level, and entire curriculum for each teacher training program has been revised based on the needs of the country as well as recent developments in each field.

The initial implementation and experience have indicated that the reform encompassing 42 teacher-training institutions requires careful monitoring to maintain uniformity across the system. To do this, a new administrative body named National Committee on Teacher Training has been formed within the Higher Education Council. This committee's tasks are to monitor the implementation of the new training system, propose and initiate changes based on the feedback from the faculties of education, develop further national policies on teacher training in collaboration with the Ministry of Education, provide incentives and grants for research and development in teacher education.

The Committees' first initiative has been to engage in developing an accreditation system for the faculties of education. A subcommittee involving about ten academics from various teacher-training institutions has been formed to work on the concept. This subcommittee has completed its initial work and six teacher training institution have been selected to be the pilot sites for the proposed accreditation system. It is expected that all faculties of education will go through this accreditation process.

Hasan Simsek

BOOK REVIEWS

***Globalization, Adult Education and Training: Impact and Issues*, Zed Books, London & New York, 278 pp., ISBN 1-85649-512-4 (pbk.); 1-85649-511-6 (hbk.)**

The book edited by Shirley Walters focuses on issues raised at an international conference on Adult Education and Training in Reconstruction and Development: Lessons from the South and the North, held in Cape Town, in November 1995. It took place eighteen months after South Africa had emerged from its long struggle against Apartheid. This book is the first in a new series by Zed Books, Global Perspectives on Adult Education and Training. Through this series, Zed Books are pooling together authors who speak the languages of critique and possibilities that have been developing in the context of the marginalised 'South'.

Walters' edited compendium includes chapters based on some of the papers presented at the South African conference, as well as chapters requested from other authors. Indeed, South Africa provides the context for seven of the chapters in the book. The reader is provided with a unique opportunity to explore issues confronting adult education and training in a nation that is being built at a time when discussions concerning social change must extend beyond the confines of the nation-state.

The first grouping of chapters, 'The Impact of Globalization on Adult Education and Training', explores the impact of an all-pervasive laissez-faire transnational economic mobilisation on the national state and sovereignty, civil society and ecological resources. The authors aptly describe how the globalization of capital is driving a concomitant restructuring of the 'life world'. In the first chapter, Korsgaard argues that globalization is not as global as the term implies (p. 17). In the 'skyscraper-shanty town' globalised economy, only a small elite of the population is gaining economic benefits and, thereby, political power. On the other hand, the periphery of this new globalised economy is becoming more and more a 'shanty town' reality where the poor are becoming poorer. Good examples of the peripheralization of poverty are provided by Quiroz Martin and Heng. These authors vividly describe how women in Chile and Malaysia respectively, have to endure experiences of emotional subordination and denigration by men. Heng calls for an adult education which 'restructures the subjectivities of women.'

The authors, in the first section, argue that the state-sponsored adult education and training system has been co-opted by the Neo-liberal drive. They insist that the challenge against globalization must come from below, from the peoples'

lived realities. Social movements, particularly the Feminist popular movements (Walters and Manicom) and the Trade Unions (Marshal) are deeply implicated in this process. This is, however, not the only ground from where globalization can be challenged. The Italian thinker, Antonio Gramsci, argues that, in attempting to overthrow an oppressive system, one must also work for change within the institutional structures that support it. Quiroz Martin, therefore, warns against the radical tendency of 'opposing informal education with formal space' (p.45). Such a strategy, argues Quiroz Martin, means that we give up important ground, a field of great influence in education and popular culture.

The second section of the book is titled: 'Adult Education and Training Strategies'. It focuses on the amalgamation of the revolutionary and empowering spirit existing within the informal structure of the social movements (both old and new) with the traditionally oppressive learning structures of the formal system. An integrated adult education strategy is advocated as a means 'to remove the historical gap between 'masters' and 'slaves' perpetuated in our society through separating education (for thinkers) and training (for workers)' (Lugg). In the context of South Africa, huge sections of the population are calling for a redress of past unfair discrimination. An educational project must therefore integrate that kind of learning which provided the insurgent skills and knowledge that led to the overthrow of Apartheid, and learning for growth within a globally competitive market (Gamble and Walters). Moreover, Moshenberg insists that if any project aims to achieve democratic outcomes, it must start from the people's lived realities; if it aims to empower women, the adult educator must 'sit down and listen to their stories.'

Educational projects, intended to empower traditionally disenfranchised groups, are the focus of the third grouping of chapters: 'Participation: Problems and Possibilities.' Shefer, Samuels and Sardien analyse a training programme for adult educators working with South Africa's traditionally disempowered groups, particularly coloured women who are suffering class, culture and gender inequalities. They note that, although state apparatuses have removed legalised racism, class and gender inequalities, forged historically on racial lines, remain. A consciousness raising approach must therefore deconstruct the firmly entrenched and unquestioned realities of disenfranchised groups In the next chapter, Gustavsson and Osman provide a critical appraisal of multicultural and anti-racist approaches used within Swedish society – a conundrum of foreign cultures. They argue that 'the road towards the universal goes through recognition and knowledge about the other, the foreign and the radically different.' (p. 183) Adult educators should, therefore, not regard minorities and immigrants as victims of circumstances who lack cultural resources to survive in their new environment, or as members of an ethnic group and thereby, victims of discrimination and racism. In this respect, Holt, Christie and Fry claim that aboriginal education in

Australia must be part of a global movement 'from below' which affirms the value of indigenous knowledge Aboriginal people are questioning and rejecting the 'white identity' they have assimilated and are returning to their roots. A holistic indigenous education must therefore 'reside in people, in their oral histories, stories, riddles, ballads, legends, song cycles, poems, legends, folk tales and their understandings.' (p. 195) By implication, the Reconstruction and Development Process in post-Apartheid South Africa, described by Venter-Hildebrand and Housten, and Matiwana respectively, has to encompass the whole spectrum of society in a holistic and people-centred manner.

The other two chapters analyse the illiteracy problem in Kenya and South Africa. Amutabi illustrates the plight of a developing country which is trying to conquer illiteracy but is hampered by a Structural Adjustment programme imposed by the IMF. On the other hand, Breier presents an interesting but intricate scenario of the realities of unschooled adults and challenges the powerful literacy discourse that associates economic development with workers' literacy levels and places the blame for poor productivity on individual skill deficits.

In the fourth and last grouping of chapters – 'Lifelong Learning Reconsidered' -the authors challenge the dominant human capital paradigm that is pervasive in adult education discourse and practice. Supported by the neo-liberal agenda of most governments and supra-national economic organisations, 'lifelong learning' has come to mean learning new skills throughout life - becoming flexible for each new need of an ever-evolving society. The authors present an alternative human-centred approach to learning that challenges the taken-for-granted interpretations of everyday life. Therefore, Gustavsson, inspired by the revolutionary tradition of Rousseau, Dewey and Freire, calls for a pedagogy which enables learners to gain critical distance from that with which they are familiar. This pedagogy must start from the people's lived reality. Gumede, therefore, argues for a pedagogy which is not Western-centred but which values South African rural women's wealth of experience and knowledge.

What are the book's limitations? A book which challenges the globalization phenomenon must be persistently conscious of the neo-colonising danger of the same phenomenon. In fact, some authors in Walters' edited book were aware of this danger and, for example, Gustavsson and Osman argued that:

'Western culture… in its claim to represent the broadly humane, has, for centuries, oppressed, dominated and almost destroyed large parts of the populations of the earth and trampled down its diversity of cultures. This fact is easily forgotten by all essentialists who in Western cultural inheritance only see the good, the right and the beautiful. The dominating, oppressive and destructive side of

Western culture is concealed in such a perspective. Authors and scientists with their roots in the Third World are now cognizant of this.' (p. 183).

But the voice of authors and scientists from the 'black' and/or Islamic Africa is conspicuously absent in this compendium. The only exception is Amutabi's short chapter on literacy efforts in Kenya. Furthermore, educators and activists involved in the anti-Apartheid struggle occupy little space in the book, and the chapters centering on South Africa fail to explore deeply the possibility of channelling the revolutionary anti-Apartheid energy that still radiates within the oppressed into an effective anti-globalization adult education and training effort that challenges the forces of Western domination. The book would have been more complete had the educational and mobilisation strategies used successfully in the anti-Apartheid struggle been described and analyses more rigorously.

This is an excellent textbook for courses in international comparative adult education, as it presents contributions by authors coming not only from the Northern Hemisphere but also from marginalised countries in the South. Moreover, the difficulties and successes of adult education programmes that seek to halt the neo-colonising forces of globalization are presented to the reader by 'organic intellectuals committed to the struggle of the oppressed and disenfranchised'.

Joseph Vancell
University of Malta

Sandra Dingli (ed) (1998), *Creative Thinking: Towards Broader Horizons*, Malta, Malta University Press, pp. xvi + 245, ISBN 99909-45-08-x.

No one could accuse the community of researchers on creativity of being short of courage. Sandra Dingli succeeds in this book in carrying out a valiant attempt to explore a rich diversity of topics on new ways of coping with the current, fast-moving challenging reality. This publication includes a selection of the presentations delivered during the *Third International Conference on Creative Thinking: Towards Broader Horizons*, which was held at the University of Malta on the 28 and 29 July 1997. The Edward de Bono Programme, that was set up in collaboration with Professor Edward de Bono at the same university in October 1992, organised this conference. Edward de Bono, a Maltese, is visiting Professor at University of Malta and he is well known as the inventor of Lateral Thinking.

Conferences are usually the testing grounds for new ideas and research in progress. One function of a Proceedings book is to be able to inform the reader of the current state of affairs in theory, research and practice in a given field of scientific endeavour.

The selected conference presentations are organised so as to demonstrate that a constructive exchange is taking place, and to illustrate how the diverse researchers from different fields can be seen as components of the larger theoretical and practical mosaic of ideas. Structured in six chapters, the Proceedings book tries to provide a positive response to the challenge of complexity: the research of creative thinking is increasingly multidimensional.

Chapter 1, 'Thinking and creativity' contains three contributions intended to provide a good understanding of creative thinking. Edward de Bono touches, in a very inspiring style, on differences between traditional thinking, based on analysis, judgement and argument, and the pattern of constructive, productive, design and creative thinking: 'what can be'. Delores Gallo emphasises empathic role taking and its benefits related to tolerance for ambiguity and risk. This investigation is based on experimental data, which is provided in the frame of a graduate course taught at the University of Massachusetts, Boston, in the Fall of 1996. Ron Jones and Peter Clayton complement each other. Both report research on topics of virtual space coming from the creative interrelation between the human being and the computer.

The five contributions in Chapter 2 examine the relation between 'Management and Creativity'. Igor Byttebier and Helga Ellul address creativity in management and the organizational climate. They engage their own experience as Director at the Centre for Creative Development (COCD) in Belgium and, respectively, as Managing Director of the Brandstatter Group of Companies in

Malta. Louis Grech, Chairman of Air Malta, refers to the 24 years of experience that this Company has in commercial aviation and its training in creativity. William F. Sturner, President , Essence Communications, U.S.A., and Visiting Professor at the University of Santiago de Compostela, Spain, presents 12 essential skills in leadership which represent, in his view, a combination between 'age-old wisdom within the context of the recurring realities of 20th century'. J. Daniel Couger, Director at the Centre for Research on creativity and Innovation, University of Colorado, U.S.A., describes an impressive research programme, in the field of Information Systems (I.S.) based on the comprehensive 4-P's model of creativity. This research is considered by the author as the first horizontally oriented research project conducted in the field of creativity and innovation.

Chapter 3 covers four topics on design and creativity. Kay Stables explores, in her paper, the ways in which the relation between creative thinking and design can be supported and developed by the education we provide for children. She emphasises 'the importance of play and fantasy' as strategies for designers, the importance of 'responsive approaches to designing' and 'the importance of recognising and supporting individual designing styles'. David Hartwell describes design programmes offered by De Montfort University and proposes some suggestions to improve visual ability. Beverley Steffert introduces an interesting topic into the discussion of a variety of dyslexia 's'. Her paper should be connected with many contributions on similar subjects, focusing on the field of the gifted. Remko van der Lugt and Jan Buijs present a piece of research on how creative problem solving (CPS) sessions are used in design practice at the Delft University of Technology in the Netherlands.

The four contributions in Chapter 4 analyze the relation between education and creativity. Maybe this topic is the most known in the field of creativity. So it is very difficult to be creative now, speaking about education made with or for creativity. All authors, Susan Mackie, David Cummings and Robert M.Jones, Janet Mifsud and Gillian Ragsdell argue that it is still possible to be original and to obtain consistent research findings.

Another subject for discussion at the Conference, was 'Culture and Creativity'. Chapter 5 provides a multicultural perspective on creativity researching. The authors point to the importance of a 'culture of creativity' in leadership, in education and training, in the economic and political context of South Africa (J.M. de Wet), in determining the success of a city like London (Lia Ghilardi), or in improving the educational system in Hong Kong (John A. Spinks, Lourdes Mei-Oi Lam and Gabriele van Lingen).

The focus of the last chapter concerns several pertinent considerations regarding methodologies and creativity. Ben Bayer, using the 'tensorial power of language', Guy Cloutier, using the 'evolutionary thinking' concept and method

and Igor Gazdik, trying to discover if creative process could be more manageable by formalising it, provide an illustration of new trends in the methodology of creativity.

The general image projected by this book is paradoxical: Diversity in coherence. The diversity emerges from the author's different backgrounds which include business, management, education, human resources development, technology and design, new information and communication technologies, information systems and architecture. These different backgrounds are reflected not only in topics but also in the methodology of research and in the style of the reported results. As Roger Ellul-Micallef augured, in the Conference closing address, the aims of the Conference slogan, 'Towards Broader Horizons', have been achieved, especially from this multiple perspective approach. The coherence is provided, to the virtual reader, by the strategy itself of 'thinking the creative thinking.' This strategy is the result of the global evolution of creative thinking research.

The main interacting factors which have determined this evolution are the following: the new approach to creativity or 'the serious creativity', which briefly means that some steps were made concerning the stereotypes which prevented, for a long time, the scientific improvement of creativity. These stereotypes are identified by Edward de Bono and they are well described in his introductory paper 'New Thinking in the Real World': the word creativity is often applied to artistic efforts but not many other fields; creativity is often regarded as crazitivity or being 'off the wall', so it is enough to be different to enhance the creative person's status; creativity is assumed to be a natural talent which has nothing to do with education; brainstorming is the key to all the research and practice on creativity; creativity is something mysterious, without a logical foundation. The emerging conclusion from amongst the papers is that creative behaviour is the key to success in the coming age. The implicit consensus amongst the participants is that human beings have an important role to play in the creative process. Again, Edward de Bono was the one who pointed out this idea, with the motto being: 'If your job does not require creativity you are replaceable by a computer'.

Carmen Mikaela Cretu,
University 'Al.I.Cuza',
Iasi, Romania

Guy Lucas (1998), *Petite Histoire Locale d'un Groupe d'Accompagnement Scolaire: Ils ne redoubleront pas!,* **Paris, L'Harmattan, pp. 146, ISBN 2-7384-267-2.**

Ce livre est de 'bonne' taille: ni trop long, ni trop court, ce qui permet de l'avoir tout dans la tête, sans coupures de temps pour la lecture. J'ai envie surtout de dire 'merci' à l'auteur:

- pour moi, en tant qu'émigrée: ça m'a permis de reprendre contact avec la France, ou plutôt d'apprendre un peu à connaître ces nouveaux français qui dans l'avenir créeront un pays différent de celui que j'ai quitté.

- pour moi, en tant que professeur. Ça a été instructif de voir comment on est perçu par ces élèves en échec scolaire. Je me suis sentie légèrement agressée par certains commentaires au sujet des profs. Mais je dois admettre que ce qu'ils disent, c'est vrai. Pas forcément par indifférence de notre part (de la mienne du moins): tout bêtement par manque de temps, par le fait que les élèves sont nombreux et donc anonymes, par le système qui, comme il est dit dans le livre, privilégie le contenu et non les êtres.

- et enfin et surtout, merci pour eux, tous ces élèves qui ont trouvé chez vous ce qu'ils ne trouvent pas chez moi. Ce livre me donnerait presque bonne conscience. C'est dangereux. Il y a d'un côté l'école, et de l'autre ceux qui travaillent pour 'récupérer' ceux dont l'école se désintéresse. Je ne sais pas comment on peut résoudre le problème... changer l'école?!...

C'est un livre pas ennuyeux du tout. Grâce à toutes ces approches si diverses du thème: par les statistiques, par les témoignages des jeunes, par ceux de l'encadrement... J'ai beaucoup aimé, bien sûr, les textes des jeunes. Vous dites que certains lecteurs seront peut être choqués. Je ne sais pas. Ça sent le 'vrai'. Je ne sais pas si ça peut choquer.

Il y a derrière ce livre, et derrière ce groupe d'accompagnement scolaire, une personnalité: la vôtre (p.118, 119, 120, 121, etc.). Tout le monde n'est pas taillé pour ça. Et tout le monde n'a pas eu dans sa vie des expériences qui permettent le lien avec ces jeunes en difficulté. Maintenant que vous êtes parti, j'espère qu'ils auront la chance de trouver quelqu'un qui, comme vous, ait cette originalité et ce non conformisme indispensables.

J'ai toujours eu envie de faire partie d'un groupe comme ça. Mais, comme je le disais plus haut, je ne sais pas si on doit souhaiter la multiplication de groupes de ce genre, car cela signifie l'échec de l'éducation nationale. Il faudrait que ce soit cet esprit qui règne dans les écoles, et qu'il rende ces groupes inutiles.

Mais comme l'école ne changera probablement pas, je vous dis 'merci' et bon courage. Il faut donner ce livre à lire, dans les écoles, dans les mairies, et dans les cités. Je ne sais pas si ce système d'accompagnement est répandu en France, mais je pense que ce serait bien qu'il le soit.

Ce qui est beau aussi, c'est l'esprit positif. On finit de lire ce livre, et on a envie de faire quelque chose.

Roseline Sultana,
Junior College,
University of Malta

Mediterraneo - Un Mare di Donne, (Mediterranean Review: A Sea of Women) **number 4, December 1997, 46 pp.**

In her editorial entitled 'Survivals', Nadia Gambilongo sets the tone and mood for this issue of *Mediterranean Review.* She speaks of her uneasiness about the fragmentary nature of her writing, her difficulty in concentration, and her frustration at living in a 'borderline situation' in the face of war, other conflicts, unemployment, and a growing gulf between indifference and those who suffer it. Dislocation and anguish in relation to war are recurring themes in a number of the articles in this *Review*: Ada Donno's 'Tissuing peace in the Mediterranean', Zamira Ciavo's 'Albanian refugee women in Italy', Tatjana Prifti's 'The season of our discontent' and Aicha Bouabaci's 'Algeria tomorrow'. In Bouabaci's piece, which she says was written on a train from Frankfurt to Paris, the author laments the loss of a 'warm Algeria' where men called women 'sister' and 'mother', where mothers and sisters now hate one another and fathers and sons are betrayed. '*I violently regret this rage to uproot, this need to destroy and this thirst to rule,*' she writes.

As well as despair, the intimacy of war produces in these women anger and an unflagging commitment to activism: Stasa Zajovic, for example, describes in her interview with the editor her involvement in '*initiatives of political, material and judicial support in favour of young deserters and those who refuse to go to war*' in Serbia. She acknowledges that women are often exploited by the state to purchase social peace, or are asked to support projects of international cooperation which do not promote civil society, as they are claimed to do, but are mechanisms which encourage civil dependence. The need for an indissoluble tie between feminist theory and practice is poignantly illustrated.

It is not only the violence of war which distresses the *Review*'s writers. Laura Corradi discusses racism in 'Italian women, women of color', and in 'The hill of the Goddess' Lilla Consoni deals with clitoridectomy in Germany and elsewhere. (Apparently 'clitoris' comes from the Greek 'kleitor' meaning hill, and hills were ancient sites of Goddess-worship.)

The forum provided by the *Review* seems to function as a small island of safety and sanity for feminists from diverse cultural backgrounds, where they are heard, understood and supported and where they can experience community. The issues they grapple with have a concrete urgency which make feminist discussions half a globe away seem abstract and almost self-indulgent. When there is war on your doorstep, feminist practice takes on a critical and particular character. Yet there are concerns discussed in this *Review* which are also very familiar. Francoise Collin, in 'The transmission of the plural space', writes: '*... it seems rather tragic to me that this world made by men and women is told, narrated, represented and*

transmitted almost exclusively through male voices and works.' For her the important function of the *Review* is to authorise women's voices.

The most interesting article for me personally was Grazia Maiorana's piece about Turkey's revivalist Islamic movement in which well-educated young women are protesting against the prohibition of the veil at universities and 'freely choosing to veil themselves'. Drawing inspiration from a mythical golden age before Islam was tainted by patriarchy, these women want to restore what they claim are central tenets of Islam: equality and social solidarity. Spurning what they see as the consumerism, materialism and inequality of modern Western societies, they claim that 'true Islam' offers women autonomy, subjectivity and distinct cultural identity. They see the veil not as a symbol of their oppression and invisibility; on the contrary, it is a symbol of their visibility as committed Muslim women.

I found this challenge to the hegemony of Western secularist feminism fascinating. It reminded me strongly of another women's religious movement which has also drawn the frustrated attention, indeed the ire, of Western feminists, even though, like the Turkish women's movement, it seeks to re-empower women. Women in the Goddess movement in the United States, Canada, Britain, Australasia and elsewhere also draw inspiration from a mythical golden age (of Goddess worship) as a model for establishing a more just and equal society. And like women in the Turkish movement they are criticised for being deluded and backward-looking, for seeking spiritual solutions to flawed social and political structures, and for damaging the fundamental feminist project of liberating women. Both movements have been misunderstood by their feminist critics, who might in turn be criticised for failing to acknowledge that a secularist position rooted in a particular cultural, geographical, historical, class setting has ultimately no more authority than any other women's knowledge position.

As a feminist publication, *Mediterranean Review* has a striking rawness and immediacy, and deals with huge issues for women in short, personal pieces which generally echo the plaintive tone of the editor. The articles open up the authors' worlds to the reader, but only to glimpse; I wanted more. Appreciation of the photographs would have been enhanced by captions. The greatest frustration was the fact that as a non-reader of Italian I had to rely on the English translations which ran alongside the Italian. These translations did no favours at all to the articles' comprehensibility and contained numerous spelling and typographical errors. The content of the journal ought to attract an international feminist audience, but its current presentation creates a serious obstacle for non-Italian readers.

Kathryn Rountree,
Massey University, Auckland
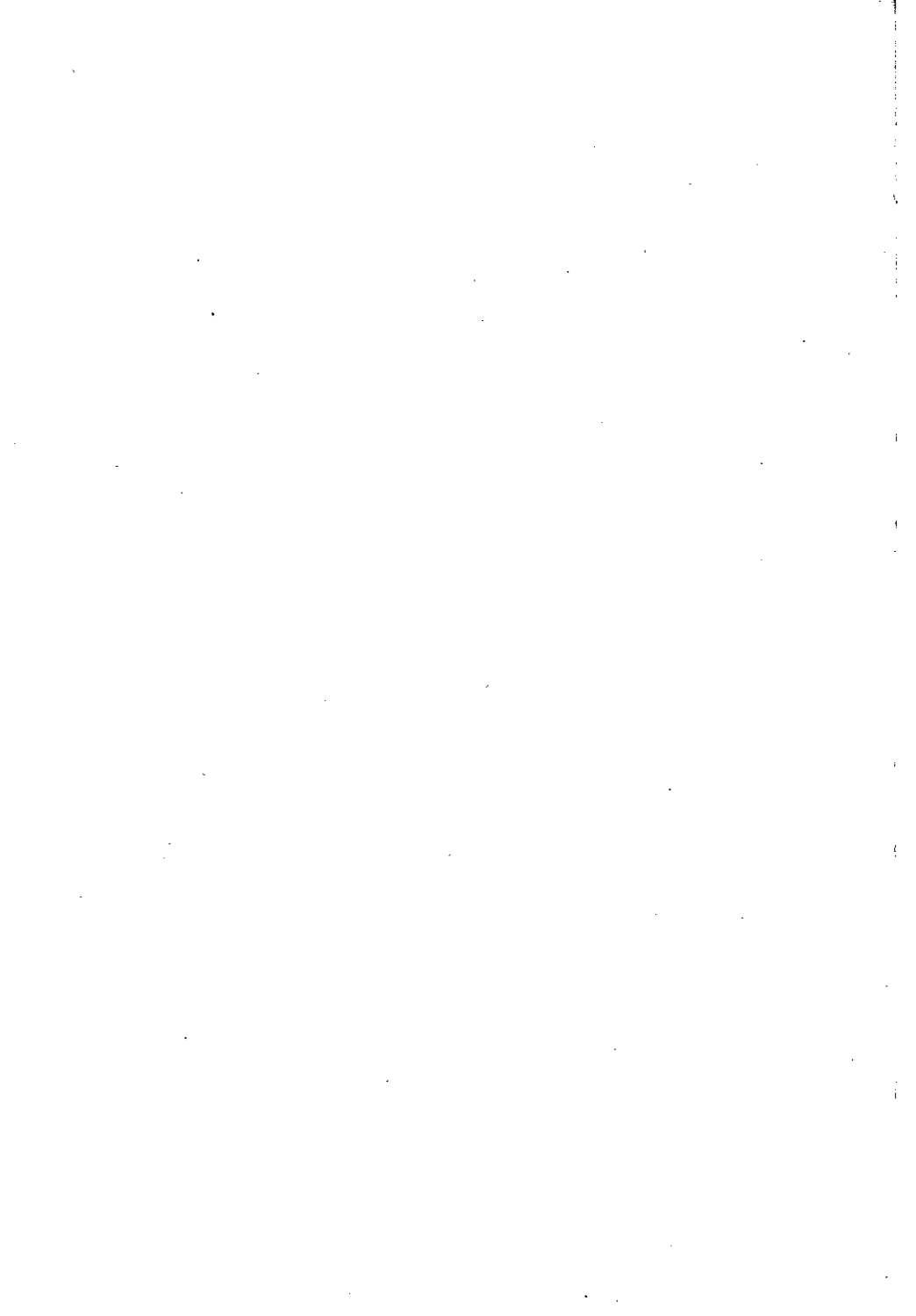
CONFERENCE ANNOUNCEMENTS

'Learning and Education in the Ottoman World'

Organised by the Research Centre for Islamic History, Art and Culture (Istanbul), the Turkish Historical Society (Ankara), and the Turkish Society for History of Science (Istanbul) between the 12 and 15 April 1999 in Istanbul. Further information: Congress Secretariat Ottoman 700, IRCICA, P.O. Box 24, 80692 Besiktas, Istanbul, Turkey. Fax.: 90.212.258.43.65. E-mail: ircica@ihlas.net.tr

'Changing Education in a Changing Society'

ATEE (Association for Teacher Education in Europe) Spring University, 6-9 May 1999, University of Klaipeda, Lithuania. More information from: ATEE Spring University, Klaipeda University, H. Manto 84, 5808 Klaipeda, Lithuania. Tel.: +370.6.212294; +370.6.256526; E-mail: Elvyrag@hgf.ku.lt

'Adult Learning: Empowering People for the Next Millennium'

International conference on adult education, May 18-20 1999, Ocho Rios, Jamaica, at the Jamaica Grande Hotel, as part of the ICAE (International Council for Adult Education) Sixth World Assembly, May 16-24, 1999. Further information from: ICAE, 720 Bathurst Street, Suite 500, Toronto, Ontario M5S 2R4, Canada. Tel. 416 588-1211; Fax.: 416 588-5725; E-mail: icae@web.net

'Challenges and Opportunities for the New Millennium'

25th Annual IAEA (International Association for Educational Assessment) Conference, 23-28 May 1999, Grand Hotel Toplice, Bled, Slovenia. Further information: Dr. Sergij Gobrscek, RIC National Examinations Centre, P.O. Box 3259, 1001 Ljubljana, Slovenia. Fax: 13 24 378; e-mail: sergij.gabrscek@guest.arnes.si

'The New Educational Frontier: Teaching and Learning in a Networked World'

The 19th World Conference on Open Learning and Distance Education, 20-24 June 1999. Further information: http://www.icde.org

'Almost 2000: Crises and Challenges in Teacher Education'

The Third International Conference on Teacher Education, Beit Berl College, Israel, June 27 to July 1, 1999, organised by the MOFET Institute. Further information from: Conference Secretariat, Beit Berl College, Beit Berl 44905, Israel. Tel.: +972.9.7476269; Fax: +972.9.7478751; E-mail: barkan@beitberl.ac.il Web-site: http://www.congress/ macam98.ac.il/ english

'Think Change'

8th International Conference on Thinking, 4-9 July 1999, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada. Website address: www.thinkingconference.com

'Children's Rights: National and International Perspectives'

Children's Issues Sentre, Manawa Rangahau Tamariki, 7-9 July 1999, University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand. E-mail: cic@otago.ac.nz

'Researching alienation in the light of globalization'

Interim seminar in Conjunction with the 34th World Congress of the *International Institute of Sociology*, in Tel Aviv, Israel, July 11-15, 1999. Further details from the organizer: Dr. Devorah Kalekin-Fishman, President, RC36, Faculty of Education, University of Haifa, Haifa, Israel 31905, Tel: +972-4-8642032; Fax: +972-4-8240911; E-mail: dkalekin@construct.haifa.ac.il

4th British Congress of Mathematical Education

15-17 July 1999, Nene University College. Further information: http://www.edweb.co.uk/bcme

'Advanced Learning Communities in the New Millennium'

EARLI Biennial Meeting, 25-29 August 1999, Goteborg, Sweden. Further information from web site: http://www.ped.gu.se/biorn/earli/call1a.html

BERA 1999 Annual Conference

British Educational Research Association annual conferences: Student conference 1-2 September 1999; Main conference 2-5 September 1999, at the University of Sussex, Brighton, U.K.

'Multicultural Education: Reflection on Theory and Practice'

International Congress on Intercultural Education, September 1999. Further information, Ms. Kristi Häkkinen, University of Jyväskylä, Continuing Education Centre, PO Box 35, FIN-40351 Jyväskylä, Finland. E-mail: hakkinen@cone.jyu.fi Website: www.cec.jyu.fi/tkk/kv/congress.htm

'Teachers' Professional Knowledge and Reference Disciplines of Teacher Education'

Twenty fourth annual ATEE (Association for Teacher Education in Europe) Conference, 30 August - 5 September 1999, Leipzig, Germany. Please address all correspondence to: Prof. Dr. Wolfgang Hörner, Universität Leipzig, Erziehungwissenschaftliche Fakultät, Vergleichende Pädagogik, Karl- Heine-Str. 22b, D-04229, Leipzig, Germany. Tel. +49.341.9731431; Fax.: +49.341.9731439; E-mail: hoerner@rz.uni-leipzig.de

'Poverty, Power and Partnership'

The Oxford International Conference on Education and Development, 9-13 September 1999. Further informaton: Mrs Sarah Jeffery, C/BT Education Services, 1 The Chambers, East Street, Reading RG1 4JD, UK. Tel./Fax: (44) (0) 118 921 2146. E-mail: sjeffery@cfbt-hq.org.uk Conference website: www.cfbt.com/oxfordconference.htm

### 'Social Change and Active Citizenship in the Learning Society'

European Society for Research in the Education of Adults (ESREA), 11-13 September 1999, Poznan, Poland. Further information: Professor John Field, Department of Continuing Education, University of Warwick, Coventry CV4 7AL, England. Fax.: 44-1203-524223. E-mail: j.field@warwick.ac.uk

7th International Conference on Computers in Education

4-7 November, 1999, Chiba, Japan. Further information: http://www.ai.is.uec.ac.jp/icce99/

'Including the Excluded'

International Special Education Congress (ISEC 2000), 24-28 July 2000, University of Manchester, School of Education, Centre for Educational Needs, Oxford Road, Manchester M19 9PL, U.K. Fax: 00 44 161 275 3548; e-mail: ISEC@man.ac.uk; Website: http://www.isec2000.org.uk
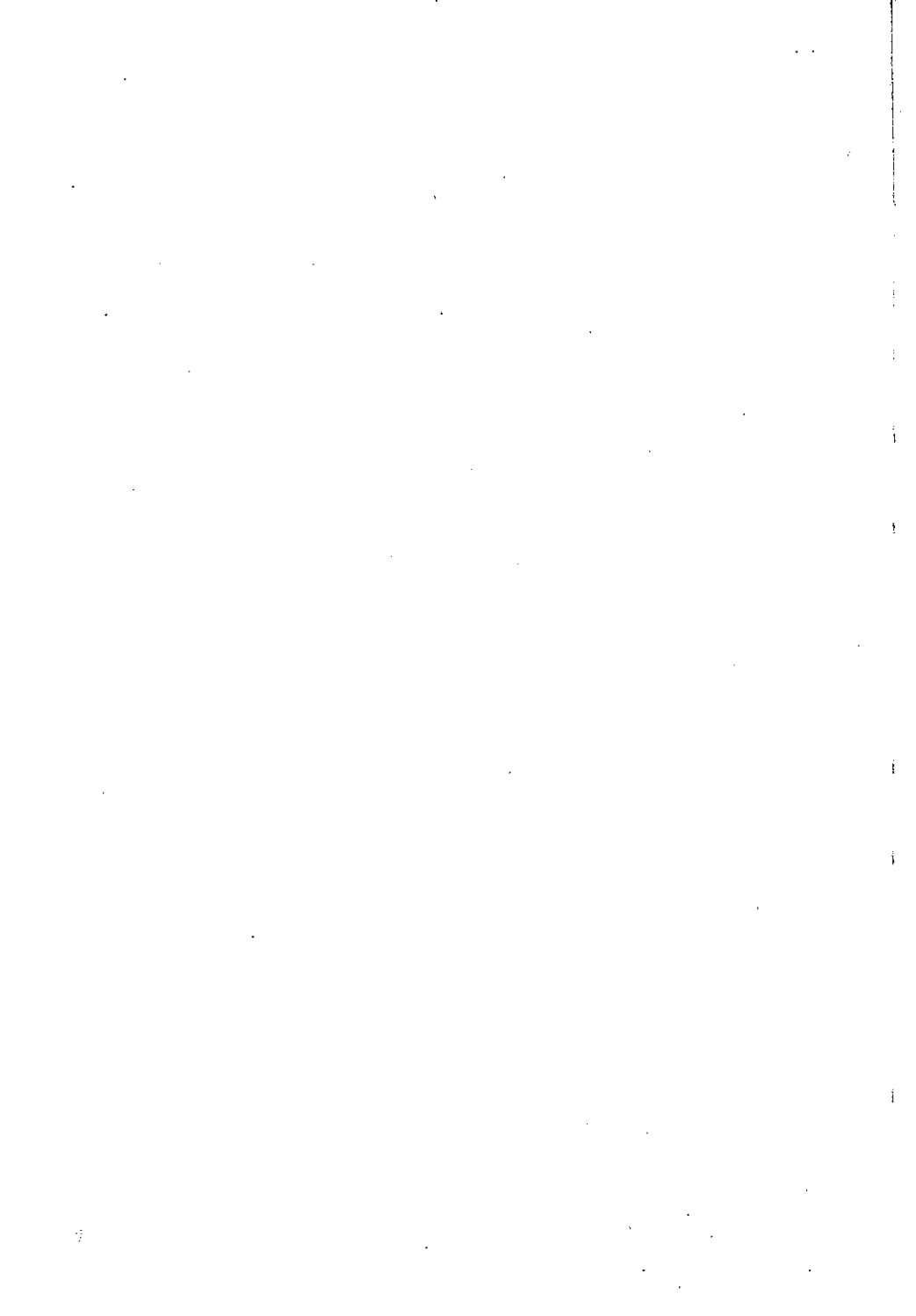
ABSTRACTS

MOTIVATIONAL ORIENTATIONS, SELF-EFFICACY, ANXIETY AND STRATEGY USE IN LEARNING HIGH SCHOOL MATHEMATICS IN MOROCCO

NAIMA BENMANSOUR

Un questionnaire a été administré à 289 lycéens afin d'explorer les orientations de leur motivation, leur sens de leur efficacité, leur niveau d'anxiété aux examens, et leur usage de stratégies dans l'apprentissage des mathématiques. Une analyse de facteurs des sources de motivation a révélé un facteur de motivation intrinsèque et trois facteurs de motivation extrinsèque, intitulés: 'bonnes notes', 'statut social' et 'plaire aux autres'. Les élèves semblent plus motivés par les notes et le statut social, et rapportent un usage plus fréquent des stratégies passives. Cependant, les analyses de corrélation ont montré que les élèves qui manifestent une plus forte orientation intrinsèque rapportent un niveau d'anxiété plus faible, un sens d'efficacité plus élevé, et un usage plus fréquent des stratégies actives. Par contre, ceux qui semblent plus motivés par les notes rapportent plus d'anxiété aux examens et une plus grande utilisation des stratégies passives. Les résultats ont aussi révélé que l'anxiété aux examens est liée négativement au sens d'efficacité et à l'usage des stratégies actives.

الخلاصة

أعطى استبيان من أجل أجوبة مباشرة لـ 289 تلميذ في المدرسة الثانوية و ذلك بغية الإطلاع على إدراكهم للتوجيهات التحفيزية و لقوة فعاليتهم الذاتية و لمستوى الحصر النفسي أمام الامتحانات و للجوء إلى الاستراتيجية عند تعلم الرياضيات. و لقد أدى التحليل العاملي لعناصر التحفيز إلى فرز عامل واحد في التوجيه الذاتي و ثلاثة عوامل في التوجيه الخارجي التي سميت " النقط "، " المرتبة الاجتماعية " و " إرضاء الآخرين ". يظهر التلاميذ أساسا بتوجيه نحو الحصول على النقط الجيدة و الرفع من مرتبتهم الاجتماعية. و لقد عبروا عن لجوئهم إلى استراتيجيات هامدة في غالب الأحيان بدل استراتيجيات نشيطة و لكن التحليل الرابطي فقد أظهر أن التلاميذ الذين يطيعون بتوجه ذاتي أقوى، أنهم عبروا عن فعالية ذاتية أقوى و عن حصر نفسي أضعف أمام الامتحانات و عن استعمال استراتيجيات تنشيطية في أغلب الأحيان. و بالمقابل فإن التلاميذ الذين يطيعون بتوجه أقوى نحو النقط، أنهم عبروا عن إحساس أقوى بالحصر النفسي أمام الامتحان و عن استعمال أكبر للاستراتيجيات الهامدة و تجدر الإشارة إلى أن الحصر النفسي أمام الامتحان مرتبط سلبيا مع الفعالية الذاتية و مع استعمال استراتيجيات نشيطة.

STRUCTURE AND IDENTITY OF THE EUROPEAN AND THE MEDITERRANEAN SPACE: CYPRIOT STUDENTS' PERSPECTIVE

CHRISTOS THEOPHILIDES
MARY KOUTSELINI-IONNIDES

Le but de cette étude était d'abord de décrire comment les étudiants universitaire d'un programme de formation des maîtres perçoivent la structure de la région Union Européenne ainse que celle de trois sub-régions méditerranéennes (europénne, africaine et asiatique), et ensuite d'examiner l'attitude des étudiants envers les peuples méditerraneéns. Les données pour l'étude ont été récoltées à travers un questionaire fait par les étudiants de première année, de deuxième année et troisième année. Les réponses des étudiants aux 17 énoncés se rapportant aux caractéristiques des régions ci-dessus ont été analysées par facteurs à travers une analyse des composants principaux. Les résultats ont indiqué que la région Union Européenne était definie par trois facteurs (affaires économiques et politiques, production culturelle, géomorphologie) tandis que les trois sub-régions méditerranéennes était definies par quatre facteurs (affaires économiques et politiques, état mental des populations, géomorphologie, production culturelle). En ce qui concerne l'attitude des étudiants vis-à-vis des peuples méditerranéens, il est ressorti que les personnes interrogées étaient plus positives envers les peuples méditerranéens européens qu'envers ceux qui venaient des deux autres régions méditerranéennes. Quand la comparaison faisait référence à des méditerranéens d'Afrique ou de l'Est, l'analyse favorisait les méditerranéens africains.

Ο σκοπός της παρούσας μελέτης ήταν, πρώτο, να περιγράψει τις αντιλήψεις φοιτητών του Τμήματος Επιστημών της Αγωγής για τη δόμηση του χώρου της Ευρωπαϊκής Ένωσης και τριών Μεσογειακών περιοχών (Ευρωπαϊκής, Αφρικανικής, Ασιατικής) και, δεύτερο, να διερευνήσει τη στάση των φοιτητών έναντι των ατόμων που κατάγονται από τις τρεις πιο πάνω περιοχές. Τα δεδομένα της μελέτης συγκεντρώθηκαν με ερωτηματολόγιο από φοιτητές των τριών πρώτων ετών. Η παραγοντική ανάλυση των απαντήσεων των φοιτητών σε 17 δηλώσεις έδειξε ότι η περιοχή της Ευρωπαϊκής Ένωσης ορίζεται από τρεις παράγοντες (Οικονομική και Πολιτική Πραγματικότητα, Πολιτιστική Παραγωγή, Γεωμορφολογία) ενώ καθεμιά από τις τρεις πιο πάνω Μεσογειακές περιοχές ορίζεται από τέσσερις παράγοντες (Οικονομική και Πολιτική Πραγματικότητα, Αντιλήψεις των Ατόμων για τη Ζωή, Γεωμορφολογία, Πολιτιστική Παραγωγή). Αναφορικά με τη στάση των φοιτητών έναντι των Μεσογειακών λαών φάνηκε ότι τα υποκείμενα της μελέτης διάκεινται πια ευνοϊκά σε λαούς της Ευρωπαϊκής Μεσογείου παρά σ' αυτούς των άλλων δυο Μεσογειακών περιοχών. Όταν η σύγκριση αφορούσε λαούς της Αφρικανικής και Ασιατικής Μεσογείου προέκυψε ότι οι φοιτητές έβλεπαν πιο θετικά τους λαούς της Αφρικανικής Μεσογείου.

تهدف الدراسة الحالية في المقام الأول إلى وصف رؤية الطلاب في برنامج إعداد المعلم لبنيـة
منطقة الاتحاد الأوروبي و لثلاثة مناطق جزئية متوسطية (أوروبيــة – أفريقيــة – أسـيوية)،
وثانيا لدراسة اتجاه الطلاب نحو شعوب المتوسط. وقد تم تجميع بيانـات الدراسـة باسـتخدام
استبيان طور ذاتيا وطبق على طلاب جامعيين بالسنوات الأولى و الثانية و الثالثة.

أظهرت نتائج التحليل العاملي، باستخدام تحليل المكونات الرئيسية، لاستجابات الطلاب عـن 17
عبارة ترتبط بخصائص هذه المناطق، أن منطقة الاتحاد الأوروبي تحددهـا ثلاثـة عنـاصر
(الشؤون الاقتصادية و السياسية – الإنتاج الثقافي – مورفولوجيا السكان) في حين حددت كـل
من المناطق المتوسطية الثلاثة بأربعة عوامل (الشـؤون الاقتصاديـة والسياسـية – عقليـات
الشعوب – مورفولوجيا السكان – الإنتاج الثقافي). وفيما يخص اتجاهات الطلاب نحو شـعوب
المتوسط، ظهر أن المستجيبين كانوا أكثر إيجابية نحو شعوب المتوسط الأوروبيين من شـعوب
المنطقتين الأخيرتين، وعند المقارنة بين الأفارقة والأسيويين المتوسـطيين كـانت المقارنـة
لصالح الأفارقة.

PRE-SERVICE EFL TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMMES IN JORDAN: RESPONDING TO CHANGING CIRCUMSTANCES

FOUZA AL-NAIMI

Les besoins en professeurs d'Anglais qualifiés se sont accrus de façon aiguë avec l'importance croissante de l'Anglais comme deuxième langue étrangère en Jordanie, où la possession de cette langue n'est pas confiée à une élite sociale et académique. Cette étude démarque trois sources majeures de professeurs d'Anglais comme langue étrangère en Jordanie: les Collèges cycles courts, les Départements d'Anglais des Universités et les Départements d'Education des Universités. Cette étude tente de décrire et donne les résultats de notre enquête sur chacun de ces programmes. Les programmes 'Pré-Services' y sont décrits et sont considérés plus prometteurs que les autres programmes que nous décrivons également dans cette étude, en ce sens qu'ils s'ajustent aux besoins d'Anglais en Jordanie. Ces programmes sont plus flexibles et sont plus à même de créer des nouveaux cours à la lumière des dernières recherches, encourageant la recherche à l'intérieur de la Jordanie et aussi en continuant d'envoyer quelques uns des meilleurs étudiants poursuivre des études supérieures à l'étranger. Ce qui émerge

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de cette étude est qu'il y a une quête permanente en Jordanie vers l'amélioration de la certification d'enseignants d'Anglais qualifiés. Cette quête est sans fin et c'est en toute confiance qu'on prédit que l'innovation sera une partie des futures réponses aux problèmes d'effectifs et d'expansion des cours d'Anglais dans les écoles.

برزت الحاجة وتنامت لمزيد من مدرسي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في الأردن مع ازدياد أهمية اللغة الإنجليزية والتي لم يعد يقتصر تعلمها على النخبة الاجتماعية والأكاديمية.
يحاول الكاتب في هذا البحث أن يقدم مسحاً وصفياً نقدياً للمصادر الرئيسية الثلاثة لمدرسي الإنجليزية في الأردن وهي : كليات المجتمع وأقسام اللغة الإنجليزية في الجامعات وأقسام التربية في الجامعات. أبرزت هذه الدراسة إن برامج تدريب المعلمين قبل الخدمة واحدة وأنها أقدر على التكيف مع الحاجات المتغيرة لمعلم اللغة الإنجليزية وإنها أكثر مرونة وأقدر على إبداع مساقات جديدة في ضوء مستجدات البحث اللغوي وذلك بتشجيع البحث العلمي في الأردن وفي الاستمرار في ابتعاث الطلبة المتميزين للحصول على الدرجات العليا في الخارج. ويستنتج من هذا البحث أن هناك حرصاً دائماً في الأردن على تحسين تأهيل المعلمين، وهذا الحرص لا ينقطع. ومما يمكن التنبؤ به بثقة في الختام، أن الإبداع سيكون جزءاً أساسياً في الاستجابة للحاجة من المدرسين ولتوسيع مساقات اللغة الإنجليزية في المدارس.

AUTHENTIC EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP FOR 21ST CENTURY MALTA: BREAKING THE BONDS OF DEPENDENCY

CHRISTOPHER BEZZINA

Actuellement, la direction de l'éducation à Malte est en train de subir une transformation radicale à la fois au niveau des systèmes et de l'école. Les autorités éducatives maltaises sont en train de décentraliser un certain nombre de responsabilités pour les donner à l'école. Ce document dit que bien que la création d'une école qui s'auto-dirige soit un pas en avant pour améliorer la qualité de l'éducation, il y a un doute en ce qui concerne le modèle de leadership (s'il existe) que les autorités centrales essaient d'institutionaliser à la fois au niveau des systèmes et de l'école. Les autorités centrales doivent projeter une vision claire qui aidera les écoles à établir une culture professionnelle qui offre choix, autorité et responsabilité. Bien que les changements qui nous attendent lancent des défis d'adaptation et de technique, il est pourtant nécessaire de se concentrer sur le côte umain de la direction. Cet article souligne l'importance d'un leadership centrée sur des principes, d'un leadership qui trouve sa source dans l'intelligence, le coeur, l'ésprit et les âmes des individus, qui soit soutenu par des relations construvtives. On doit donner aux leaders de l'education des occasions de se développer en tant que personnes avec une concentration particulière sur des domaines tels que l'apprentissage, la créativité, les valeurs, et la collégialité.

Bħalissa t-tmexxija edukattiva f'Malta għaddejja minn żmien ta' bidla radikali kemm fil-livell ċentrali kif ukoll fl-iskejjel. L-awtoritajiet edukattivi Maltin qegħdin jgħaddu aktar responsabbiltajiet lill-iskejjel. Dan l-artiklu jiddiskuti l-fatt li waqt li m'hemmx dubju li l-ħolqien ta' skola awtonoma hija l-aħjar triq għat-titjib fl-edukazzjoni, fl-istess ħin hemm dubju dwar liema mudell ta' tmexxija, jekk għandu jkun hemm wieħed, l-awtoritajiet ċentrali qegħdin jippruvaw jistituzzjonalizzaw kemm fuq livell ċentrali kif ukoll fuq livell ta' skola. L-argument ewlieni hawnhekk huwa li l-awtoritajiet ċentrali missħom jipproġettaw viżjoni ċara li tgħin lill-iskejjel jistabbilixxu kultura professjonali li toffri għażla, awtorità u responsabbiltà. Filwaqt li l-bidliet mistennija jġibu magħhom sfida ta' addattazzjoni u ħiliet ġodda, jeħtieġ li wieħed jiffoka aktar fuq l-element uman fit-tmexxija. L-artiklu jenfasizza l-importanza ta' tmexxija bbażata fuq prinċipji li jiġbru flimkien l-intellett, il-qalb, il-moħħ u r-ruħ ta' l-individwu fejn dan jiġi sostnut minn relazzjonijiet sħaħ. Il-mexxejja edukattivi għandhom jingħataw l-opportunità li jiżviluppaw bħala persuni li jagħtu kas b'mod speċjali t-tagħlim, il-kreattività, il-valuri u l-kolleġġjalità.

تخضع القيادة التربوية بمالطا حالياً لتحول جذري على مستوى النظم و المدرسة معاً. فسلطات التعليم المالطية تتفد سياسة اللامركزية بتفويض المدرسة عدداً من المسؤوليات. يحــاول هـــذا المقال أن يبرهن أنه إذا كان خلق مدرسة تسير نفسها بنفسها هو الخيار الانجـــع للرفـــع مـــن مستوى التعليم، فإن هناك شكا بنوع النموذج القيادي- إن وجـــد- الـــذي تحـــاول الســـلطات المركزية تأسيسه على مستوى النظم و المدرسة، ونوقشت حاجة السلطات المركزيـــة لوضـــع رؤية واضحة من شأنها مساعدة المدارس على تأسيس ثقافة مهنية توفـر الخيـار و الســـلطة والمسؤولية. وفي الوقت الذي قد تتطلب فيه التحولات التي تنتظرنا تحديـــات علـــى مســـتوى التكيف والمستوى المهني فإنه من الضروري التركيز على الجانب الإنساني للإدارة .

تسلط المقالة الأضواء على أهمية القيادة المبنية على المبادئ , قيادة تجد مصدرها فـــي فكــر وقلب وعقل وروح الأفراد وتضمن استمراريتها من خلال علاقات ذات معنى، ويجب إعطـــاء المسيرين التربويين فرص النمو كأفراد مع التركيز الخاص على مجـــالات معينـــة كـــالتعليم والإبداع والقيم وتعزيز القدرات وروح الزمالة.

TEACHING FOR SOCIAL CHANGE: A PALESTINIAN-ISRAELI CASE OF PEACE EDUCATION

RUTH ZUZOVSKY
RUTH YAKIR

Le présent rapport concerne un programme éducatif destiné à modifier l'attitude qui prévaut parmi les futurs enseignants et leurs élèves à l'égard de la collaboration régionale pour la gestion des ressources en eau impliquée dans le conflit israélo-palestinien. Un programme d'étude consacré à cette question a été développé et mis en oeuvre dans cinq collèges d'enseignants en Israël : deux collèges arabes, deux collèges publics juifs et un collège juif religieux. Les futurs enseignants ont enseigné, dans le cadre de leurs exercices pratiques, diverses versions de ce nouveau programme aux élèves du collège. Ce programme est conçu afin d'approfondir les connaissances des futurs enseignants et des élèves dans le domaine de l'utilisation des eaux et de leur gestion. Ces connaissances nouvellement acquises devraient former la base du développement de convictions accompagné d'une modification des attitudes concernant la coexistance pacifique de ces populations. Cette expérience est basée sur les théories cognitives de modification d'attitudes (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen and Madden, 1986; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). Des questionnaires relatifs aux connaissances et convictions préalables et postérieures à cet exercice ont été développés et confiés à l'échantillon de futurs enseignants (133 étudiants) ainsi qu'aux élèves des collèges qui leur furent confiés (300 élèves). Au terme du programme, la perception des Arabes israéliens et des Juifs israéliens concernant les questions de la gestion des eaux étaient devenues plus réalistes. Ils avaient davantage tendance à considérer les eaux comme une ressource régionale qu'il convient de partager et de gérer de conmmun accord. Toutefois, parmi l'échantillon de futurs enseignants juifs, les étudiants juifs religieux demeuraient nettement fidèles à leurs positions séparatistes, tandis que les étudiants non-religieux avaient plutôt tendance à opter pour la collaboration. Les résultats de notre étude indiquent qu'en dépit du fait que la perception des étudiants au sujet du partage des ressources en eau était affectée par leur identité nationale et religieuse, ces convictions n'étaient pas inébranlables. L'éducation peut jouer un rôle dans la préparation des populations de notre région à envisager une coopération et une coexistence pacifiques.

מאמר זה מציג תכנית חינוכית שיועדה לשנות עמדות קיימות בקרב פרחי הוראה ותלמידיהם בישראל
ביחס לשיתוף פעולה אזורי בנושאי מים, נושא שהינו חלק מהקונפליקט הישראלי-פלסטינאי.
תכנית לימודים שהוקדשה לנושא זה פותחה והופעלה בחמש מכללות בישראל שתי מכללות ערביות,
שתיים יהדיות חילוניות ומכללה אחת יהודית דתית.

תכנית הלימודים התעודדה להרחיב את בסיס הידע של הלומדים בכל הקשור בשימושי מים ובניהול
משק מים. החתנה היתה שהידע החדש חנרכש וסייע בבניית מערכת אמונות חמציות בבסיס עמדות
המחייבות דו קיום בשלום. החתערבות החינוכית הזו חתבססה על תיאוריות קוגניטיביות של שינוי
עמדות (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen & Madden 1986 Fishbein & Ajzen 1975).
פרחי החוראה במכללות למדו את התכנית ולאחר מכן לימדו גרסאות דומות של התכנית לתלמידיהם
במסגרת ה"עבודה במעשיתי" הנהוגה במכללות. שאלוני ידע ועמדות חועברו בתחילת התכנית ובסיומה
ל - 133 פרחי הוראה ולכ- 300 תלמידיהם.

בסיומה של התכנית היו העמדות של פרחי החוראה היהודים וחערבים כאחד חקשורות בנושאי מים
יותר מציאותיות. הם נטו לראות את חמים במשאב אזורי שיש לטפל בו תוך כדי שיתוף פעולה ויש
לחלוק בו. לעומת זאת בקרב הסטודנטים היהודים נתגלה פער בין עמדותיהם של פרחי החוראה
הדתיים לבין אלו של החילוניים. פרחי ההוראה הדתיים נשארו למרות התכנית בעמדה בדלנית שאינה
דוגלת בשיתוף פעולה בעוד שפרחי החוראה חיתודים החילוניים נעו לכיוון של יתר רצון בשיתוף פעולה.
הממצאים ממחקר זה מראים שלמרות שזהות לאומית ודתית משפיעים על עמדות כניסה של אנשים,
עמדות אלו אינן חסינות בפני חינוך. תכנית חינוכית יכולה למלא תפקיד בהכנת הציבור באזורנו לחיים
בשלום ובשיתוף פעולה.

هذه المقالة تقدم تقريراً عن برنامج تربوي يهدف لتغيير المواقف السائدة لدى الطلاب-المعلمين
وطلابهم نحو تعاون اقليمي لادارة مصادر المياه ذات العلاقة بالنزاع الفلسطيني الاسرائيلي. وقد
اعد برنامج كرّس لهذا الغرض وانجز في خمس كليات معلمين في اسرائيل: كليتان عربيتان، كليتان
يهوديتان علمانيتان، وكلية يهودية دينية.

وقام الطلاب-المعلمين فيما بعد بتدريس نصوص مختلفة للبرنامج الجديد وذلك لطلاب المدارس
الاعدادية، وذلك كجزء من فعالياتهم التطبيقية.

وكان هدف البرنامج توسيع مدارك الطلاب-المعلمين وطلابهم حول المعرفة الاساسية المتعلقة
باستعمال المياه وامور ادارتها.

ويفترض ان المعلومات الجديدة التي اكتسبت سوف تدعم اواصر الثقة وتؤدي الى تغيير المواقف
المتعلقة بالتعايش السلمي. ان هذه المداخلة قد اسست على النظريات الادراكية (الواعية) لتغيير
المواقف.

L' EXCLUSION SOCIALE COMMENCE À L' ÉCOLE

THÉODOROS MYLONAS

This article sets out to reveal and analyse one element of a latent mechanism, namely the marginalisation and social exclusion within schools of pupils who obtain bad school results. Under the pressure of the ideology of democratisation and equalisation of opportunities, schools have the tendency to make fewer demands in order to allow students to stay longer at school. This has not, however, resolved the problem: pupils do stay on at school, but they are subjected to processes of exclusion within it. Following up on this observation, we pose the following questions: what are the social relations between these students and those who achieve and are successful at school? What factor or factors determine these relations? Are these relations marked by integration or by rejection in the micro-environment that constitutes the school? It is the latter point which refers to the hypotheses of our article. Our empirical research on this subject, which involved a sample of 301 students in their last year of primary schooling, confirmed our hypotheses that the relations of attraction and exclusion are correlated to the school results obtained by pupils, which themselves are dependent on the social origins of students.

Το άρθρο αυτό στοχεύει στην ανάλυση και ανάδειξη μιας όψης του λανθάνοντος μηχανισμού κοινωνικής περιθωριοποίησης και αποκλεισμού μέσα στο ίδιο το σχολείο των μαθητών που έχουν χαμηλή επίδοση. Η τάση του σχολείου, υπό την έντονη πίεση της ιδεολογίας του εκδημοκρατισμού και της εξίσωσης των ευκαιριών, να μειώνει τις απαιτήσεις του με σκοπό να διευκολύνει την επί μικρότερο παραμονή αυτών των μαθητών εντός του, δεν έλυσε το πρόβλημα: παραμένουν εντός, αλλά ως αποκλεισμένοι του εσωτερικού. Με αφετηρία αυτές τις διαπιστώσεις διατυπώνουμε μερικά ερωτήματα: ποιές είναι και από ποιον ή ποιους παράγοντες προσδιορίζονται οι κοινωνικές σχέσεις αυτών των μαθητών με τους άλλους, τους καλούς συμμαθητές τους; Είναι σχέσεις ενσωμάτωσης στο σχολικό μικροπεριβάλλον ή σχέσεις κοινωνικής απόρριψης ήδη και μέσα σ' αυτό; Από το τελευταίο ερώτημα υποδηλώνεται και την υπόθεση εργασίας μας. Η σχετική εμπειρική έρευνά μας που είχε ως δείγμα 301 μαθητές Στ' τάξης Δημοτικού Σχολείου επιβεβαίωσε αυτήν την υπόθεσή ότι οι σχέσεις έλξης (d' attraction) ή απώθησης (d' exclusion) των μαθητών είναι συνάρτηση της σχολικής τους επίδοσης, στενά συνδεδεμένης εξάλλου με την κοινωνική τους προέλευση.

يهدف هذا المقال إلى تسليط الضوء وتحليل أحد أوجه الميكانيزمات الكامنة، وهـــو التــهميش والتفرقة الاجتماعية داخل المدارس للتلاميذ الذين يتحصلون على نتائج سيئة فـــي المدرسـة. فالمدرسة تحت ضغط أيديولوجيا الدمقرطة وتكافؤ الفرص تتجه إلى تقليص متطلباتها لضمــان استقطاب عدد كبير من التلاميذ، إلا أن هذا الاتجاه لم يحل مشكلة التفرقة لأنـــه رغـم بقـاء التلاميذ ضمن منظومة المدرسة فانهم يعانون من هذه المشكلة داخلـــها. وبنـاء علـى هـذه الملاحظة قمنا بوضع سلسلة من الأسئلة، وهي: ما هي الروابط الاجتماعيـــة بيـن الطـلاب الضعفاء والطلاب الجيدين؟ ما هو العامل أو العوامل المحددة لهذه الروابط؟ هل تتمــيز هـذه الروابط بالتكامل داخل البيئة المصغرة للمدرسة أو بالرفض الاجتماعي الذي يحدث منذ البدايـة داخل المدرسة نفسها؟ وتشكل النقطة الأخيرة فرضية هذا المقال. وقد أكد بحثنا التجريبي الـذي ضم 301 تلميذاً بالسنة الأخيرة من التعليم الابتدائي هذه الفرضية، والتي تقـول بـأن علاقـات الدمج أو التفرقة ترتبط بالنتائج المدرسية والتي بدورها ترتبط مباشرة بـالأصول الاجتماعيـة للتلاميذ.

TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD THEIR JOB
AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN TURKEY:
AN EFL PERSPECTIVE

AYSE AKYEL

Plusieurs recherches étudiant les facteurs qui influencent le développement professionnel ont trouvé que les facteurs extrinsèques comme le salaire et les pomotions aussi bien que les récompenses intrinseques comme le plaisir du travail peuvent créer une motivation pour le développement professionnel. Cette étude a pour but la recherche des attitudes des professeurs Turcs de EFL envers leur carrière et développement professionnel. En même temps elle explore aussi

quels facteurs culturels et/ou politiques influencent le développement professionnel des pofesseurs EFL en Turquie. Les données proviennent des interviews soumises à trente-un professeurs de cinq différents lycées en langue Anglaise d'Istanbul. Les résultats indiquent que ces professeurs ont une vue positive de leurs carrières et de leur développement professionnel, à tel point que leurs valeurs, capacités et accomplissements personnels correspondent à leurs attentes concernant les valuers, capacités et accomplissements qui devraient caractériser un professeur. En plus, les résultats indiquent aussi que les travaux professionnels et la reconnaissance qu'ils reçoivent des corps administratifs et de leurs chefs jouent un rôle fort et positif dans leurs attitudes envers le développement professionnel. Finalement, tout comme les résultats des études faites dans des contextes culturels divers, les résultats de cette étude suggèrent aussi que, des facteurs extrinsèques doivent être interprétés d'une manière complexe par rapport à la satisfaction de travail des enseignants et de leurs attitudes envers le développpment professionnel.

Mesleki gelişimi etkileyen etkenleri irdeleyen birçok çalışma ücret ve meslekte yükseltilme gibi dışsal ve işinden tatmin olma gibi içsel etkenlerin mesleki gelişimi güdüleceğini bulgulamıştır.

Bu çalışmada Türk İngilizce öğretmenlerinin öğretmenlik mesleği ve mesleki gelişim konusundaki tutumları incelenmektedir. Bu çalışma aynı zamanda Türk İngilizce öğretmenlerinin mesleki gelişimini etkileyen kültürel ve politik etkenleri de irdelemektedir.

Veriler İstanbul'da eğitim dili İngilizce olan beş orta öğretim okulunda çalışmakta olan otuzbir İngilizce öğretmenine verilen yarı yapılanmış görüşmelerden elde edilmiştir.

Elde edilen bulgular öğretmenlerin meslekleri ve mesleki gelişim konusundaki görüşleri ve tutumlarının kendi kişisel değerleri, yetenekleri ve başarılarının bir öğretmende olmasını bekledikleri kişisel değerler, yetenekler ve başarılar ile aynı düzeyde olduğu sürece olumlu olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca bulgular öğretmenlerin mesleki başarılarının amirlerince takdir edilmesi ile mesleki gelişim konusundaki görüşleri ve tutumları arasında doğrudan güçlü bir ilişki olduğunu göstermektedir.

Son olarak, değişik ortamlarda yapılmış çalışmalarda olduğu gibi bu çalışmada da dışsal ve içsel etkenler ile öğretmenlerin mesleki tatmini ve gelişimi konusundaki görüş ve tutumları arasındaki ilişkinin çok yönlü bir bakış açısından irdelenmesi ve yorumlanması gerektiği vurgulanmaktadır.

أظهرت العديد من البحوث التي تهدف إلى دراسة العوامل المؤثـرة فـي النمـو المـهني أن العوامل الموضوعية مثل المرتب والترقيات والعوامل الذاتية مثل الاعتزاز بـالعمل يمكـن أن تخلق حافزاً للنمو المهني. وتهدف هذه الدراسة إلى بحث اتجاهات المدرسين الأتـراك للغـة الإنجليزية لغير الناطقين بها نحو وظائفهم التعليمية ونموهـم المـهني. كمـا تحـاول أيضـاً استكشاف العوامل الثقافية و السياسية التي قد تؤثر في نموهم المهني .

وقد تم تجميع البيانات من خلال مقابلات أجريت مع 31 مدرساً من خمـس ثانويـات باللغـة الإنجليزية في اسطنبول.وتشير النتائج إلي أن هؤلاء المدرسين لهم نظرة إيجابية تجاه وظائفهم ونموهم المهني إلى درجة تطابق قيمهم وقدراتهم وإنجازاتهم الشخصية مـع توقعاتـهم للقيـم والقدرات والإنجازات التي يجب أن يتميز بها المعلم. علاوة على ذلك، أظهـرت النتـائج أن الإنجازات المهنية للمعلمين والتقدير الذي يتلقونه من الإدارة والمشرفين له علاقة إيجابية قوية باتجاهاتهم نحو النمو المهني. وأخيراً وعلى غرار نتائج دراسات أجريت في بيئات متنوعـة، يوصي هذا البحث بأن تفسر العوامل الموضوعية والذاتية بشـكل مركـب بالنسـبة لرضـا المعلمين عن عملهم واتجاهاتهم نحو النمو المهني. لقد جذب النمو المهني اهتماماً متزايداً فـي السنوات الأخيرة وسُلم بأن الظروف المؤسسية – كالحاجة لتطويـر النوعيـة – والحاجـات الفردية للمعلمين – كالرضا والنمو المهني الشخصي– هما بعدان متلازمان للنمو المهني.

Notes for Contributors

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Manuscripts, preferably between 6,000 and 8,000 words in length, should be sent to the Editor *MJES*, Ronald G. Sultana, Faculty of Education, University of Malta, Msida MSD 06, Malta, accompanied by an abstract of between 100-150 words. The abstract should be provided in English, the author's mother tongue, and possibly Arabic and French. Research Notes, Project Reports, and Comments (1,500 to 3,000 words in length) are also welcome.

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Figures and tables should have their positions clearly marked and be provided on separate sheets that can be detached from the main text.

References should be indicated in the text by giving the author's name followed by the year of publication in parentheses, e.g. '...research in Mahmoudi & Patros (1992) indicated...', alternatively this could be shown as '....research (Mahmoudi & Patros 1992) showed...'. The full references should be listed in alphabetical order at the end of the paper using the following formula:

Book: Surname, Name initials (date of publication) *Title of Book.* Place of Publication: Publisher.

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 Name initials and Surname of (editor/s) *Title of Book.* Place of Publication: Publisher.

Particular care in the presentation of references would be greatly appreciated, and ensure earlier placement in the publication queue.

Proofs will be sent to the author/s if there is sufficient time to do so, and should be corrected and returned immediately to the Editor. 25 offprints of each article will be supplied free of charge together with a complete copy of the journal issue.

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